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[No 6

"—I wish no other herald,
 "No other speaker of my living actions,
 "To keep mine honor from corruption
 "But such an honest chronicler."

Shakspeare—HENRY VIII.

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Public Papers.

(CONTINUED FROM PAGE 78.)

MR. ROSE'S ULTIMATUM.

Washington, March 17, 1808.

Sir—Being deeply impressed with the sense of his majesty's anxiety, that full effect should be given to those views of justice and moderation, by which his conduct has been regulated through the whole of the unfortunate transaction whence the present differences have arisen; and of the disappointment with which he would learn the frustration of his just and equitable purposes; I have felt it incumbent upon me, on the receipt of the letter which you did me the honor to address to me on the 5th instant, to apply anew to this matter the most ample and serious consideration. It is with the most painful sensations of regret, that I find myself, on the result of it, under the necessity of declining to enter into the terms of negotiation, which, by direction of the president of the United States, you therein offer. I do not feel myself competent, in the present instance, to depart from those instructions, which I stated in my letter of the 26th of January last, and which preclude me from acceding to the condition thus proposed.

I should add, that I am absolutely prohibited from entering upon matters unconnected with the specific object I am authorised to discuss, much less can I thus give any pledge concerning them. The condition suggested, moreover, leads to the direct inference that the proclamation of the president of the United States of the 2d of July, 1807, is maintained either as an equivalent for reparation for the time being, or as a compulsion to make it.

It is with the more profound regret, that I feel myself under the necessity of declaring, that I am unable to act upon the terms thus proposed; as it becomes my duty to inform you, in conformity to my instructions, that on the rejection of the demand stated in my former letter, on the part of his majesty, my mission is terminated. And as his majesty's government in providing me with those instructions, did not conceive that after the declaration of his sentiments respecting the affair of the Chesapeake was made known to this government, the state of any transactions pending or untermi-

ated between the two nations could justify the perseverance in the enforcement of the president's proclamation, I can exercise no discretion on this point. As, on a former occasion I detailed, though minutely, the motives for that demand, on the part of his majesty, which I, with so much concern, learn to be deemed inadmissible by the government of the United States: I should here abstain from any exposition of them which visibly can have no further effect upon the negotiation, if I did not deem it essential that they should not be left under any misapprehension which I might be able to

remove; I shall therefore take a short review of the transaction which has given rise to these discussions, in order the more correctly to determine the soundness of the principles upon which the demand is made.

Certain deserters from his majesty's navy, many of them his natural born subjects, having entered into the service of the United States, were repeatedly and fruitlessly demanded by the British officers, of the recruiting officers of the United States; but were retained in their new service. As it was a matter of notoriety, that several of these deserters were on board the frigate of the United States the Chesapeake, they were demanded of that frigate on the high seas, by his majesty's ship Leopard; and all knowledge of their presence on board being denied, she was attacked, and four of them, one avowedly a native Englishman, were taken out of her. Without being deterred by the consideration of how far circumstances hostile in their nature, had provoked, though they undoubtedly by no means justified this act of the British officer, his majesty's government directed that a positive disavowal of the right of search asserted in this case; and of the act of the British officer, as being authorised, and a promise of reparation, should be conveyed to the American minister in London, before he had made any representation by order of the United States.

This disavowal made on the second of August last, was transmitted by him to his government before the 6th of that month; but before Mr. Monroe had received his orders to demand reparation, his majesty learnt with what surprise it is needless to dwell upon, that the president of the United States had interdicted by proclamation bearing date the 2d of July, 1807, the entry of all their ports to the whole of his navy; this surprize was certainly increased, when in the letter delivered by that minister to require redress for the wrong, although it went into details unconnected with it; not only no concern was expressed on the part of the United States, at having felt themselves compelled to enact measures of so much injury and indignity towards a friendly power, but no mention was made of the causes of such measures being resorted to, or even of the fact of their having been adopted. In addition to the embarrassment arising from these circumstances, and the insufficiency of the explanations subsequently given to Mr. Canning, the introduction of a subject foreign to that of the complaint, became the main impediment to the success of this discussion which took place in London. When I had the honor to open the negotiation with you, sir, as I had learnt that the proclamation was still in force, it became my duty conformably to my instructions, to require its recall, as a preliminary to further discussion: had it not been in force, I was not ordered to have taken it into consideration in the adjustment of re-

paration; and it was considered as hardly possible, that it should not have been recalled immediately upon the knowledge of his majesty's disavowal of the attack upon the Chesapeake, as an authorised act. But his majesty could not suffer the negotiation to be carried on in his behalf, under an interdiction, which even if justifiable in the first moment of irritation, cannot be continued after the declaration of his majesty's sentiments upon the transaction, except in a spirit of hostility.

It might have been fairly contended, that in the first instance, the exercise of such an act of power, before reparation was refused or unduly protracted, was incompatible with the purposes and essence of pacific negotiation, and with a demand of redress through that channel; but such have been his majesty's conciliatory views that this argument has not been insisted on, although it might now be more forcibly urged, as it appears that the government of the United States was from the first sensible that even had hostility been meditated by the British government, it would not have commenced in such a manner. But the exception taken, is to the enforcement continued up to the present time, of measures highly unfriendly in their tendency, persisted in, not only after the disavowal in question; the promise of the proffer of suitable reparation, and the renewed assurances of his majesty's amicable dispositions, but, after security has been given in a public instrument bearing date of the 16th of October, 1867, that the claim to the seizures of deserters from the national ships of other powers, cannot again be brought forward by his majesty's naval officers, it is unnecessary to dwell upon the injury and indignity to which his majesty's service is exposed both as touching the freedom and security of correspondents of his agents and accredited ministers in the United States, or as resulting from a measure which in time of war, excludes the whole of his navy from all their ports; which ports are completely open to the fleets of his enemies. It will be sufficient to observe, that even where exemptions from it are granted, they are made subject to such conditions, that of the three last British ships of war, which have entered these ports upon public business, two of them, his majesty's ship *Statira*, having on board a minister sent out for the adjustment of the present differences, and a schooner bearing dispatches, in consequence of their inability to procure pilots, were obliged to enter their waters without such assistance, and were exposed to considerable danger. Great Britain, by the forms established, could repair the wrongs committed, even to the satisfaction of the United States, no otherwise than by the channel of negotiation; yet she avowed distinctly that a wrong was committed, and that she was ready to make reparation for it; it cannot therefore be contended, that the unavoidable delay of actual reparation, subjected her to the imputation of persisting in an aggression, which was disclaimed from the first; if this is true, however much she will regret any impediment in the adjustment of a difference, in which the feelings of this nation are so materially interested, can she consistently with a due care of her own honor and interests, allow it to be concluded on her part under an adherence to a conduct which has a decided character of enmity in the proceedings held towards her by the other party.

I know not in what view the perseverance in the president's proclamation, up to this moment, can be considered, but in that of a measure of retaliation; or of self assumed reparation; or a measure intended to compel reparation; unless it be that which,

if rightly I understand, you define it to be a measure of precaution.

If, when a wrong is committed, retaliation is instantly resorted to by the injured party, the door to pacific adjustment is closed, and the means of reconciliation precluded. The right to demand reparation is incompatible with the assumption of it. When parties are in a state of mutual hostility, they are so far on a footing, and as such they may treat; But a party disclaiming every unfriendly intention and giving unequivocal proofs of an amicable disposition, cannot be expected to treat with another, whose conduct towards it has the direct effect of actual hostility. If then, the enforcement of the president's proclamation, up to the present moment, is a measure of self-assumed reparation, it is directly repugnant to the spirit and fact of amicable negotiation; if it is a measure to compel reparation, it is equally so; and by the perseverance in it, Great Britain is dispensed with the duty of proffering redress. But if it is a measure of precaution, in order to secure reparation, or in order to compel it, it falls under the objections I have stated. If it is a precaution adopted as a guard against acts of violence apprehended on the part of his majesty's naval officers, it surely cannot be considered as being as effectual a security as that arising from the renewed assurances of his majesty's friendly disposition, which imply a due observance of the rights of nations, with which Great Britain is in amity; by all persons holding authority under his majesty's government, from the disavowal of the pretension of the search of national ships; and from the further assurance of that disavowal, given in his majesty's proclamation of the 16th of October last: neither under these concurrent circumstances can the plea of necessity be maintained, and if such a proceeding has not the plea of necessity, it assumes the character of aggression. If these concurrent securities against such an apprehension have any value, the necessity no longer exists; if they have no value, negotiation cannot be attempted, as the basis upon which it rests, the mutual confidence of the two parties, would be wholly wanting.

From the moment after the unfortunate affair of the Chesapeake, that his majesty's naval commanders, in these waters, had ascertained that they were safe from the effervescences of that popular fury, under which the most glaring outrages were committed, and by which they were naturally led to the supposition that they were objects of particular hostility, and that a state of war against them, requiring precautions on their part, had commenced, no conduct has been imputed to them, which could vindicate the necessity of maintaining in force the president's proclamation. Since that time such of those officers as have been necessitated by the circumstances of the war to remain in these waters, have held no communication with the shore, except in an instance too trifling to dwell upon, and instantly disavowed by the commanding officer; and they have acquiesced quietly in various privations, highly prejudicial to the service they were upon, and in consequence of an interdiction, which, had they been regardless of their duty towards a state in amity with their sovereign, and had they not carefully repressed the feelings its tone and language had a direct tendency to provoke in them, would have rather excited than averted the evils it was stated to be intended to prevent; were they regardless of these duties, it was unnecessary. Had they felt themselves obliged completely to evacuate the waters of the United States especially while an enemy's squadron was harbored in them, they

could have done it; but under the admission of hostile compulsion, and under such compulsion, carried into full effect, his majesty could not have dissimulated the extent of the injury received.

In the several cases adduced in which Great Britain required certain preliminaries, previously to entering into negotiation, she regulated her conduct by the same principles to which she now adheres; and refused, while no hostility was exhibited on her part, to treat with powers, whose proceedings denoted it towards her; and who maintained their right in what they had assumed.

From the consideration thus afforded, I trust that neither the order of reason or that of usage, are in contradiction to the demand I have urged, nor am I aware how the order of time opposes the revocation in the first instance, of that act, which affects injuriously one of the parties, and is still avowed by the other.

The subject is thus presented to you, sir, in the light of which it was natural that it should offer itself to his majesty's government. It certainly concerned the president's proclamation to resist chiefly and most materially upon the attack made upon the frigate of the United States, the Chesapeake, by his majesty's ship Leopard, although other topics were adduced as accessories. In this apprehension it may be held to have been sufficiently warranted by the precise time at which, and the circumstances under which it was issued, and by its whole context: and the more so as the impulse under which it was drawn up appears to have been so sudden as to have precluded a due examination of all the grounds of allegation contained in it. And here I beg leave to assure you that with respect to the spirit and tone of that instrument, it would be highly satisfactory to me if I could feel myself justified in expressing on the part of his majesty, any degree of coincidence with the opinions you have announced, or, when thus appealed to, and making every allowance for the irritation of the moment, I could dissemble the extreme surprise experienced by Great Britain, that the government of a friendly nation, even before an amicable demand of reparation was made and yet meaning to make that demand; should have issued an edict directing measures of injury very disproportionate to what it knew was an unauthorised offence, and both in its terms and in its purport so injurious to the government to which that demand was to be addressed, and tending to call forth on both nations the feelings under which a friendly adjustment would be the most difficult. But if, as I learn from you, sir, the proclamation rests substantially upon other causes, it is then peculiarly to be regretted, that together with the demand for redress made in September last, the government of the United States did not think fit to offer a negotiation or an explanation of so momentous a measure, or to declare that its recall must be more or less connected with the adjustment of other alleged wrongs. Nor then did it think it necessary to return any answer to the remonstrance given in by his majesty's envoy at Washington, on the 13th of July, 1807, in which he represented, "that he considered that interdiction to be so unfriendly in its object and so injurious in its consequences to his majesty's interest, that he could not refrain from expressing the most sincere regret, that it ever should have been issued, and most earnestly deprecating its being enforced." It could not be supposed that a circumstance of so great weight could be overlooked by his majesty's government in determining the line of conduct

to be held in the negotiation; and as little could it be expected to pass it over, when on the failure of the discussion with Mr. Monroe, it directed a special mission to be sent to the United States. It had the less reason to imagine that any other grievances could be connected with that for the adjustment of which I am empowered to negotiate, as Mr. Monroe, in his letter to Mr. Canning of the 29th July last, had stated with respect to other subjects of remonstrance, that it was improper to mingle them with the present more serious cause of complaint; an opinion to which Mr. Canning declared his perfect assent, in his letter to that minister of the 2d of the subsequent month; so that this act was left as single and distinct, to be singly and distinctly considered. His majesty's government therefore could not consistently with any view of the subject then before it, or indeed with the just object of my mission, direct or empower me to enter upon matters not connected with that of the Chesapeake; and they could with the less propriety do it, as in order to render this adjustment of differences of such a nature the more easy and the more conspicuous, the minister charged especially with such offices, have been, with few exceptions, restricted to the precise affair to be negotiated. With respect therefore to those other causes of complaint, upon which you inform me that the president's proclamation rests, I cannot be furnished with documents enabling me either to admit or to controvert those statements of grievance foreign to the attack upon that ship contained in your letter; or authorised to discuss the matters themselves. I shall therefore not allow myself to offer such comments as my personal knowledge of some of those transactions suggest to me, although their tendency would materially affect both the marked manner in which those transactions are portrayed, and the disadvantageous light in which his majesty's government is represented to have acted respecting them.

I am moreover led to the persuasion that my government will be the more easily able to rescue itself from incalculable by the inference arising from passages in Mr. Monroe's letter to Mr. Secretary Canning of the 23d of September last, that the differences unhappily existing between the two nations were in a train of adjustment.

If his majesty has not permitted me to enter into the discussion of the search of neutral merchant ships for British seamen, together with the adjustment of the amount of reparation for the attack upon the Chesapeake, it was no wise with a view of precluding the farther agitation of that question at a suitable time; but it was that the negotiation might be relieved from the embarrassment arising from the connection of the present matter with the one so foreign to it, and as it was but too well known, so difficult to be adjusted, of a right distinctly disclaimed, with one which Great Britain has at all times asserted, of enforcing her claim to the services of our natural born subjects, when found on board merchant vessels of other nations, a claim which she founds in that principle of universal law, which gives to the state the right of requiring the aid and assistance of her native citizens. The recurrence, therefore, to that course of negotiation, which had been originally settled between Mr. Secretary Canning and Mr. Monroe, and which had been alone broken in upon by the orders subsequently received by that minister, can only be considered as a resumption of that course of things which Great Britain strenuously contended there was no ground to depart from.—I may observe that

this purpose might have been effected without the intervention of a special minister.

It will be in your recollection, sir, that in our first interview, I stated the condition, which makes the subject of the present letter, before I was informed by you that the president of the United States would consent to the separation of the two subjects.

I had trusted that the exposition which I added in my letter of the 26th of January, to the verbal explanation I had before offered, of the grounds of his majesty's demand, was both in its purport, and in the terms in which it was couched, such as to prevent a suspicion that they were in their intention derogatory to the honor, or calculated to wound the just sensibility of the nation. I may add that such a supposition could not be reconciled with the various ostensible and unequivocal demonstrations of his majesty's good faith and anxiety, that this transaction should be brought to an amicable termination, which were exhibited even prior to any remonstrances on the part or by order of this government. The other topics which I felt myself authorised to advance in that letter, in illustration of that amicable disposition on the part of the king, were brought forward from the conviction I entertained that they must be of a nature to be satisfactory to this government, and therefore such as it was particularly my duty to enforce, but not with a view to rest upon them the right to advance the claim which I have stated.

I may here remark, it is obvious that far from requiring that the first step towards an arrangement of reparation should be taken by the United States, Great Britain has already made them openly and distinctly; they are indubitable testimonies to the respect borne and decidedly marked by Great Britain, to the ties of amity subsisting between the two nations—and of her cordial desire to maintain them unimpaired, and as such alone they were urged.

As his majesty would have derived sincere satisfaction from the evidence of corresponding feelings on the part of the United States, so it would be the more painful to me to dwell upon a series of insults and menaces, which without any provocation or warlike preparation on the part of Great Britain, have been for months accumulated upon her through the United States, and but too frequently from quarters whose authority necessarily and powerfully commanded attention.

I ought perhaps to apologise for adverting to an incidental expression in your letter, if I did not think it right to remove any ambiguity respecting the nature of the claim which Great Britain maintained to her seamen, native citizens of the realm, who have deserted from her service to that of other powers; it is, that on demand they shall be charged forthwith, and consequently they shall instantly be freed from their newly contracted obligations.

Before I close this letter, allow me to state to you, sir, that I have felt it my duty to transmit to his majesty's government, the exposition contained in your letter of the 5th instant, of the various demands on the honor and good faith of Great Britain, on which the complaint is made, that satisfaction has not been afforded to the United States, and on which conjointly with the affair of the Chesapeake, you inform me that the proclamation of the president of the United States of the 2d July, 1807, is founded. It will be for his majesty's government to determine, on the part of Great Britain, whether any and what obligations remain to be fulfilled by

her—whether any denial or such protraction of redress have occurred on her part as to render it necessary or justifiable, the perseverance in an edict, which, when not necessary or justifiable, assumes a character of aggression; and whether, on the result of these considerations, the present negotiation can be resumed on the part of his majesty, with a due regard for his own honor, or with a prospect of a more successful termination.

I have the honor to be, with the highest consideration, sir, your most obedient, and most humble servant.
(Signed.) G. H. ROSE.

Revolutionary Public Papers.

THE DECLARATION

BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED COLONIES OF NORTH AMERICA,

Now met in congress at Philadelphia, setting forth the causes and necessity of their taking up arms.—July 6th, 1775.

If it was possible for men who exercise their reason to believe, that the Divine Author of our existence intended a part of the human race to hold an absolute property in, and an unbounded power over others, marked out by his infinite goodness and wisdom, as the objects of a legal domination never rightfully resistable, however severe and oppressive, the inhabitants of these colonies might at least require from the parliament of Great Britain some evidence, that this dreadful authority over them has been granted to that body. But a reverence for our great Creator, principles of humanity, and the dictates of common sense, must convince all those who reflect upon the subject, that government was instituted to promote the welfare of mankind, and ought to be administered for the attainment of that end. The legislature of Great Britain, however, stimulated by an inordinate passion for a power not only unjustifiable, but which they know to be peculiarly reprobated by the very constitution of that kingdom, and desperate of success in any mode of contest where regard should be had to truth, law, or right, have at length, deserting those, attempted to effect their cruel and impolitic purpose of enslaving these colonies by violence, and have thereby rendered it necessary for us to close with their last appeal from reason to arms. Yet, however blinded that assembly may be, by their intemperate rage for unlimited domination, so to slight justice and the opinion of mankind, we esteem ourselves bound by obligations of respect to the rest of the world, to make known the justice of our cause.

Our forefathers, inhabitants of the island of Great Britain, left their native land, to seek on these shores a residence for civil and religious freedom. At the expense of their blood, at the hazard of their fortunes, without the least charge to the country from which they removed, by unceasing labour and unconquerable spirit, they effected settlements in the distant and inhospitable wilds of America, then filled with numerous and warlike nations of barbarians. Societies, or governments, vested with perfect legislatures, were formed under charters from the crown, and an harmonious intercourse was established between the colonies and the kingdom from which they derived their origin.—The mutual benefits of this union became in a short time so extraordinary, as to excite astonishment. It is universally confessed, that the amazing increase of the wealth, strength, and navigation of the realm, arose from this source; and the minister, who so wisely and successfully directed the mea-

tures of Great Britain in the late war, publicly declared, that these colonies enable her to triumph over her enemies. Towards the conclusion of that war, it pleased our sovereign to make a change in his counsels. From that fatal moment, the affairs of the British empire began to fall into confusion, and gradually sliding from the summit of glorious prosperity to which they had been advanced by the virtues and abilities of one man, are at length distracted by the convulsions, that no shake fit to its deepest foundations. The new ministry, finding the brave foes of Britain, though frequently defeated, yet still contending, took up the unfortunate idea of granting them a hasty peace, and of then subduing her faithful friends.

These devoted colonies were judged to be in such a state, as to present victories without bloodshed, and all the easy emoluments of statuteable plunder. The uninterrupted tenor of their peaceable and respectful behaviour from the beginning of colonization, their dutiful, zealous, and useful services during the war, though so recently and amply acknowledged in the most honorable manner by his majesty, by the late king, and by parliament, could not save them from the meditated innovations. Parliament was influenced to adopt the pernicious project, and assuming a new power over them, have in the course of eleven years given such decisive specimens of the spirit and consequences attending this power, as to leave no doubt concerning the effects of acquiescence under it. They have undertaken to give and grant our money without our consent, though we have ever exercised an exclusive right to dispose of our own property; statutes have been passed for extending the jurisdiction of courts of admiralty and vice admiralty beyond their ancient limits; for depriving us of the accustomed and inestimable privilege of trial by jury in cases affecting both life and property; for suspending the legislature of one of the colonies; for interdicting all commerce to the capital of another; and for altering fundamentally the form of government established by charter, and secured by acts of its own legislature, solemnly confirmed by the crown; for exempting the "murderers" of colonists from legal trial, and in effect, from punishment; for erecting in a neighboring province, acquired by the joint arms of Great Britain and America, a despotism dangerous to our very existence; and for quartering soldiers upon the colonists in time of profound peace. It has also been resolved in parliament, that colonists charged with committing certain offences, shall be transported to England to be tried.

But why should we enumerate our injuries in detail? By one statute it is declared, that parliament can "of right make laws to bind us in all cases whatsoever." What is to defend us against so enormous, so unlimited a power? Not a single man of those who assume it is chosen by us; or is subject to our controul or influence; but on the contrary, they are all of them exempt from the operation of such laws, and an American revenue, if not diverted from the ostensible purposes for which it is raised, would actually lighten their own burdens in proportion as they increase ours. We saw the misery to which such despotism would reduce us. We for ten years incessantly and ineffectually besieged the throne as supplicants; we reasoned, we remonstrated with parliament in the most mild and decent language.

Administration, sensible that we should regard these oppressive measures as freemen ought to do sent over fleets and armies to enforce them. The

indignation of the Americans was roused, it is true; but it was the indignation of a virtuous, loyal, and affectionate people. A congress of delegates from the united colonies was assembled at Philadelphia on the fifth day of last September. We resolved again to offer an humble and dutiful petition to the king, and also addressed our fellow subjects of Great Britain. We have pursued every temperate, every respectful measure; we have even proceeded to break off our commercial intercourse with our fellow subjects, as the last peaceable admonition, that our attachment to no nation upon earth, should supplant our attachment to liberty. This, we flattered ourselves was the ultimate step of the controversy; but subsequent events have shewn, how vain was this hope of finding moderation in our enemies.

Several threatening expressions against the colonies were inserted in his majesty's speech; our petition, though we were told it was a decent one, and that his majesty had been pleased to receive it graciously, and to promise laying it before his parliament, was huddled into both houses among a bundle of American papers, and there neglected. The lords and commons in their address, in the month of February said, that "a rebellion at that time actually existed within the province of Massachusetts Bay; and that those concerned in it, had been countenanced and encouraged by unlawful combinations and engagements, entered into by his majesty's subjects in several of the other colonies; and therefore they besought his majesty, that he would take the most effectual measures to enforce due obedience to the laws and authority of the supreme legislature."—Soon after, the commercial intercourse of whole colonies, with foreign countries, and with each other, was cut off by an act of parliament; by another, several of them were entirely prohibited from the fisheries in the seas near their coasts, on which they always depended for their sustenance; and large re-inforcements of ships and troops were immediately sent over to general Gage.

Frivolous were all the intreaties, arguments, and eloquence of an illustrious band of the most distinguished peers and commoners, who nobly and strenuously asserted the justice of our cause to stay, or even to mitigate the heedless fury with which these accumulated and unexampled outrages were hurried on. Equally fruitless was the interference of the city of London, of Bristol and many other respectable towns in our favor. Parliament adopted an insidious manoeuvre calculated to divide us, to establish a perpetual auction of taxation, where colony should bid against colony, all of them uninformed what ransom would redeem their lives; and thus extort from them at the point of the bayonet the unknown sums that should be sufficient to gratify, if possible to gratify, ministerial rapacity, with the miserable indulgence left to us of raising, in our own mode, the prescribed tribute. What terms more rigid and humiliating could have been dictated by remorseless victors to conquered enemies? In our circumstances to accept them, would be to deserve them.

Soon after the intelligence of these proceedings arrived on this continent, general Gage, who in the course of the last year had taken possession of the town of Boston, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, and still occupied it as a garrison, on the 19th of April, sent out from that place a large detachment of his army, who made an unprovoked assault on the inhabitants of the said province, at the town of Lexington, as appears by the affidavits of a great

number of persons, some of whom were officers, and soldiers of that detachment, murdered eight of the inhabitants, and wounded many others. From thence the troops proceeded in a warlike array to the town of Concord, where they set upon another party of the inhabitants of the same province, killing several and wounding more, until compelled to retreat by the country people suddenly assembled to repel this cruel aggression. Hostilities, thus commenced by the British troops, have been since prosecuted by them without regard to faith or reputation. The inhabitants of Boston being confined within that town by the general their governor, and having in order to procure their dismission, entered into a treaty with him; it was stipulated that the said inhabitants having deposited their arms with their own magistrates, should have liberty to depart, taking with them their other effects. They accordingly delivered up their arms, but in open violation of honor, in defiance of the obligation of treaties, which even savage nations esteem sacred the government ordered the arms deposited as aforesaid, that they might be preserved for their owners, to be seized by a body of soldiers; detained the greatest part of the inhabitants in the town, and compelled the few who were permitted to retire, to leave their valuable effects behind.

By this perfidy, wives are separated from their husbands, children from their parents, the aged and the sick from their relations and friends, who wish to attend and comfort them; and those who have been used to live in plenty and even elegance, are reduced to deplorable distress.

The general, further emulating his ministerial masters, by a proclamation bearing date on the 12th day of June, after venting the grossest falsehoods and calumnies against the good people of these colonies, proceeds to "declare them all either by name or description, to be rebels and traitors, to supersede the course of the common law, and instead thereof to publish and order the use and exercise of the law martial." His troops have butchered our countrymen, have wantonly burnt *Charlestown*, besides a considerable number of houses in other places; our ships and vessels are seized; the necessary supplies of provisions are intercepted, and he is exerting his utmost power to spread destruction and devastation around him.

We have received certain intelligence, that general Carlton the governor of Canada, is instigating the people of that province and the Indians to fall upon us; and we have but too much reason to apprehend that schemes have been formed to excite domestic enemies against us. In brief, a part of these colonies now feel, and all of them are sure of feeling, as far as the vengeance of administration can inflict them, the complicated calamities of fire, sword and famine. We are reduced to the alternative of choosing an unconditional submission to the tyranny of irritated ministers, or resistance by force. The latter is our choice. WE HAVE COUNTED THE COST OF THIS CONTEST, AND FIND NOTHING SO DREADFUL AS VOLUNTARY SLAVERY. Honor, justice and humanity for bid us tamely to surrender that freedom which we received from our gallant ancestors, and which our innocent posterity have a right to receive from us. We cannot endure the infamy and guilt of resigning succeeding generations to that wretchedness which inevitably awaits them, if we basely entail hereditary bondage upon them.

Our cause is just. Our union is perfect. Our internal resources are great, and, if necessary, foreign assistance is undoubtedly attainable. We gratefully acknowledge, as signal instances of the

Divine favor towards us, that his providence would not permit us to be called into this severe controversy until we were grown up to our present strength, and had been previously exercised in warlike operations, and possessed the means of defending ourselves. With hearts fortified by these animating reflections, we most solemnly, before God and the world, declare, that, exerting the utmost energy of those powers, which our beneficent Creator hath graciously bestowed upon us, the arms we have been compelled by our enemies to assume, we will, in defiance of every hazard, with unabating firmness and perseverance, employ for the preservation of our liberties; being with one mind resolved to die freemen rather than to live slaves.

Let this declaration should disquiet the minds of our friends and fellow-subjects in any part of the empire, we assure them that we mean not to dissolve that union which has so long and so happily subsisted between us, and which we sincerely wish to see restored. Necessity has not yet driven us into that desperate measure or induced us to excite any other nation to war against them. We have not raised armies with ambitious designs of separating from Great Britain, and establishing independent states. We fight not for glory or for conquest. We exhibit to mankind the remarkable spectacle of a people attacked by unprovoked enemies, without any imputation or even suspicion of offence. They boast of their privileges and civilization, and yet prefer no milder condition than servitude or death.

In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birth right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it—for the protection of our property, acquired solely by the honest industry of our forefathers and ourselves, against violence actually offered, we have taken up arms.—We shall lay them down when hostilities shall cease on the part of the aggressors, and all danger of their being renewed shall be removed, and not before.

With an humble confidence in the mercies of the supreme and impartial Judge and Ruler of the universe, we most devoutly implore his Divine goodness to protect us happily through this great conflict to dispose our adversaries to reconciliation on reasonable terms, and thereby to relieve the empire from the calamities of civil war.

Malthus on Population.

An Analytical review of the "Essay on the principle of Population, by T. R. Malthus, A. M." with some remarks more particularly applicable to the present and probable future state of the United States.

[CONTINUED FROM PAGE 55.]

Our author next adverts to the state of the ancient inhabitants of the North of Europe, but we deem it unnecessary to pursue him closely through the long detail of historical facts, by which he arrives at the proofs of the proposition upon which he set out: namely, that there is a constant tendency in population to increase beyond the means of subsistence. To this tendency, is obviously to be traced, the long and bloody wars which continued for so many centuries, to ravage all the fairest parts of the earth, and which finally caused the overthrow and complete destruction of the Roman empire.—The laws and customs of the ancient German nations, of which Tacitus⁽¹⁾ has left us an entertaining as well as a very learned account, were emi-

(1) In his book *De moribus Germanorum*.

mentally calculated to promote the spirit of procreation. The women were treated with the most marked attention and regard, and indeed ever held in veneration, for they were considered as endowed with a foresight of future events, and as being interpreters of the Divine will. They sometimes carried their women with them to the field of battle, where their presence served to animate them with martial ardor, and often to turn the fate of a battle, when they would have ingloriously retreated or suffered themselves to be taken captives.¹⁴ Marriages were every where strongly inculcated, and matrimonial infidelity was scarcely known. The man who debauched a woman was obliged either to marry her, to give her a portion, or to suffer death: and no qualification of youth, beauty, or riches could procure a husband to the prostitute. These people were called *barbarians*: how unlike the *civilized* people of the present *enlightened* age! who can smile at seduction, as a fashionable pastime, and encourage the harlot to look down upon the virtuous woman.

It will be readily conceived that in a state of society like this, population would increase rapidly, and that as the people were ignorant of agriculture, or practiced it only in a very inconsiderable degree, it would be necessary for them to resort to arms, either to extend their territory, or force to them selves a settlement in other countries. The fertile provinces of Spain, Italy and Greece, offered an enticing field for these emigrations; but for many centuries they were unable to resist the valor of the Roman arms; as fast, however, as one host was destroyed another succeeded; "clouds of barbarians seemed to collect from all parts of the northern hemisphere. Gathering fresh darkness and terrors as they rolled on, the congregated bodies at length obscured the sun of Italy, and sunk the western world in night." We can be at no loss to discover the checks to population among a people who were never at peace; war, and its attendant famine, were the means by which it was kept down to the level of their scanty means of subsistence.

In the countries of China, Persia, Tartary, Syria, &c. where the inhabitants lead a pastoral life, and where, from the nature of the soil and climate, and great scarcity of water, pasturage must be scanty; it is evident, infringements of territorial right and consequent war would be frequent. War of itself, however, would be insufficient to repress the superabundant population among a people whose very religion teaches them the blessings that flow from fruitfulness. Every man who has ten children is promised the lasting enjoyments of Paradise; but, as in the islands of the South Sea, the women are here considered as the absolute property of the father, and are held up to sale until such an offer is made as will induce him to dispose of them—the consequence of this custom is, that the poor (and they in all countries constitute the largest portion of the people) live single, and the rich are permitted to hold as many wives as they choose to purchase.— If a greater number of children are born than the father is able or willing to maintain, he may dispose of them to the traders for money, or exchange them for necessary conveniences, or murder them; for "when they have not wherewithal to maintain them, they hold it a piece of charity to murder infants new-born, as also they do such as are sick

and past recovery."¹⁵ From the prevalence of the venereal disease, we are induced to believe that those who are unable to purchase wives, do not on that account lead a life of chastity; promiscuous intercourse must take place, which is, at all times, unfavorable to population. We are to consider, therefore, in addition to wars and famine, this restraint from inability to obtain a wife, licentiousness of manners, epidemics, and the diseases incident to poverty, as the principal checks which keep the population down to its proper level.

In different parts of Africa, we have reason to be astonished at the principle of increase which is found to be sufficiently powerful to keep up the population under so many rigorous impediments. The exportation of slaves has at all times acted as a considerable drain to the population of Africa, and yet as Dr. Franklin has observed, it would be difficult to find the gap made by an hundred years exportation of negroes, which has blackened half America. Like the savages of North America, the people subsist chiefly by fishing and hunting, and must, of course, during some seasons of the year, suffer greatly from want; and being divided into numerous petty states, independent and jealous of each other, wars frequently originate from trifling provocations, and are carried on with the most destructive animosity. Longevity is rarely to be met with among the inhabitants of Africa, a circumstance which our author is inclined to attribute chiefly to the heat of the climate: arriving sooner at maturity, he supposes, they must naturally perish sooner than the inhabitants of colder countries. But we do not find this to be the case in other hot climates. In the West Indies, in South America, and in some of the South Sea Islands, under favorable circumstances, the people live to extreme old age. We remember to have seen some years ago in the Island of St. Christopher's a woman who had attained her one hundred and twentieth year, and who possessed the use of all her faculties unimpaired. Buffon, with greater propriety, attributes the shortness of life in Africa, to the early intercourse of the sexes. The children are so debauched and so little under the constraint of their parents, that from the age of ten or eleven they give themselves up to every species of lustful practices.¹⁶ Fevers of the most violent kind, plagues, small pox, &c. are common in various parts of Africa, and annually rage with desolating violence. Under such circumstances, in a climate naturally unwholesome, the checks to population must be too obvious to need being pointed out.

(TO BE CONTINUED.)

British Parliament.

The *House of Lords* and *House of Commons*, are known by the general name of "the parliament." The house of lords consists of an indefinite number of persons called *dukes*, *marquises*, *earls*, *viscounts*, *barons* and *bishops*, all of whom, except the latter, the king (at once the fountain of wisdom and honor,) may make as many as he pleases; and it frequently happens, when a favorite measure is to be carried, that a "batch of peers" is created to secure a majority. At present the House of Lords may be considered as the most servile body of men in Great Britain—now and

¹⁴ History of women, by William Alexander. M. D. vol. i. p. 155, et sequent.

¹⁵ Sir John Chardin's travels. Harris' col. b. iii. c. ii. p. 863.

¹⁶ Vid. Buffon's Histoire naturelle de l'Homme

then a light shines through the gloom that envelopes them, but a large majority are generally found on the side of the minister, *be he whom he may*. Sixteen Scottish peers are elected by their *brother-nobles*, to serve during the parliament;* the twenty-eight Irish peers are elected for life. The bishops hold their seats *ex-officio*, having the dignity of barons attached to their ecclesiastical preferments.

The House of Commons, before the union with Ireland, consisted of 558 members elected, or appointed, and designated as follows.

ENGLAND.		
40 counties send to parliament	80 knights.	
24 cities, (London 4, Ely none)	50 citizens.	
167 boroughs	334 burgesses.	
5 ditto—Abbingdon, Bambury, Bewdley, Hingham-Perres, and Manmouth—one each	5 citizens.	
2 universities	4 represent.	
5 cinque ports—Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their dependencies, Rye, Winchester, and Seaford—two each	16 barons.	
WALES.		
12 counties	12 knights.	
12 boroughs—(Pembroke two, Merioneth none)	12 burgesses.	
SCOTLAND.		
33 shires	30 knights.	
67 cities and boroughs	15 burgesses.	
	558 members.	
IRELAND.		
32 counties	64	
33 cities and boroughs—one each	33	
1 city, (Dublin)	2	
1 college	1	

GRAND TOTAL 658 MEMBERS.

Of the 658 members it rarely happens that 400 attend. The most numerous assemblages known for many years, took place when the notorious Mrs. Clark, (the Duke of York's "dear angel") was examined as a witness at the bar, touching certain appointments she had made in the church and army! at this time more than 500 members were generally present; but the average number does not amount to 300. Less than 100 members often decide the most important questions.

The members of parliament do not receive any compensation, by law, for their services; but it is said that some of them contrive, by selling *ages* and *noes*, to carry on a pretty profitable commerce. Perhaps, two thirds of them are *placemen* or *pensioners*, of one kind or another—at least a majority of the attending members are calculated to be so. It is well known that seats in the British house of commons are disposed of with as little ceremony as bags of wool; and that the ministers dictate to the electors, as well as the elected, in many cases. Proofs of these things, and of plain, positive, palpable bribery, have been frequently offered to be laid before the house, but always voted down without a hearing. It is possible a majority of the members have a *fel-low feeling* on all such subjects, and would not care to establish a precedent that might bring themselves into difficulty!

* For seven years—but the king, or rather his ministers, dissolves it at will. This is always done when the members are troublesome.

† Has only 14 voters—Rye has but six.

A person may be a member of parliament and hold any office in the gift of the crown, those belonging to the judiciary and the church excepted.—Hence the corruption of that body. A man may also be a member and have employment in *Botany bay* or *Nova Scotia*. There are from 50 to 60 members of parliament with the British armies at this time in Spain and Portugal.

Further, and completely, to shew the nature of the representation of the people in the British parliament, let us pursue the subject:

The county of Cornwall (see the table page 11) in 1801, contained 188,269 inhabitants—

London, comprehending the city, with Westminster, and what is called Southwark, &c. the same year contained 864,825 inhabitants—

Yorkshire (which is divided into three districts in the table page 11) called "Ridings," the same year had a population of 858,892 souls—

Cornwall sends forty four members to parliament—to wit: for the county 2; and two for each of the following boroughs: Bodmin, Bossiney, Calington, Camelford, East Looe, Fowey, St. Germans, Grampond, Hellestone, St. Ives, Launceston, Leskeard, Lestwithiel, St. Mawes, St. Michael, Newport, Penryn, Salash, Tregony, Truro, West Looe—44.

London (as above) sends eight members—to wit: the city (proper) 4; for Westminster, 2; for Southwark (a borough) 2;—total 8.

Yorkshire sends sixteen members to parliament; to wit: for the county 2; for the city of York, 2; and two for each of the following boroughs: Aldborough, Beverly, Boroughbridge, Heydon, Kingston upon Hull, Knaresborough, Malton, Northallerton, Richmond, Ripon, Scarborough, Thirsk—total 16.

The town of Manchester, with 100,000 inhabitants, does not send one member. The borough of Old Sarum, consisting of the ruins of one old house, standing on a private estate, and uninhabited,* sends two members!

Mr. Brugh gives a list of 28 boroughs in which the majority of the electors is below 20—these boroughs send 56 members to parliament.

According to his statement, and there is every reason to believe it correct, 354 members are returned by 5,722 voters.

Aylesburgh, one of the boroughs, was a royal manor of William the conqueror; he gave it to one of his favorites provided he should find litter and straw for the king's bed chamber, and furnish him with three eels in the winter, and two green geese in the summer, whenever his majesty came into the neighborhood. For these supplies, though we have not heard of their being lately demanded, one person has the right of sending two members to parliament.

It is the practice, when a member becomes troublesome to the ministry for his talents, to attempt to corrupt his virtue. The famous Edmund Burke affords a memorable instance of this—but it is useless to particularise cases; they are "as plenty as blackberries." Andrew Marvel was the last of the British representatives that was paid by his constituents—he lived about 150 years ago, and was a man of great talents and probity. The minister of the day (the Duke of Newcastle) if my memory serves me,

* Except on the day of election—when the owner, with great gravity, takes possession; appoints himself judge or inspector of the voters; puts his own solitary ballot into his hat, and solemnly declares such and such persons to be representatives of the people in parliament!

correctly" visited him at his lodgings, "in a back garret, up three pair of stairs,"—and after a little prelude offered him in the name of the king, a pension worth several thousand pounds per annum. Instead of replying to the duke, the representative of the people called his housekeeper (the only servant he kept) and asked her "what he had for dinner yesterday?"—She said "a neck of mutton." "And what am I to have for my dinner to day?" demanded Marvel. "The remainder of the piece you had yesterday, hashed," was the reply. Then turning to the duke, who stood confounded and astonished at the procedure, he said in a firm tone—"You see how I live—tell the king, that, at all times, when he acts for the good of his country, he shall have my support, without a pension—but in any other case the wealth of the Indies shall not purchase it." Such traits are honorable to humanity—the anecdote is quoted from memory but substantially true.

Though such is the general corruption, there are some members in parliament whose talents and virtues save it from a total condemnation, and prevent it from becoming a silent non-resisting automaton in the hand of the minister, as is the legislative body of France. But truth, mighty and powerful as it is, clothed in the most elegant language, and told in all the majesty that belongs to it, avails but little—the majority look for the nod of the person who dispenses the "loaves and fishes" of office, and obey it—provided always, he himself stands firmly in his place. If he does not like the ass in the fable of the "sick lion," they seize upon a popular occasion and desert and "kick" him—in this case, he commonly resigns.

With all its imperfection and pollution, however, the British parliament is preferable to the legislative body of France. The latter is a mere tool, whereby the emperor or his ministers give a shape and fashion to things as they want them.—Freedom of discussion does not exist; and if a man of spirit, feeling for the wrongs of his brethren, were to thunder forth their sufferings as is sometimes done in the House of Commons, his life would be the forfeit:—the Frenchman silently acquiesces in all that his master or his master's "confidential servants" propose; or like a vile slave, kisses the rod that lacerates his countrymen; and crawling on the earth, utters forth the basest adulation at the foot of the throne. But in parliament the high-mettled Englishman, well informed of his own rights, and accustomed to speak of them freely, sometimes comes forth, armed with truth, and rives corruption to its centre; surrounded by prostitution he is virtuous. In the language of a freeman, he speaks of the blood and sweat of his fellow subjects wickedly exhausted; boldly charges the ministers with the crimes they have committed, and makes knavery tremble for her place on viewing a picture of herself, in despite of the clamor of the writhing wretches, and the calls of "order" from the chair.

The following extract from the proceedings of the House of Commons is so exactly in point, and so excellent of itself, that we cannot refrain from inserting it, as a proper close to our subject.

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, June 14.—Mr. Percival moved the re-consideration of the English spirit-duty suspension drawback bill, and gave notice that he should produce two more clauses to be added to the bill; the one to enable English distillers to export spirits upon the same advantageous terms as the Irish distillers, and the other to prevent the lowering of the strength of the spirits.

The bill was strongly opposed by Mr. W. Smith and Mr. Marryatt. Mr. P. Moore supported the bill.

Mr. Hutchinson, in a speech of considerable length defended the bill, and did not think it unreasonable that in this solitary instance, Ireland should be allowed to retain the trifling advantage which the articles of union gave her. It appeared to be the decided object of the British distillers, never to allow the English market to be open to the Irish distillers, but that the Irish market should be at all times open to them. This was almost the only advantage which Ireland had derived from that abominable and most disgraceful measure, the union!—Order! Order! Chair!

The speaker. The honorable member will do well to recollect, that such is not the language which it becomes this house to hear, or him to use, in speaking of a grave and solemn act of parliament. (Hear, hear, hear.)

Mr. Hutchinson. Sir, I trust I am incapable of using language unworthy this place or myself. In saying what I have said, I have obeyed the dictate of feelings of which I am not ashamed; and while I know them to be just, I know not why I am to suffer the expression of them to be dictated to me.—Here the cries of *order, order, chair, chair, chair*, became louder and more general.)

Speaker. I hope the honorable gentleman will see the necessity of conforming to the usage of this house. e

Mr. Hutchinson. To conform to the usage of this house I am in every way disposed, (*hear, hear*.) but my first right as a member of it, I will never willingly resign. (*Order*.) If privilege of speech be not the right of every member of this house, I know not what is—I have always thought it to be the right of every member of this house, what he feels honestly to declare boldly—my feelings with respect to that measure of union, have been strong and uniform. When it was first proposed, I foresaw in it danger to this country, in the danger the degradation and the ruin of my own, and as a common friend to both I resisted it by every means in my power—and am I now to be denied the melancholy privilege of deploring the humiliating state to which that measure has reduced my country, by making her a party in effecting her national extinction? Am I to be denied the right of complaining that she has been tricked out of her independence by promises which have all been violated, and hopes which have been all blasted? If, however, after all this, it be the secret determination to rob her gradually of the very few advantages, and those too of partial operation, to which under even such an act she may be entitled, why then, let but gentlemen avow this, and let the union be dissolved!—(*Hear, Hear*.)

After a few words in explanation from Mr. J. Taylor, and Mr. Wm. Smith, the house divided—Ayes 66—Noes 12—majority 47.

We have paid more attention to the preceding subject than some may think it demanded.—But the object was, by holding up a faithful view of things as they really are in Europe, to impress upon the youthful American the superior excellence of his own constitution, and induce him to cling to it—the ark of his safety and happiness.—We have not distorted a single fact.

Canals of France.

In a late work we find a list of all the canals of France, with a brief description of them, of which the following is an abstract. Some of those commenced by the present emperor, are among the greatest works of the kind in Europe; and are now nearly completed—from this enumeration, with a good map of the country before him, the reader will be enabled to draw many important conclusions, when he desires to ascertain the state of that mighty and powerful empire. It may serve also to shew the prodigious efforts Bonaparte has made and is making to counterpoise the loss of the external traffic of his subjects sustained by the naval preponderance of his rival, England.

1. The canal which is to supply Paris with water, from the river Oureq. It forms a communication from Paris to Dieppe, by Rouen, without the necessity of passing up the Seine, which is not safe at all times.

2. The canal of the Ardennes. This canal connects the Meuse and Aine, by means of the river Bar. The Rhine thus communicates with the Meuse, Bar, Aine, Oise and Seine; which greatly facilitates the exportation of Dutch merchandize, as well as wood from the extensive forests of Ardennes.

3. The canal from Le Fere to Landrecies, and from Maubeuge to Brussels—it has several branches.

4. The canal of Nièvre joins the Higher Loire with the Seine.

5. The canal of Provins joins the Vouzie with the Seine—intended chiefly to supply Paris with provisions.

6. The canal from the Rhine to the mouths of the Rhone. This is the most important work of the kind yet planned in France, as it connects the German Sea with the Mediterranean, passing through a great extent of rich country.

7. The canal from the Rhine to the Seine,—also a very important work, with respect to commercial intercourse between the heart of the French empire and Germany.

8. The canal of St. Quintin, with five branches. It communicates with the Sea by the Somme, with the river Seine, with the Oise, the Meuse, the Sambre and the Scheldt—a mighty and most important work.

8. The Canal of La Censee is considered as a branch of the canal of St. Quintin. It establishes a communication between Calais, Dunkirk, Lisle, Douay, and Paris.

The above have all been commenced since Bonaparte was appointed first consul. Some of them are not yet finished. The following were fully completed and in use in 1807—some of them are ancient works.

1. The canal called Des Alpines, connects the Durance with the Rhone. It has two branches.

2. Canal de Bourdignon is small—it connects D'Aigues Mortes, with the Rhone, in the department of Gard.

3. Canal of Braire, is 60 miles long, and has 42 sluices—By means of this work the Loing, is rendered navigable as far as the Seine, a little below Nemours.

4. Canal of Bruck, in the department of the Lower Rhine, is 12 miles long—commences at Molsheim and ends at Strasbourg.

5. The canal from Brussels to Antwerp, forms a communication between the Seine and the Scheldt, by means of the Rupel.

6. The central canal extends 60 miles, and penetrates a mountain for the space of about 1400 yards. It communicates with the Mediterranean by the Rhone, with the Atlantic by the Loire, with the Channel by the Seine, and hence is sometimes called the "canal of the three seas."

7. The canal of the Gold coast, or Burgundy canal, is 150 miles long. It connects the Saone with the Yonne, receiving several small rivers.

8. The canal of Craponne in the department of the mouths of the Rhone. It is not navigable, but turns a vast number of mills and fertilizes the country.

9. The canal of Douay to Lisle and Lens; several improvements are intended to be made to this canal which will greatly promote its usefulness. Among them it is proposed to unite the Scheldt with the Somme, by means of a subterranean passage.

10. The canal of Louvain to Maline is 12 miles long, 60 feet wide and 11 deep.

11. The canal of Givors connects the Rhone and the Loire.

12. The canal of Luçon extends from Luçon to the sea—it is only 6 miles long.

13. The canal of Lune communicates with the sea.

14. The canal from the Meuse to the Rhine.

15. The Southern canal, formerly called the canal of Languedoc. This connects the Atlantic with the Mediterranean, and is 135 miles long. The basin is at Norouse, the highest spot between the seas—and is 400 yards long and 300 wide—but in order always to retain a sufficient supply of water, there is a reservoir at St. Ferol 2400 yards long and 1000 yards wide and 60 deep—its shape is triangular and is enclosed by two mountains and a very strong bank. From hence there is an aqueduct to Norouse. This canal is the greatest work of its kind in Europe—it is cut through mountains and carried over vallies. A full description of it would fill a small volume.

16. The canal du Morbihan, connects the Rannes with the sea, and is only about 4 miles long.

17. The canal of Orleans, or du Loiret, connects the Loire with the Seine—it is 54 miles long, and has 30 sluices.

18. The canal of Montargis was constructed in consequence of the river Loing not being navigable from Montargis to the Seine.

19. The canal from Ostend to Burges. There are three canals which serve to open a communication from Burges to the sea, one of which has water enough for ships of 400 tons burthen. The Basins are capable of containing 100 vessels. Many rivers and places are united by these canals.

20. The canal de la Robine, or de l'Ande joins the Southern canal—passes through Narbonne, and throws itself into the Mediterranean at Noulle.

21. The canal de la Rudelle, communicating with the Rhone and the sea.

The Mamlukes of Egypt.

COMPILED FROM VARIOUS AUTHORITIES.

The origin of this celebrated people is given as follows: in the year 1227, the Tartars residing on the shores of the Caspian sea, under the famous Djenkiz kan, spread desolation and death through the regions of Asia, as far as the Tigris. Weary of slaughter, they brought back with them a great number of young persons, of both sexes, whom they exposed and sold as slaves. The

then reigning sultan of Egypt, of the *Turkman* race, in 1230, purchased 12,000 of the handsomest of the young men, chiefly Circassians, had them carefully instructed in military duties, and soon obtained the finest body of soldiers in the east, but at the same time most mutinous, for they presently gave laws to their master, and shortly after put him to death, substituting one of their own body in his stead. They retained possession of Egypt for 250 years, during which time they put up and destroyed forty seven chiefs. In 1517 they were conquered by the Ottomans under sultan Selim, who took and hanged Toman Bey, and ended the dynasty.

Selim, however, did not exterminate the Mamlukes. Sensible that if he established a Pacha in Egypt with the same powers as the Pachas of other provinces, that the distance from the capital of his empire would afford strong temptations to revolt, he called the remaining Mamlukes together, and established a Divan, or kind of regency, composed of the Pacha and chiefs of the seven military corps. The first to represent the sultan, collect the tribute, &c. The latter to serve as a check upon him, having the right to reject his decrees, and even to depose him. Still further to guard against revolt, he divided Egypt into twenty-four provinces, over each of which he placed a Mamluke as the bey, or governor. These were the "checks and balances," which secured the sovereignty of the country for many years. The sultan also established the tribute, and ordered that 32,000 troops should always be kept under pay and ready for service.

Selim's system answered his purpose exceedingly well, while the head of the empire was vigilant and active. But about 50 years ago many innovations began to take place; and the Mamlukes made themselves the real sovereigns of Egypt, paying very little deference to the orders of the Divan at Constantinople unless it suited their convenience to obey.

"If the first establishment of the Mamlukes was a singular event," says Mr. Volney, "their continuance is not less extraordinary. During the 550 years that there have been Mamlukes in Egypt, not one of them has left surviving issue; there does not exist one family of them in the second generation; all their children perish in the first or second descent. Almost the same thing happens to the Turks; and it is observed they can only secure a continuance of their families by marrying women who are natives, which the Mamlukes have always disdained [their wives are slaves, like themselves, brought chiefly from Circassia, and Mingrelia]; let the naturalist explain (continues Volney) why men well formed, and married to healthy women, are unable to naturalize on the banks of the Nile?"

The means by which the Mamlukes are perpetuated are the same as those by which they were established, to wit, by the purchase of slaves; some of them are sold by their miserable parents to the wholesale dealers; others are kidnapped and carried off, to be disposed of as *other* merchandize. The purchasers are the beys, who educate them with great care, promote them to offices, and from them fill up all the vacancies which occur in their own body. The Mamlukes are remarked for a warm attachment to their masters, whose fortunes they generally follow with unwearied constancy.

As many interesting particulars relative to this singular race of people are not generally known, we shall give a detailed account of their dress, arms, manners and customs.

Dress of the Mamlukes.—First they have a shirt of thin cotton, over which they wear a gown of thin light stuff, descending from the neck to the ankles, folding over the fore part of the body towards the hip, where it is fastened by strings. Over this is a second of like form and width, with sleeves which descend to the fingers' ends, generally made of silk. Round the waist they wear a belt which divides the dress into two bundles. Over these is thrown a gown of cloth, made like the former, except that the sleeves only descend to the elbow. To cover all, they wear a large cloak. "The whole habit," (says Mr. Volney) has the appearance of a long sack, from which is thrust a bare neck and bald head, covered with a turban." The turban is of a cylindrical shape, made of yellow muslin. "On the feet they wear socks of yellow leather, and slippers without quarters, always liable to be left in the mud." But the most singular part of their dress is a kind of pantaloons or trousers, so long as to reach up to their chin, and so wide that each leg is large enough to contain the whole body. Thus swaddled, we cannot suppose the Mamlukes are active walkers, yet they think the dress commodious, and would not, on any account, make an alteration in it. They never but once attempted to fight on foot, and that was to storm a town in Syria, under the famous Ali Bey—they were repulsed, and wisely concluded that that place most indeed be impregnable which could not be taken on horseback!

Their *horse accoutrements* are as badly contrived as their own dress. The saddle is a clumsy frame, loaded with wood, leather and iron, on which a trussquin arises behind, eight inches in height above the hips of the horsemen. The pommel projects from four to five inches. The saddle is not stuffed, but they put woolen cloths under it, and fasten the whole with a circingle tied with leather thongs. They do not use cruppers. A pair of stirrups weighs from nine to twelve pounds. They are formed of a plate of copper, longer and wider than the foot, with sharp edges, which are used instead of spurs—the saddle and saddle cloths weigh about twenty-five pounds. The bridle is as badly constructed—"it is a kind of snaffle, without a joint, with a curb which being only an iron ring, binds the jaw so as to lacerate the skin, and injure the bars of the horse's mouth." In their manœuvres they consider it the most graceful to stop their horses suddenly when at their highest speed.

"Checked by this bit, the horse bends in his hind legs, stiffens his fore, and slides along like a horse of wood." How much this must injure the horse may easily be conceived; but they think it adapted to their method of fighting, and persist in it. Notwithstanding, the Mamlukes are firm and vigorous horsemen, and have a warlike appearance.

Arms. The principal weapon of the Mamlukes is a carbine thirty inches long, of a very large bore, into which they put ten or twelve balls at a time. They all carry a pair of pistols fastened to some part of their dress by strings. At the front of the saddle hangs a heavy mace to knock down the enemy, and on the left side they suspend a crooked sabre, which, measured with the curve is about thirty inches long, but in a right line, from heel to point, not more than twenty four. The beys rival each other in the beauty and goodness of their sabres, and sometimes pay as high as \$300 for the blade only, if of the ancient manufacture of Damascus. Some of these sabres bear so fine and keen an edge, "as to cut a clew of wet cotton like a piece of butter."

Education and exercise. The art of using their arms is the chief object of the Mamluke's attention. They are exercised every morning on horseback, and taught all the manœuvres connected with their manner of fighting. In their exercises it frequently happens that some of them are killed, for they handle each other very roughly. But the Mamlukes have no order, discipline or subordination. "Their troops, are a mob—their march, a riot—their battles, duels—and their war, a scene of robbery and plunder." Experience has proved them totally inadequate to combat with the organized cavalry of Europe, though their whole lives have been spent in military exercises. The maintenance of each Mamluke is supposed to cost his patron, on an average, \$500 per annum; their luxury is excessive, and they are much indulged by their masters, as well to gratify their own vanity as secure their attachment. The horses they ride frequently cost 1000 dollars each—they wear the richest Cashmere shawls, worth from 150 to 300 dollars a-piece, and have a variety of costly pelices, trinkets and precious stones. Their women are also gratified with the most expensive articles of finery.

Manners. The manners of the Mamlukes are universally reprehended. They commit deliberate murder without apparent remorse, and are corrupted by every species of debauchery. M. Volney says they are all guilty of the most horrible pollutions. Without parents, and generally without children, the present is all they regard—"the past has done nothing for them, and they have nothing to do for the future." They are cunning, deceitful and treacherous—cruel, vindictive, and oppressive; and, in fine, so desperately wicked, that none but a Mamluke can compare with a Mamluke. Such are the men who govern Egypt. Their whole number does not exceed 8000—yet they so manage their matters as to keep under check nearly three millions of people, though always in dread of the dagger or poisoned cup of each other.

Geography.

Extracts from Breckenridge's sketches of Louisiana.

ST. GENEVIEVE—Is at present the principal deposit of the lead, of the mine la-Motte, the mine a Burton, New Diggings, the mines on Big river, with several others; and is the store house, from whence those engaged in working the mines are supplied with a variety of articles. This town was commenced about the year 1774.

It is situated about one mile from the Mississippi, between the two branches of a stream called the Gabourie, on a flat of about one hundred acres, and something higher than the river bottom. There is a second branch about 20 feet higher than this, upon which the town begins at present to extend, this is merely a step however, and bounded by a third bank, 80 feet above the level of the river; there are scattering houses for some distance up each branch of the Gabourie. West of the town, and north of the Gabourie, the country is high and somewhat broken. The soil is a yellow clay; in places strewed with horn stone, but produces good corn and wheat. The timber has been in a great measure destroyed for the use of the town. In front of the town on the Mississippi there is a fine bottom commencing from the Gabourie, and extending eight or nine miles along the river; the greater part of the distance, three miles in width. The common field under fence contains about seven thousand acres.

There are six mercantile stores, and in the course

of the present [last] year about one hundred and fifty thousand dollars worth of merchandise and produce has been brought to it for sale. St. Genevieve is a rising town; a greater number of buildings have been erected here than at St. Louis, and preparations are making for building a number more in the course of the next season. There are two brick yards. A very handsome edifice has been erected of limestone, on the hill, or third bank, that I have mentioned, and commanding an elegant prospect of the river and the American bottom, and the bluffs on the other side of Kaskaskia. This building is intended for an academy, and does great honor to the public spirit of those gentlemen who were engaged in so laudable an undertaking. They are at present at a loss for a teacher of the classics; a thousand dollars per annum it is said has been offered. A seminary such as this has been much wanted, and St. Genevieve is a good situation for it. There are two schools in this town; one French and the other English.

The population of this town, and New Bourbon, an inconsiderable village on the bluff, or second bank, two miles below it, amounts to 1,450. There is about the same proportion of slaves, as at St. Louis; the number of Americans is about the same. There was formerly a village of Piorias, below the town, but they left it a few years ago.

St. Genevieve was formerly built immediately on the Mississippi, but the washing away of the bank, and the great flood which happened about twenty years ago, and is called *Panne-des-eaux*, caused the inhabitants to choose a higher situation.

The principal employment of the inhabitants was agriculture, but there are very few who have not, also, been engaged in the mine business. This being a field of industry and enterprise open to every one, it is here that the young men generally make their *debut* on commencing business for themselves. A number of inhabitants, however, are chiefly employed as boatmen, or for the purpose of conducting voyages. There is some Indian trade, from the neighboring Shawanese, Piorias, and Delawares.

There are a number of wealthy and respectable families, and the society, as in those villages generally, is pleasant and agreeable. There are but few mechanics; and to those that are industrious and ingenious this place would give encouragement.

Sheep's Wool.

FROM THE DEMOCRATIC PRESS.

A CLOTHIER—No. I.

TO TOBACCO PLANTERS AND SHEEP BREEDERS: It will be found in Mr. Arthur Young's "Report, (p. 367) on Lincolnshire" in England, that the whole land in that county is 1,848,000 acres; having on them 2,400,000 sheep of two heavy fleeced breeds, producing 21,610,000 pounds of wool, selling at one sixth of a dollar (or fifteen pence sterling) per pound. The whole value of unmanufactured wool is £810,000 sterling; equal to 3,600,000 dollars.—This, at our prices for wool, would be equal in value to all the American cotton exported from the United States in a year, being 7 or 8 millions of dollars. The weight of this wool is greater than the weight of all the sheep wool yet made in the United States in any year.

When it is considered, that the quantity of land in Lincolnshire (G. B.) is not more than one fifteenth of the land in Pennsylvania, or in New York, a tenth of South Carolina, or one twelfth of

North-Carolina, there can be no doubt of the immense capacity of the United States to produce wool. The county of Lincoln (G. B.) is in a great part fenny or marshy; in part it is heath: in parts dry and rich. Some of the fenny districts produce fleeces of fourteen pounds. It is probable that some of our richest drained swamps would be excellent for such sheep.

Mr. Young states, that the average of the *Lincolnshire* sheep, of the two different breeds, is nine pounds of wool to the fleece; and those farmers who confine themselves to the *Lincolnshire* breed get ten pounds. Some authorities say eleven pounds, are the true average weight of the fleeces of the true *Lincolnshire* breed. Let us increase our care of sheep, and omit to kill any lambs or sheep under three years old, and we shall have more wool in the next year or two for our army, navy, militia, camp followers and all attendants and privates, than will be requisite for any war with any power in Europe.

No. II.—It is wonderful that the profits on sheep and wool have remained so long unobserved in the United States. This branch of farming particularly suits our country, because, we have so great a quantity of land, and so moderate a population in proportion to our extensive territory. One man, boy, or woman can take care of many sheep. In Scotland, the least fertile country upon earth, that sagacious, steady and energetic people produce wool in their poorest counties, and sell it as low as 7s. 6d. and 8s. sterling for a stone of 24 and 26 pounds.* This is less than seven cents per pound! Of this wool coarse hats and bonnets, carpets and stockings are made. Our poorest districts are all milder than Scotland, and more fertile than one half of its sheep districts. They are also much drier, which favors the health, flesh and wool of sheep. With the extension of sheep, the extension of manufactures should and will go hand in hand.—Manufactures are one of the handmaids of agriculture. Our steepest limestone lands are very favorable to sheep. They are so healthy on that strong kind of soil, as to thrive well on it, without salt. Since beef, pork and grain may be low, in the ensuing year, because our vessels are captured, let us use our beef, veal and pork, and feed our poultry with our grain for our own table and spare our sheep for one or two years, and thus increase our stock of them. By girdling in all our lightly wooded lands, we may open the surface of the earth to the air and sun and make good sheep pastures. The brush scythe will cut up the brambles, briars and underwood. The brush scythe or brush cutter would be better always in our sheep keepers hands than the shepherd's crook and pipe.

We certainly ought very considerably to diminish our tobacco cultivation. Sugar lands are employing part of our Southern laborers, who used to make tobacco, cotton, indigo, rice, and corn.—Sheep will employ a number of hands, which were lately engaged in raising cotton, tobacco, hemp, indigo, rice and corn. The poorest and bleakest lands in the northern states may be brought into use for sheep, though too stony or too steep for the plough. By thus adopting new modes of agriculture, and new modes of industry, we shall give ourselves a complete self-dependence, under a benign Providence.

It is a fact (which *Sinclair's Statistics of Scotland*

* See Sir John Sinclair's books on Scotland and its parishes, in seventeen volumes: a work full of instruction to the farmers, freeholders and planters.

prove, and which Mr. Arthur Young's English farming books confirm) that our oak barrens and underwooded plains may be profitably applied to sheep. The brush scythe, or other cutting instrument would rapidly bring them into a condition for range. The burnt lands of many neighborhoods could be employed advantageously for sheep-walks.

The streams, which fall from our hilly lands, could be made by little channels, to water their sides, and produce great quantities of grass in poor and stony and broken grounds: a good employment for the industrious shepherd.

As manufactures should be ever in view to support the value of wool, sheep, and lands, the trade of dressing skins should be diffused through all the counties in the morocco style, and for bookbinders, gloves, wool card-makers, and others. A pound of leather gloves can be brought from the state of Ohio to Philadelphia for a five cent piece. So of a pound or square yard of merino superfine cloth.

No. III.—On the whole of the counties of England (exclusive of Scotland) it is computed, that nearly twenty nine millions of sheep are maintained! These produce (at five pounds coarse and fine, on an average per head) one hundred and forty-five millions of pounds weight of wool, which brings there the medium price of eleven pence sterling or a little more, per pound. This is equal to about twenty cents and one half, as much is coarse wool for working people. The whole value is nearly thirty millions of dollars to England alone for her unmanufactured wool, though her quantity of land is not more than half the joint contents of New-York and Pennsylvania, and is far less than the lands of Virginia or of New-England, or of Ohio, or of Georgia, or of the Mississippi Territory. Though so vast a quantity of wool was produced in England in 1809, yet Scotland and Ireland each produced much wool, and six millions of pounds of fine wool were imported into Britain from Spain. The British manufactures of wool were computed, for exportation to be £ 8,500,000. Similar woollen manufactures for home use, were estimated at £ 17,060,000, the two making the sum of £ 25,560,000 sterling, or one hundred and thirteen millions, six hundred thousand dollars.

We can then easily and profitably discontinue most of our tobacco, and some of our cotton, and beef cattle farming, for this immense object of agriculture, the produce of which is wanted in our home market, for our own use. We can manufacture it in part within our own families, and in part within the houses for carding and spinning machinery, which we are every where erecting. No spoliation will injure our home wool market, as in the case with our tobacco, our cotton, and our beef, and indeed all exports to foreign countries. Our poorest barrens, plains and burnt lands will serve for sheep walks, as in England, Wales and Scotland, and so will our rich marshes, and our strong limestone and other fertile lands. Here any quantity of land can be spared for sheep, without lessening the quantity we require to sow with grain, hemp, flax and other productions. Wool is worth from 50 to 100 per centum, more here than in England. One man can tend many sheep, and he can farm, in that way, a large quantity of our redundant land. Valuable sheep grounds, to a vast extent, can be purchased in America, for much less than the lowest average rent of the poorest county in England, Ireland, Scotland or Wales. The sheep are fine in Arabia, fine in Spain, and fine in England, and will therefore thrive in all our climates from the Gulf of Mexico to the river St. Croix

Strange things.

Literary Prodigy.—The following account is extracted from the *Moniteur* of the 28th of last May, under the head of the Kingdom of Westphalia:

GOTTINGEN, May 20.

For these eight months we have had among the students of our university, a boy who is ten years and a half old, which is a real phenomenon. The name of this young scavant is CHARLES WITTE. He understands the languages, history, geography, and literature, as well ancient as modern; at the age of eight years, he possessed, besides his mother tongue, Greek, Latin, French, English, and Italian, to such a degree of perfection, that he could not only translate currently, the *Æneid* of Virgil, and the *Iliad* of Homer, but could besides speak, with an astonishing facility, all the living languages which we have just mentioned. Of this, he, last year, gave such satisfactory proofs, in a public examination, which he underwent at the University of Leipsic, that that body honored him with a diploma.

Till his arrival at Gottingen, this child had no other instructor than his father, the clergyman Witte. His majesty the king of Westphalia, desirous that he should continue to direct the studies of his son to their determination, has granted him a pension which has enabled him to quit his pastoral functions, and to accompany his pupil to our university. The young Witte is now studying philosophy; he is engaged in a course of mathematics, physics, and metaphysics, and shows the most happy disposition for all the sciences.

The mathematical phenomenon.—Hearings much said about this child, the editor sent for him in order to form some opinion for himself, and for the purpose of giving some particulars to the public, if any thing should appear worthy public patronage. The child appears to be not more than six or seven years old, and in nothing, except his power in figures, remarkable for a child of that age either as to mind or manners. He could not write nor read figures so as to enumerate; I then put to him among others, the following questions: a gentleman present having first ascertained the result with his pen.

Question 1. Suppose 39 apple trees, 13 limbs to a tree, and 170 apples on a limb, how many apples in all? He screwed up his brows a little, and in 14 seconds by a stop watch, gave the answer, 86,190.

Q. 2. What numbers, multiplied by themselves will produce 603,529? He said in two seconds there were no numbers which so multiplied, would give that result. The gentleman present re-examined his figures and asserted there was. The child instantly replied; no, and desired him to try once more: on this trial he found he had multiplied wrong; he then varied the question and asked him what numbers multiplied by themselves would produce 603,729? The boy answered, as if by instinct, 777: which was right.

Q. 3. How many seconds are there in 60 years? In half a minute he answered, 1,892,160,000, (one billion, eight hundred and ninety two millions, one hundred and sixty thousand.

Several more questions were asked with similar success, and utterly to my astonishment; but I have not room for them here. When we consider the unheard of powers of this child, and the laudable purpose to which the proceeds of his exhibitions are to be appropriated, we cannot but hope that a liberal encouragement will be experienced.

[N. Y. Evening Post.

THE ROYAL INSTITUTION.—On Saturday se'night, Mr. professor Feinaigle, of Baden, gave a public experiment of the efficacy of his method of facilitating and assisting memory. The managers of the institution, in consequence of the application of the committee of literature and science, granted permission for this public display of the art, without, however, making themselves responsible for its character. The exhibition took place before an assemblage of several hundred ladies and gentlemen, who were astonished and delighted with the result of the experiment. Four children, two boys and two girls, all under fourteen years of age, had been put under Mr. Feinaigle's care but two or three days before; he had one of the girls but an hour and an half; and the longest tuition that any of them had received was but four hours and a half.

One of them repeated Goldsmith's *Hermi* backward and forward, and stated the stanza, the line, and the order of any remarkable word required of him.

One little girl answered to questions in the chronology of the Roman emperors: another multiplied without slate or paper, two sums of eight figures, by eight, and declared that she had not previously been taught arithmetic.

A boy determined the geographical situation in the degree and minutes, of fifty different cities; and on a planisphere chalked out on a board, marked down the true situation of places named to him.

Mr. Fincher, of the institution, also recited the Mineralogical Tables of Hany, the second part of which he had taught himself on Mr. Feinaigle's system; together with the first part of Bission's Ornithologic system, and he declared, from his experience, that the principles of Mr. Feinaigle's art, were equally calculated to give facility in the acquisition and certainly in the retention of the tables of any other science—a fact which was confirmed by several gentlemen present, who have attended the private courses of the professor.

The examinations were carried on by Mr. Disney, chairman of the literary and scientific committee, and for a great part of the time, Mr. Feinaigle retired from the lecture room. Nothing could be more satisfactory than the result of the experiment: and the company returned Mr. F. their thanks. [Lon. pap.

The Chronicle.

Baltimore, October 12, 1811.

Maryland election for delegates.—The election held in this state on Monday last, for delegates to the General Assembly, failed to excite its usual sensibility, from the confidence of one party in its strength, and the assurance to the other of its weakness as demonstrated in the late choice of electors of Senate. By our next publication, we expect to receive all the returns, when a full record of the gentlemen elected, as also of the number of votes, &c. shall be made. The republican majority in the house will be about as large as usual.

The Court Martial at Frederick-town are slowly going on with the evidence in the case of general Wilkinson. The testimony is very voluminous: it is supposed it will be three months, at least, before they will be able to get through the business.—Colonel Cushing and Major Pike have been summoned at the request of the accused.

The President of the United States, under his letters patent and the great seal of the said states, has acknowledged and recognized *Monsieur Lescaulier*, as consul general of his Imperial and royal majesty the Emperor of the French and king of Italy, to the United States of America."

A considerable body of Americans celebrated the fourth of July, with great glee, at Montreal in Canada. Among the toasts drank on that occasion the following are worthy of remark :

Our country—May she never doubt the fidelity of her absent sons in the hour of danger.

Patriots of '76—Your children best know your worth when borne down by overbearing spirits.

Sojourning Americans—May you all be ready at your country's call.

Brother Jonathan*—May his great gun be loaded with true American principles, wadded with traitors, and pointed at the enemies of liberty. Yankee doodle.

May Washington and Franklin never be forgotten, and may the words of Algernon Sidney never perish:—"Where liberty dwells there is my country."

Many in one (e pluribus unum) the motto of the United States.

The American Constitution—The greatest piece of human ingenuity, the safeguard of our union, and the shield of our liberty.

Our native country—May she have a speedy and amicable adjustment with all nations.

Yankee doodle—More powerful than the shouts of rams' horns, which brought down the walls of ancient Jericho.

The British merchants trading to the United States, generally called the "American merchants" have tested the sincerity of the British ministry, as to their desire to revoke the orders in council on proof being adduced that the French decrees have ceased to have effect. It appears from a late London paper, that they applied to Lord Bathurst, president of the board of trade; and, on his affecting to doubt whether said decrees were revoked, they said, that proof could not be expected while his majesty's ships captured all vessels bound to France—but one of the deputation offered to send a valuable ship and cargo, then at the Mother Bank, waiting for orders direct to France to afford practical proof of the state of the case, provided his lordship would grant to said vessel a protection against the British cruizers—WHICH HIS LORDSHIP REFUSED TO DO. The like application was made to the marquis Wellesley, with the same effect.

The sloop Express, from Oporto, arrived at Philadelphia, was boarded by a French frigate, said to be from the isle of France, bound to Brest, and robbed of 1500 dollars in specie, and a variety of other articles, on the 8th of September last.

A letter from captain Thomas Quail of the schooner Honnad, of Philadelphia, dated "Prison, Cape Francois, July 2, 1811," states, that on the day after his departure from Aux Cayes, (Feb. 6) he was captured by one of King Christophe's fleet, and carried to Gonaives, from whence he and his crew were marched to their present prison; detained ever since in dungeons, without the use of the air, and allowed only a biscuit each, per day—his royal majesty has not deigned to assign any reason for this treatment. But—"Kings can do no wrong."

The amount of British captures since the revocation [for partial abrogation] of the French decrees, so far as we have heard of them, are stated to amount to more than fifty valuable vessels. But captures and detentions, are so common, even on our own

coasts, by the British, that they are noticed in the papers as mere articles of intelligence, arising from the nature of things—"the whole sea belonging to his majesty."

It is stated that a great deal of smuggling is carrying on to the eastward. If the British have managed for so many years to force their goods into the continent of Europe, whose coasts are lined with troops, it is not wonderful they should be able to manage such matters in the United States. They have reduced the business to a science; and it is to be hoped, that one of the first acts of Congress will be—to enforce the non-importation law, by putting into commission a number of small armed vessels—or, to repeal it. As it at present stands, the people are demoralized; the government defrauded; and our own manufacturers disappointed in their calculations.

King Jo-eph has issued a decree convoking the Cortes of all Spain to Burgos, the capital of Old Castile. They are to assemble in the present month.

The congress of the new republic of Venezuela consists of 45 members, deputies from the several provinces according to their population: to wit—Carraccas 24; Baunas 9; Cumana 4; Barcelona 3; Merida 3; Truxillo 1; Margarita 1;—Total 45.

Dreadful conflagration. Two thirds of the city Smyrna was destroyed by fire between the 10th and 14th of June last. The greater part of its immense magazines of goods, particularly of cotton, fell a prey to the flames; and, in consequence a great rise in the productions of the Levant has taken place in Europe.

Smyrna, a city of Asia Minor, or Asia Minor, is situate on a spacious bay of the Mediterranean, and has one of the most commodious harbours in the world. The city has been several times nearly destroyed by earthquakes; but rebuilt from its eligible situation, being the common rendezvous of the merchants who trade to that part of the world, and the great deposit of the rich productions of the east. It contained about 20 mosques, with several churches for the Greeks, Latins and Armenians, and eight synagogues for the Jews, and about 120,000 inhabitants; the greater part of whom were actively engaged in commerce and manufactures. It was the most busy place in that part of Asia—the whole town being represented as a continual fair.

The locust is also making dreadful ravages in those portions of Asia situate on the Mediterranean sea. The accounts we have of the numbers, or quantity, of this insect would be incredible, were not the fact attested by so many travellers of unimpeached veracity. They are said to come from the deserts, and in such prodigious swarms as to obscure the light of the heavens; consuming every green thing and sometimes covering the ground a foot in thickness—wherever they pass, says Mr. Volney, one would imagine that fire had followed them. "The noise they make in browsing on the trees and herbs, may be heard at a great distance, and resembles an army foraging in secret." When a strong wind off the land prevails they are driven in such quantities into the sea, and drowned, that when their carcases are driven on shore, the air is infected for several days to a great distance. The Samaritan, a bird resembling a wood pecker, attacks them with such fury, and kills them with such amazing rapidity, that it would seem as though the great Author of all things had designed it for this very purpose. Those birds are much respected by

* Americans are stigmatized in Canada with the epithet of Jonathan.

he people: and no person is allowed to injure one of them. Fortunately, the locust does not often appear in so great quantities; unless the preceding winter has been very mild, they do little injury.

Pennsylvania election.—Simon Snyder, Esq. is, doubtless, re-elected governor of Pennsylvania—there was no candidate in opposition. In the city of Philadelphia the federalists have carried every man—the majority is about 800.

The annexed article is copied from the "Time Piece," a spirited gazette, printed at "St. Francisville in West Florida," as it is called. The document is interesting as shewing the organization of the territory (or part of it) heretofore in dispute; the right of the soil having been claimed by Spain.

**By William Charles Cole Claiborne,
GOVERNOR OF THE TERRITORY OF ORLEANS,
A PROCLAMATION.**

WHEREAS by an act of the legislature of the territory of Orleans, passed on the 24th day of April, of this present year, 1811, the biennial election of representatives to the general assembly, is directed to take place, on the first Monday in October next, and the two following days;—I do, therefore, issue this my proclamation, hereby requiring that an election as aforesaid, be holden in the several counties of this territory, and that there shall be returned from the county of Orleans, six representatives to the generally assembly; from German Coast, two; Acadia, two; La Fourche, two; Iberville, two; Attakapas, two; Opelousas, two; Point Coupee, two; Rapide, two; Concordia, one; Ouachita, one; Natchitoches, one; and from the county of Feliciana, *free representatives, of which there shall be returned three from the parishes of East Baton Rouge and Feliciana; one from the parishes of St. Helena and St. Tammany, and one from the parishes of Silcox and Pascagoula.*

And I do further direct and require, that due notice be given of the times and places of election, in the several counties and parishes aforesaid, and that the same be, under the direction of the parish judges and other officers, conducted in the manner pointed out by "An act prescribing the formalities to be observed in the election of representatives of the territory of Orleans," passed on the 4th of June, 1806, and "An act supplementary" to the last mentioned, passed on the 14th April, 1807.

Given under my hand, and the seal of the territory, at New-Orleans, on the first of August, eighteen hundred and eleven, and in the 36th year of the independence of the United States of America.

WILLIAM C. C. CLAIBORNE.

NOTE.—No person is eligible or qualified to act as a representative, unless he shall have been a citizen of the United States three years, and be a resident in the district or territory; or unless he shall have resided in the district three years; and in either case shall likewise hold in his own right, in fee simple, 200 acres of land within the same."

"No man is entitled to the right of suffrage, unless he shall possess a freehold in 50 acres of land in the district or territory, having been a citizen of one of the states, and being resident in the district, or the like freehold, and two years a resident in the district."

By an act of the legislature, it is made the duty of the judges or commissioners of election, "to cause the title of property of the voter to be exhibited, or in defect of such title, to administer to

the voter on oath, whereby he shall swear that he possesses truly and bona fide, at least 50 acres of land in the territory, for at least three months past."

WM. C. C. CLAIBORNE.

Late intelligence, by an arrival at New-York.
LONDON, August 24.—Advices from France by the last cartel state, that the proceedings of the Council at Paris had been resumed, and it was supposed that an arrangement would at length be agreed upon by Napoleon and the Pope.

Moniteurs of the 19th, and other Paris papers of 18th, were received this morning. The Moniteur of the 19th contains the following declaration made by Bonaparte, in reply to an address from a deputation of the Ionian islands:

"I will never abandon the islands which the superiority of the enemy has placed in their power. In India, in America, in the Mediterranean, every one that is and has been French shall always be so. Conquered by the enemy, by the vicissitudes of war, they shall return into the empire by the other events of the war, or by the stipulations of peace. I should always consider it as an eternal blot upon my reign, if I ever sanctioned the abandonment of a single Frenchman."

The king of England was alive on the 29th Aug.—It was expected that the British parliament would assemble in October for the chief purpose of investing the prince of Wales with full powers.—By advices from off Flushing it was understood in England, that the French fleet, consisting of 17 sail of the line and many frigates, had exhibited some appearance of putting to sea. The French have also 3 ships of the line at Gorée, and 5 in the Texel. A part of the fleet at Toulon ventured from the port in the beginning of August, but returned on the appearance of a British squadron, which exchanged some shots with the batteries:

The king it seems was not expected to survive many days. All the ceremonials used in the proclamation of a new sovereign had been prepared and arranged, and the principal officers in the College of Arms and other departments concerned, had received notice accordingly.

[N. Y. paper.]

Another account says "the king still lives, and many people think he may continue in his present state for many years."

The Editor's Department.

We have prepared for the press a translation of a "manifesto by the confederation of Venezuela, to the whole world"—an article of much interest, and well worthy of record—but its great length and the pre-occupancy of our pages, prevent its insertion in this number.

The *History of Spain*, from circumstances beyond our controul, is not continued in the present number, but shall be resumed in our next.

The editor tenders his thanks to gentlemen at distance who have interested themselves in obtaining subscribers to the WEEKLY REGISTER—and all others well disposed towards him & his work, requests information of irregularities or omissions, for some such yet there are. He will be thankful to postmasters to give him notice of what ever may promote the speedy or safe conveyance of the Register to its places of destination. They are packed up with uncommon care, and ought to reach subscribers without being injured.

Among other "good things" we have the pleasure to Register the names of 140 subscribers since the last week. Present number—2144.