





A. Lincoln

1862 Springfield

To Mr. Speed
and friend
of your little book







Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2010 with funding from

The Institute of Museum and Library Services through an Indiana State Library LSTA Grant

A
HISTORY
OF THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA;

FROM
THE DISCOVERY OF THE CONTINENT

BY CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS,
TO THE PRESENT TIME:

EMBRACING AN ACCOUNT OF THE
ABORIGINAL TRIBES, THEIR ORIGIN, POPULATION, EMPLOYMENTS, ARTS,
DRESS, RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, &c.

TOGETHER WITH SKETCHES OF THE
DISCOVERIES AND SETTLEMENTS MADE BY DIFFERENT NATIONS

THE PROGRESS OF THE COLONIES—THEIR WARS—THE REVOLUTION WHICH LED TO THEIR
INDEPENDENCE; AND THE SUCCESSIVE ADMINISTRATIONS OF WASHINGTON, ADAMS,
JEFFERSON, MADISON, MONROE, AND J. Q. ADAMS—THE WHOLE INTERSPERSED
WITH NOTICES AT THE DIFFERENT ERAS OF THE PROGRESS OF MANNERS,
RELIGION—TRADE AND COMMERCE—AGRICULTURE—ARTS AND
MANUFACTURES—POPULATION AND EDUCATION.

BY CHARLES A. GOODRICH.

ACCOMPANIED WITH A MAP OF THE UNITED STATES, AND
ILLUSTRATED BY FORTY-EIGHT ENGRAVINGS.

HARTFORD:
PUBLISHED BY H. F. SUMNER & CO.
Stereotyped by Conner & Cooke, New York.

1833.

Entered according to act of Congress, in the year 1832, by CHARLES A. GOODRICH, in the
Clerk's Office of the District Court of Connecticut.

mg 5322
RBD\CB\1833\G625h.

P R E F A C E .

THE basis of the following work was first published ten years since. At that time, it was presented to the public with much diffidence. Unexpectedly, it was received with uncommon favour; and, through the above space of time, it has been continued to be issued from the press, by several thousands, almost every year. The circumstances under which it was originally published, prevented the author from revising a single line of it, after the first edition; although, at successive periods, some additions were made to the work, corresponding to the lapse of events.

But, at length, existing obstacles having been removed, the author has devoted some months to a thorough and careful revision of it. Besides correcting not a few errors, he has endeavoured to supply important deficiencies, especially in the earlier and later portions of the work, by which he has added more than one hundred and fifty pages to its original size.

He has retained the plan, originally adopted, from a conviction of its general excellence, and in this he has been strengthened by the sanction which has been given to the work by a generous, but discerning public. For the benefit of the reader, who may not at once understand the plan of the volume, the following brief explanation is added: **The**

principal object of dividing the History into periods is to aid the memory, by presenting certain marked eras, from which the whole subject of dates may be readily and distinctly viewed.

Two sizes of type are employed. The matter in larger type is designed to give a brief outline of the history of the United States, and may be read in connexion. The matter in smaller type is to be regarded rather in the light of notes, which, without studying exact regularity, are thrown in as they may subserve the purposes of illustration and completeness in the delineation of events; or, as they may contribute to support the interest, and establish the recollections of the reader.

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION, 11

GENERAL DIVISION, 13

PERIOD I.

DISCOVERIES, 16

Sec. 1. The existence of a Western Continent, by whom first made known, page 16.—Sec. 2. Voyage of Columbus, 17.—Sec. 3. Discovery of Newfoundland by the Cabots, 32.—Sec. 4. Voyage of Verrazano, 32.—Sec. 5. Of Cartier, who discovered the St. Lawrence, 33.—Sec. 6. Discovery of the Mississippi by Soto, 34.—Sec. 7. Expedition of Raleigh, 35.—Sec. 8. Discovery of Cape Cod by Gosnold, 36.—NOTES. Sec. 9. State of the country, 36.—Sec. 10. Aborigines, 37.—Sec. 11. Reflections, 42.

PERIOD II.

SETTLEMENTS, 44

Sec. 1. Unsuccessful attempts to settle North America, 44.—Sec. 2. Settlement of Jamestown, 45.—Sec. 3. Account of London and Plymouth companies, 45.—Sec. 4. Expedition under Newport—adventures of Capt. Smith, 46.—Sec. 5. Calamities of the colony at Jamestown, 53.—Sec. 6. New charter granted to the London company, 54.—Sec. 7. Expedition under Lord De la War, 54.—Sec. 8. Distress of the colony at Jamestown and manner of relief, 55.—Sec. 9. Settlement at Albany and New-York by the Dutch, 56.—Sec. 10. Voyage of Capt. John Smith to New-England, 57.—Sec. 11. Establishment of a government in Virginia, 57.—Sec. 12. Settlement of New-England by the Puritans, 58.—Sec. 13. Patent of the Duke of Lenox and others, 64.—Sec. 14. Treaty of the Puritans with Masasoit, 64.—Sec. 15. Alteration of the Virginia government, 65.—Sec. 16. Distressing calamity which befel the Virginia colony, 66.—Sec. 17. Distress of the Plymouth colony, 67.—Sec. 18. First settlements in New Hampshire, 67.—Sec. 19. Dissolution of the London company, 67.—Sec. 20. Patent to the Plymouth colony, 68.—Sec. 21. Colony of Massachusetts Bay, 69.—Sec. 22. Massachusetts Bay Company incorporated, 69.—Sec. 23. Government and patent of the plantation transferred to America, 70.—Sec. 24. Patent to Lord Baltimore of Maryland, 71.—Sec. 25. First settlement in Maryland, 72.—Sec. 26. First house erected in Connecticut, 72.—Sec. 27. Settlement of Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford, 73.—Sec. 28. Patent to Lords Say, Seal, and Brooke, 75.—Sec. 29. Settlement of Rhode Island, 76.—Sec. 30. Pequot war, 77.—Sec. 31. Settlement of New Haven, 80.—Sec. 32. Adoption of a constitution by the colony of Connecticut, 81.—Sec. 33. By New Haven, 81.—Sec. 34. Grant of the province of Maine to

Gorges, and formation of a government, 82.—Sec. 35. Union of the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, 82.—Sec. 36. Charter of incorporation to the colony of Connecticut, 84.—Sec. 37. The Dutch at Manhattan subdued by the English, 84.—Sec. 38. First settlement of New Jersey, 85.—Sec. 39. Administration of Governor Carteret, 86.—Sec. 40. First settlement in Delaware, 86.—Sec. 41. Commission of Carr, Cartwright, &c. in New England, 87.—Sec. 42. Settlement of Carolina, 87.—Sec. 43. Philip's war, 89.—Sec. 44. Administration of Andross, 95.—Sec. 45. Insurrection in Virginia, 96.—Sec. 46. Union of East and West Jersey, 98.—Sec. 47. Settlement of a controversy about the Province of Maine, 99.—Sec. 48. Separation of New Hampshire from Massachusetts, 100.—Sec. 49. Settlement of Pennsylvania, 101.—Sec. 50. Forfeiture of the charters of Massachusetts, &c. 102.—NOTES. Sec. 51. Manners of the Colonists, 104.—Sec. 52. Religion, 106.—Sec. 53. Trade and commerce, 109.—Sec. 54. Agriculture, 110.—Sec. 55. Arts and manufactures, 111.—Sec. 56. Population, 112.—Sec. 57. Education, 113.—Sec. 58. Reflections, 114.

PERIOD III.

WARS OF WILLIAM, ANNE, AND GEORGE II. - - - 117

Sec. 1. Accession of William to the throne of England, and proceedings of the colonies in consequence of it, 117.—Sec. 2. Disturbances in Carolina, 119.—Sec. 3. Salem witchcraft, 120.—Sec. 4. King William's war, 124.—Sec. 5. Expedition under Sir William Phipps, with an account of his life, 125.—Sec. 6. Dissatisfaction of the Five Nations, 131.—Sec. 7. Meditated blow against the colonies under Frontenac, 132.—Treaty of Ryswick, 133.—Story of Mrs. Dustan, 134.—Sec. 8. Queen Anne's War, 136.—Sec. 9. Severity of the war falls upon New England, 137.—Capture of Mr. Williams, 137.—Sec. 10. Expedition against Port Royal, 138.—Sec. 11. Attempt upon Canada, 139.—Sec. 12. Reduction of Port Royal, 139.—Sec. 13. Distresses of the frontier settlements, 140.—Sec. 14. Effects of the war in the south, 140.—Sec. 15. War with the Apalachian Indians, 141.—Sec. 16. Expedition of the French and Spaniards, against Carolina, 142.—Sec. 17. Settlements in North Carolina, 143.—Sec. 18. Treaty of Utrecht, 144.—Sec. 19. Continued distress of the Carolinians, 144.—Sec. 20. Change of the government of Carolina, 145.—Sec. 21. Eastern Indian war, 146.—Sec. 22. Settlement of Georgia, 146.—Story of Queen Mary Bosomworth, 147.—Sec. 23. Expedition of Oglethorpe against St. Augustine, 150.—Sec. 24. Invasion of Georgia by the Spaniards, 151.—Sec. 26. War of George II. 152.—Capture of Louisburg, 152.—Sec. 27. Design upon Cape Breton by the French, 155.—Sec. 28. Treaty of Aix la Chapelle, 156.—NOTES. Sec. 29. Manners of the Colonists, 156.—Sec. 30. Religion, 157.—Sec. 31. Trade and commerce, 158.—Sec. 32. Agriculture, 159.—Sec. 33. Arts and manufactures, 160.—Sec. 34. Population, 160.—Sec. 35. Education, 161.—Sec. 36. Reflections, 162.

PERIOD IV.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, - - - - - 163

Sec. 1. Impoverishment of the colonies on the return of peace, 163.—Sec. 2. French and Indian War, 164.—Causes of it, 165.—Sec. 3. Expedition of George Washington, 166.—Sec. 4. Affair of Fort Necessity, 166.—Sec. 5. Union of the colonies, 168.—Sec. 6. Campaign of 1755, 169.—Sec. 7. Expedition against Nova Scotia, 169.—Sec. 8. Braddock's defeat, 170.—Sec. 9. Expedition against Crown Point, 172.—Battle of Lake George, 173.—Sec. 10. Expedition against Niagara, 174.—Sec. 11. Campaign of '56, 174.—Sec. 12. Campaign of '57, 176.—Sec. 13. Attack on Fort William Henry, 176.—Sec. 14. Change in the British ministry, 178.—Sec. 15. Expeditions proposed, 178.—Sec. 16. Louisburg, 178.—Sec. 17. Ticonderoga, 179.—Sec. 18. Fort Du Quesne, 181.—Sec. 19. Treaty with the Indians, 181.—Sec. 20. Campaign of '59, 182.—Sec. 21. Ticonderoga, 182.—Sec. 22. Niagara,

182.—Sec. 23. Attack upon Quebec, 183.—Sec. 24. Death of Wolfe, 186—Story of Capt. Ochterlony, 187.—Sec. 25. Expedition of Monsieur Levi, 190.—Sec. 26. Surrender of Canada to the English, 190.—Sec. 28. Sufferings of the southern colonies by means of the Cherokees, 191.—Sec. 29. Peace declared, 192.—NOTES. Sec. 30. Manners of the colonists, 192.—Sec. 31. Religion, 193.—Sec. 32. Trade and commerce, 193.—Sec. 33. Agriculture, 194.—Sec. 34. Arts and manufactures, 194.—Sec. 35. Population, 194.—Sec. 36. Education, 194.—Sec. 37. Reflections, 194.

PERIOD V.

WAR OF THE REVOLUTION, - - - - - 196

Sec. 1. First blood shed in the war of the Revolution, 196.—Sec. 2. Causes of the Revolution, 196.—Sec. 3. Oppressions of the colonies and their attachment to the mother country, 197.—Sec. 4. Taxation for the purpose of revenue, 198.—Sec. 5. Opposition to this measure, 198.—Sec. 6. Stamp Act, 199.—Sec. 7. Indignation in America on account of it, 200.—Sec. 8. First general meeting of the colonies, 202.—Sec. 9. Proceedings on the day the stamp act came into operation, 203.—Sec. 10. Sons of Liberty, an account of, 204.—Sec. 11. Repeal of the stamp act, 205.—Sec. 12. Satisfaction of the colonies, 208.—Sec. 13. A second plan for taxing America, 208.—Sec. 14. Other acts, 209.—Sec. 15. Alarm of the colonies, 209.—Sec. 16. Arrival of English troops, 210.—Sec. 17. Petition of parliament to have persons guilty of treason in America brought to England and tried there, 211.—Sec. 18. Abolition of all duties excepting on tea, 212.—Sec. 19. Affray on the evening of the fifth of March, 212.—Sec. 20. Destruction of the British armed schooner Gaspee, 213.—Sec. 21. Committees of correspondence and inquiry, 213.—Sec. 22. Destruction of tea, 214.—Sec. 23. Boston Port-Bill, 216.—Sec. 24. Non-importation act, 216.—Sec. 25. Congress of 1774, 217.—Sec. 26. Assembly of Massachusetts, 220.—Sec. 27. Conciliatory bill of Lord Chatham, 220.—Sec. 28. Battle of Lexington, 221.—Sec. 29. Effects of this battle, 222.—Sec. 30. Reduction of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, 222.—Sec. 31. Battle of Bunker's Hill, 223.—Sec. 32. Appointment of Washington as commander in chief, 224.—Sec. 33. Arrival of Washington at Cambridge, 228.—Sec. 34. Expedition against Canada, 228.—Sec. 35. Siege of Quebec, 229—Death of Montgomery, 230.—Sec. 36. Affairs in Virginia, 230.—Sec. 37. Evacuation of Boston by the British, 231.—Sec. 38. Attack of the fort on Sullivan's Island, 232—Story of Sergeant Jasper, 233.—Sec. 39. Motion for independence, 235.—Sec. 40. Appointment of a committee to draft a declaration of independence, 237.—Sec. 41. Fourth of July, 1776, 238.—Sec. 42. Removal of the army from Boston to New York, 241.—Sec. 43. Arrival of Admiral Lord Howe from England with reinforcements near New York, 241.—Sec. 44. Attempt to settle difficulties, 241.—Sec. 45. Battle on Long Island, 242.—Sec. 46. Evacuation of New York, 242.—Sec. 47. Proposal of Lord Howe to settle difficulties, 243.—Sec. 48. General Washington and army at Harlem, &c. 244.—Sec. 49. Battle at White Plains, 245.—Sec. 50. Reduction of Forts Washington and Lee, 245.—Sec. 51. Retreat of Washington through New Jersey, 246.—Sec. 51. Articles of confederation between the states, 247.—Sec. 52. Battle of Trenton, 249.—Sec. 53. Victory of Princeton, 249.—Sec. 54. Winter quarters at Morristown, 250.—Sec. 55. Opening of the campaign of 1777, 250.—Sec. 56. Battle of Brandywine, 251.—Sec. 57. Occupation of Philadelphia by the British, 252.—Sec. 58. Battle of Germantown, 252.—Sec. 59. Invasion of the states by Burgoyne, 254.—Sec. 60. Investment and capture of Ticonderoga, 254.—Sec. 61. Battle of Bennington, 255.—Sec. 62. Surrender of Burgoyne, 255—adventures of the Baroness de Reidesel, 257.—Sec. 63. Treaty with France, 267.—Sec. 64. Winter of 1777, 268.—Sec. 65. Evacuation of Philadelphia by the British, 269.—Sec. 66. Arrival of a French fleet, 269.—Sec. 67. Siege and capture of Savannah, 270—Colonel White, 271.—Sec. 68. Campaign of 1779, 272—Infamous conduct of Governor Tryon, 273.—Sec. 69. Reduction of Stony Point, 274.—Sec. 70. War with the Six Nations, 275.—Sec. 71. Depreciation of bills of credit, 276.—Sec. 72. Reduction of Charleston, 278.—Sec. 73. Af

fairs in the south, 279.—Story of General Wadsworth, 280.—Sec. 74. Battle of Camden, 287.—Sec. 75. Prospects of the Americans brighten, 288.—Sec. 76. Bloody affair at Connecticut Farms, 289.—Sec. 77. Distress of the American army, 289.—Sec. 79. Arrival of a French squadron, 290.—Sec. 80. Conspiracy of Arnold and Andre, 290.—Sec. 81. Attempt to seize Arnold, 293.—Story of Champe, 294.—Sec. 82. Revolt of American troops, 298.—Sec. 83. Infamous conduct of Arnold in Virginia, 299.—Sec. 84. Affairs in the south, 300.—Sec. 85. Battle of the Cowpens, 300.—Sec. 88. Engagement at Guilford court-house, 301.—Sec. 89. Battle of Camden, 302.—Sec. 92. Battle of Eutaw Springs, 304.—Sec. 97. Battle of Yorktown, 307.—Sec. 100. Arnold's expedition against New London, 310.—Sec. 104. Cessation of hostilities—peace, 312.—Sec. 105. American army disbanded, 312.—Sec. 106. Washington's farewell to his officers, 313.—Sec. 107. His resignation, 313.—Sec. 108. Retirement to Mount Vernon, 314.—NOTES. Sec. 109. Manners, 314.—Sec. 110. Religion, 315.—Sec. 111. Trade and commerce, 316.—Sec. 112. Agriculture, 317.—Sec. 113. Arts and manufactures, 317.—Sec. 114. Population, 317.—Sec. 115. Education, 318.—Sec. 116. Reflections, 318.

PERIOD VI.

FEDERAL CONSTITUTION, - - - - - 320

Sec. 1. Incompetency of the confederation, 320.—Sec. 2. Public debt—Loss of credit, 320.—Sec. 3. Causes tending to a change of government, 321.—Sec. 4. Shay's insurrection, 322.—Sec. 5. Convention of the states proposed, 323.—Sec. 6. Meeting of the convention, 324.—Sec. 8. Proceedings of it, 326.—Sec. 9. Adoption of the Federal Constitution, 328—abstract of it, 329.—Sec. 10. Ratification of it by the states, 331.—Sec. 11. Washington first president, 332.—NOTES, &c. 332.

PERIOD VII.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION, - - - - - 337

Sec. 1. Inauguration of Washington, 337.—Sec. 2. Organization of the government, 333.—Sec. 3. Amendment of the Constitution, 340.—Sec. 4. Establishment of the Judiciary, 340.—Sec. 5. Salaries, 340.—Sec. 6. Public thanksgiving, 341.—Sec. 8. Washington's tour through New England, 341.—Sec. 9. Meeting of Congress—Report of Hamilton on maintaining public credit, 342.—Sec. 10. Foreign and domestic debt, 342.—Sec. 11. Seat of government, 344.—Sec. 12. Vermont admitted into the union, 344.—Sec. 13. Tax on domestic spirits, 345.—Sec. 14. National bank, 346.—Sec. 15. Northwestern Indian war, 347.—Sec. 17. Representatives apportioned, 348.—Sec. 18. Defeat of St. Clair, 349.—Sec. 19. Army increased, 349.—Sec. 20. Increase of party spirit, 350.—Sec. 21. Kentucky admitted into the union, 350.—Sec. 22. Indian war prosecuted with vigour, 351.—Sec. 23. Attack upon Hamilton, 352.—Sec. 24. Washington re-elected, 353.—Sec. 25. Attempt to terminate the Indian war, 353.—Sec. 26. War declared by France against England and Holland—Proclamation of neutrality by the president, 353.—Sec. 27. New French minister, Genet, &c. 355.—Sec. 29. Proposed expedition against Algiers, 357.—Sec. 30. Prohibition of the slave trade, 357.—Sec. 31. Jay's treaty, 358.—Sec. 32. Victory over the Indians by General Wayne, 359.—Sec. 33. Insurrection in Pennsylvania, 360.—Sec. 35. Ratification of Jay's treaty, 360.—Sec. 36. Treaties with Algiers—with the Miamis—with Spain, 361.—Sec. 37. Tennessee admitted into the union, 361.—Sec. 39. Washington retires to private life, 363.—Sec. 40. Mr. Adams elected president, 364.—NOTES, &c. 364.

PERIOD VIII.

ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION, - - - - - 369

Sec. 1. Inauguration of Adams—condition of the country, 369.—Sec. 2. Hostilities meditated by France, 370.—Sec. 3. Failure of the American

envoys to settle difficulties, 371.—Sec. 4. Measures of defence—Washington appointed commander in chief, 372.—Sec. 5. Pacific overtures from France—Treaty of peace, 372.—Sec. 6. Death of Washington, 373.—Sec. 7. Seat of government removed, 374.—Sec. 8. Causes of Mr. Adam's unpopularity, 375.—Sec. 9. Mr. Jefferson elected president, 376.—NOTES, &c. 377.

PERIOD IX.

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION, - - - - - 380

Sec. 1. Inauguration of Jefferson, 380.—Sec. 2. Numerous removals from office, 381.—Sec. 3. Repeal of internal taxes—New arrangement of the Judiciary, 381.—Sec. 4. Ohio admitted into the union, 382.—Sec. 5. Death of Hamilton, 383.—Sec. 6. Re-election of Mr. Jefferson, 383.—Sec. 7. History of the war with Tripoli, 383.—Sec. 8. Michigan becomes a distinct territorial government, 386.—Sec. 9. Revolutionary project of Burr, 386.—Sec. 10. Hostilities between France and England—Effect on the United States, 387.—Sec. 11. British orders in council, 388.—Sec. 12. Berlin decree, 388.—Sec. 13. British retaliatory orders in council, 389.—Sec. 14. Attack upon the American frigate Chesapeake, 389.—Sec. 15. President's proclamation upon this—negotiation upon the subject, 391.—Sec. 16. Congress convened by proclamation, 392.—Sec. 17. British orders in council, 392.—Sec. 18. Measure of defence—Embargo, 393.—Sec. 19. Milan decree, 393.—Sec. 20. Controversy between the British and American minister, 393.—Sec. 21. Non-intercourse, 394.—Sec. 22. Mr. Madison elected president, 395.—NOTES, &c. 395.

PERIOD X.

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION, - - - - - 398

Sec. 1. Inauguration of Madison—state of the country, 398.—Sec. 2. Conditional renewed intercourse with Great Britain, 399.—Sec. 3. Insult of the British minister, 400.—Sec. 4. Rambouillet decree, 400.—Sec. 5. Proceedings of congress, 400.—Sec. 6. Revocation of Berlin and Milan decrees, 401.—Sec. 7. Attack upon the American frigate President, 401.—Sec. 8. Congress assembled by proclamation—Defensive measures, 402.—Sec. 9. Battle of Tippecanoe, 403.—Sec. 10. Louisiana admitted into the union, 403.—Sec. 11. Embargo, 405.—Sec. 12. Declaration of war, 405.—Sec. 13. Military preparations, 407.—Sec. 14. Surrender of Detroit, 408.—Sec. 15. Capture of the Guerriere, 413.—Sec. 16. Of the Alert, 413.—Sec. 17. Distribution of the American army, 414.—Sec. 18. Attack on Queenstown, 414.—Sec. 19. Capture of the Frolic, 416.—Sec. 20. Of the Macedonian, 417.—Sec. 21. Of the Java, 418.—Sec. 22. Review of the campaign of 1812, 418.—Sec. 23. Location of the American forces, 421.—Sec. 24. Bloody affair at Frenchtown, 421.—Sec. 24. Capture of the Peacock, 423.—Sec. 25. Mr. Madison re-elected, 424.—Sec. 26. Proposed mediation of the Emperor of Russia, 424.—Sec. 27. Capture of York, 424.—Sec. 28. Siege of Fort Meigs, 425.—Sec. 29. Blockade of the Chesapeake, &c. 427.—Sec. 30. Loss of the Chesapeake, 427.—Sec. 31. Loss of the Argus, 428.—Sec. 32. Capture of the Boxer, 429.—Sec. 33. Victory on Lake Erie, 429.—Sec. 34. Capture of Detroit—Battle at the Moravian Village—Death of Tecumseh, 430.—Sec. 36. Invasion of Canada, 432.—Sec. 37. Departure of commissioners to Europe, 435.—Sec. 38. War with the Creeks, 436.—Sec. 39. Progress of this war and conclusion, 436.—Sec. 40. Military measures of the 15th Congress, 439.—Sec. 41. Loss of the Essex, 440.—Sec. 42. Capture of the Reindeer, 445.—Sec. 43 and 44. Movements of Wilkinson, 445.—Sec. 46. Battle of Chipewawa, 447.—Sec. 47. Battle of Bridgewater, 447.—Sec. 48. Siege of Fort Erie, 448.—Sec. 49. Capture of Washington, 449.—Sec. 50. Attack on Baltimore, 450.—Sec. 51. Victory on Lake Champlain, 451.—Sec. 52. Hartford Convention, 453.—Sec. 53. Measures proposed by that convention, 455.—Sec. 54. Battle of New Orleans, 457.—Sec. 55. Treaty with England, 458.—Sec. 56. Treaty with Algiers, 459.—Sec. 58. Commercial convention with Great Britain, 460.—Sec. 59. Naval engagements, 461.—Sec. 60. National

Bank, 462.—Sec. 61. Valedictory of Mr. Madison, 463.—Sec. 62. Indiana admitted into the union, 464.—Sec. 63. Mr. Monroe elected president, 464.—NOTES, &c. 465.

PERIOD XI.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION, - - - - - 467

Sec. 1. Inauguration of Monroe—State of the country, 467.—Sec. 2. Formation of the cabinet—Letter of Gen. Jackson, 469.—Sec. 3. Eastern tour of the president, 471.—Sec. 4. Prosperous state of the country, &c. 472.—Sec. 5. Mississippi admitted into the union, 472.—Sec. 6. Suppression of piracies of Amelia island, 473.—Sec. 7. Compensation of members of congress—Repeal of internal duties—Provision for indigent officers and soldiers, 474.—Sec. 8. Illinois admitted into the union, 475.—Sec. 9. Southern tour of the president, 476.—Sec. 10. Treaty with Sweden, 476.—Sec. 11. Seminole war, 477.—Sec. 12. Convention with Great Britain, 482.—Sec. 13. Cession of Florida to the United States, 483.—Sec. 14. Arkansas Territory organized, 484.—Sec. 15. Second Southern tour of the president, 484.—Sec. 16. Alabama admitted into the union, 484.—Sec. 17. Maine admitted into the union, 485.—Sec. 19. Re-election of Mr. Monroe, 486.—Sec. 20. Missouri admitted into the union, 486.—Sec. 21. Apportionment of representatives—Relief of revolutionary soldiers, 488.—Sec. 22. Territorial government organized for Florida, 489.—Sec. 23. Measures for the suppression of piracy in the West Indies, 490.—Sec. 25. Prosperous condition of the country—Remarks upon the cause of liberty in Greece—South American governments, 491.—Sec. 26. Debate on the cause of Greece, 495.—Sec. 27. Abolition of imprisonment for debt—Tariff, 496.—Sec. 28. Visit of La Fayette, 496.—Sec. 29. View of foreign and domestic relations, 499.—Sec. 30. Debate on the occupation of the Oregon, &c. 501.—Sec. 31. Character of Mr. Monroe's administration, 502.—Sec. 32. Presidential election—John Quincy Adams chosen, 502.

PERIOD XII.

ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION, - - - - - 504

Sec. 1. Inauguration of Adams, 504.—Sec. 2. Organization of the cabinet, 505.—Sec. 3. Controversy between Georgia and the United States, 506.—Sec. 4. Suspension of Capt. Porter by a court-martial, 508.—Sec. 5. Disastrous effects of speculation, 509.—Sec. 7. Proposed amendment of the constitution, 510.—Sec. 8. Congress of Panama—Commissioners appointed to it, 511.—Sec. 9. Surviving officers of the revolution, 513.—Sec. 11. Death of Adams and Jefferson, 514.—Sec. 12. Flattering view of the foreign and domestic affairs of the nation, 518.—Sec. 13. Revision of the tariff, 520.—Sec. 14. Presidential election—General Jackson chosen, 521.—NOTES, &c. 522.

CHRONOLOGICAL LIST, - - - - - 537

INTRODUCTION.

It is the remark of a distinguished writer, "that the perfection of a science consists in its tendency to promote the advancement of public and private virtue, while, at the same time, it supplies such a degree of amusement, as to supersede the necessity of recurring to frivolous pursuits for relaxation." Estimated in this view, the importance of history in general cannot be doubted. It conveys instruction, in relation to all the important interests of man, while the perusal of it invigorates the mind, and prepares it for renewed exertions.

But, more particularly, it sets before us striking instances of virtue, enterprise, courage, generosity, patriotism; and, by a natural principle of emulation, incites us to copy such noble examples. History also presents us with pictures of the vicious, ultimately overtaken by misery, and shame, and thus solemnly warns us against vice.

History, to use the words of Professor Tytler, is the school of politics. That is, it opens the hidden springs of human affairs; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions, and fall of empires; it points out the influence which the manners of a people exert upon a government, and the influence which that government reciprocally exerts upon the manners of a people; it illustrates the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction; the dangers, on the one hand, of unbridled liberty, and, on the other, the mischiefs of despotic power.

History displays the dealings of God with mankind. It calls upon us often to regard with awe his darker judgments, and again it awakens the liveliest emotions of gratitude, for his kind and benignant dispensations. It cultivates a sense of dependance on him; strengthens our confidence in his benevolence; and impresses us with a conviction of his justice.

Besides these advantages, the study of history, if properly conducted, offers others, of inferior importance, indeed, but still they are not to be disregarded. It chastens the imagination; improves the taste; furnishes matter for conversation and reflection; enlarges the range of thought; strengthens and disciplines the mind.

To the above uses of history, in general, it may be added in relation to the particular history of our own country, that it has peculiar claims upon every American citizen to be well studied, as a knowledge of it is necessary to a faithful discharge of public duties, which, in this free country, may devolve upon him. Besides, it presents more powerful incentives to virtue, patriotism, and religion, than the history of any other nation on the globe. It is a strong but just remark of a writer, "that the only desire of greatness, which our children can draw from the history of their ancestors, is to be *greatly good*." For, here is presented to them few, if any, demoralizing examples of bold and criminal ambition. The history of the United States presents but one *well authenticated* example of a traitor to his country; while it furnishes an illustrious phalanx of men, in the various walks of life—warriors, statesmen, and divines—who, for their courage and fortitude, their wisdom and patriotism, their piety and benevolence, deserve the foremost rank among the worthies, who have been the ornaments of our race, and the blessings of mankind. With such examples before him, the youth, in the days of his manhood, will be led to shield our land, so far as his influence is concerned, from national and individual wickedness, by following after those who have cultivated national and personal virtue. By this means, in connexion with others, we may ever hope to have a generation on the stage, who will watch with ceaseless vigilance the ark of our political liberties, and contribute, by the uprightness and integrity of their lives, as well to the permanency of our institutions, as to the happiness of our country.

GENERAL DIVISION.

THE History of the United States of America may be divided into *Twelve Periods*, each distinguished by some striking characteristic, or remarkable circumstance.

The FIRST PERIOD will extend from the *Discovery of America, by Columbus, 1492*, to the first permanent English settlement in America, at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607, and is distinguished for DISCOVERIES.

Obs. Previous to the discovery of America in 1492, the inhabitants of Europe, Asia, and Africa, were of course ignorant of its existence. But soon after this event, several expeditions were fitted out, and came to make discoveries, in what was then called the "New World." Accordingly, between 1492 and 1607, the principal countries lying along the eastern coast of North America, were discovered, and more or less explored. As our history, during this period, embraces little more than accounts of these expeditions, we characterize it as remarkable for *discoveries*.

The SECOND PERIOD will extend from the *Settlement of Jamestown, 1607*, to the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689, and is distinguished for SETTLEMENTS.

Obs. During this period our history is principally occupied in detailing the various *settlements*, which were either effected, or attempted, within the boundaries of the United States. It includes, indeed, wars with the natives—disputes between proprietors of lands and colonies—the formation of governments, &c. &c.; but these are circumstances which pertain to, and form a part of, the settlement of new

countries. As this period embraces the settlement of most of the original states in the union, viz. Massachusetts, including Maine, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New-Hampshire, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, North and South Carolina, and Virginia, it is therefore characterized as remarkable for *settlements*.

The **THIRD PERIOD** will extend from the *accession of William and Mary* to the throne of England, 1689, to the declaration of the war by England against France, called "the French and Indian War," 1756, and is remarkable for the three wars of **KING WILLIAM, QUEEN ANNE, and GEORGE II.**

Obs. So long as the colonies remained attached to the English crown, they became involved, of course, in the wars of the mother country. Three times during this period, was war proclaimed between England and France; and, as the French had possession of Canada, and were leagued with several powerful tribes of Indians, as often did the colonies become the theatre of their hostile operations. This period is therefore most remarkable for these *three wars*.

The **FOURTH PERIOD** will extend from the *Declaration of war by England against France*, 1756, to the commencement of hostilities by Great Britain against the American Colonies, in the battle of Lexington, 1775, and is distinguished for the **FRENCH and INDIAN WAR.**

The **FIFTH PERIOD** will extend from the *Battle of Lexington*, 1775, to the disbanding of the American Army at West Point, New-York, 1783, and is distinguished for the **WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.**

The **SIXTH PERIOD** will extend from the *Disbanding of the Army*, 1783, to the Inauguration of George Washington, as President of the United States, under the Federal Constitution, 1789, and is distinguished for the **FORMATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.**

The SEVENTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Washington*, 1789, to the Inauguration of John Adams, as President of the United States, 1797. This period is distinguished for WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The EIGHTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Adams*, 1797, to the Inauguration of Thomas Jefferson, as President of the United States, 1801. This period is distinguished for ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

The NINTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Jefferson*, 1801, to the Inauguration of James Madison, as President of the United States, 1809. This period is distinguished for JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The TENTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Madison*, 1809, to the Inauguration of James Monroe, as President of the United States, 1817. This period is distinguished for MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION, and the late WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

The ELEVENTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Monroe*, 1817, to the Inauguration of John Quincy Adams, as President of the United States, 1825. This period is distinguished for MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

The TWELFTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Adams*, 1825, to the Inauguration of Andrew Jackson, as President of the United States, 1829. This period is distinguished for ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD I.

DISTINGUISHED FOR DISCOVERIES.

Extending from the Discovery of San Salvador, by Columbus, 1492, to the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607.

Sec. 1. The honor of first making known to the inhabitants of Europe, the existence of a *Western Continent*, belongs to *Spain*, as a nation, and to *Christopher Columbus*, a native of *Genoa*, as an individual.

After the discovery of America by Columbus, other nations laid claim to this honor ; and thus attempted to deprive the Genoese navigator, as well as the Spanish nation, of the merit to which they were justly entitled.

The only nations, however, who appear to have had even the semblance for such a claim, were the *Welsh* and *Norwegians*.

By the *former*, it was maintained, that the continent was discovered by Madoc, son of Owen Gwynneth, who, returning to his country, again sailed for the land he had discovered, about the year 1170, taking with him ten ships, and 300 men, for the purpose of founding a colony. Of the fate of this expedition, nothing was ever known. As it is well established, however, that the first voyage of Madoc was not a long one, it is justly inferred, that the land, to which he was leading his colony, could not have been more westerly, than the islands in the Atlantic, situated about half way between the Eastern and Western Continents, now known by the name of the *Azores*.

The pretensions of the *Norwegians* were founded upon the discovery of an unknown land, some time in the eleventh century, by one Biron. or Biorn, an Icelander. During a

voyage to Iceland, which, with Greenland, had been discovered and settled at an earlier date, Biron was driven southeast by a storm, and fell in with a country, to which, from its abounding with vines, he gave the name of *Vine-land*. In his account of this voyage, the description given of the appearance of the sun, in the country discovered, would seem to indicate, that it lay in latitude about 44°. The fruits found there bore a resemblance to those now found in Newfoundland, or the country about the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Upon these *uncertain* data, the Norwegians founded their claims to a priority in the discovery of America; but, on Biron's return, his discovery appears to have excited little interest among his countrymen; and to have slept in forgetfulness, until after Columbus had established the existence of a Western World.

Sec. 2. The voyage of Columbus, which led to the foregoing important discovery, and of which Ferdinand and Isabella, the sovereigns of the united thrones of Castile and Arragon, were patrons, was commenced on the 3d of August, 1492; at which time, the Genoese navigator sailed from Palos, an inconsiderable seaport in Spain, with a fleet, consisting of three small vessels, manned by ninety seamen. On the morning of the 12th of October following, he fell in with an island, called by the natives *Guanahani*; but to which he gave the name of *San Salvador*. This island, known on *English* maps by the name of *Cut Island*, belongs to the great cluster of the Lucayos, or Bahama Islands. During the same voyage, he discovered several other islands, among which were the important ones of Cuba and Hispaniola.

Columbus, whose discovery of the above islands led the way to a knowledge of the existence of a Western Continent, was born in the city of Genoa, about the year 1435 or 1436. His father was a reputable and meritorious man; by occupation, a wool-comber, long resident in the city of Genoa. Columbus was the eldest of four children, having two brothers, Bartholomew and Diego, and one sister.

His early education was limited; but he diligently improved all the advantages, which the means of his father enabled him to enjoy. After spending a short time at the university of Pavia, he returned to his father, whom he assisted in wool-combing.

His enterprising disposition, however, prompted him to more active employment; and, at the age of fourteen years, we find him entering upon a sea-faring life. He first enlisted into the service of a hardy sea captain of the name of Colombo, a distant relation; but, some time after, entered on board the fleet of a nephew to the old Genoese captain just mentioned.

His new commander was a corsair, so terrible for his deeds against the infidels, that the Moorish mothers used to frighten their unruly children with his name. "This bold rover," observes the distinguished biographer* of Columbus, "having heard of four Venetian galleys richly laden, on their return voyage from Flanders, intercepted them with his squadron, on the Portuguese coast, between Lisbon and Cape St. Vincent. A desperate engagement took place; the vessels grappled each other, and the crews fought hand to hand, and from ship to ship. The battle lasted from morning until evening, with great carnage on both sides. The vessel on board which Columbus was, was engaged with a huge Venetian galley. They threw hand grenades and other fiery missiles, and the galley was wrapped in flames. The vessels were fastened together by chains and grappling irons, and could not be separated; both were involved in one conflagration, and soon became a mere blazing mass. The crews threw themselves into the sea; Columbus seized an oar, which was floating within reach; and, being an expert swimmer, attained the shore, though two full leagues distant."

He now repaired to Lisbon. He was at this time about 34 years of age; a tall, well formed, vigorous man; enterprising in his disposition, and uncommonly dignified in his manners. Taking up his residence, for a time, at Lisbon, he became acquainted with, and married the daughter of a distinguished navigator, the former governor of Porto Santo, an island in the vicinity of Madeira, about 700 miles southwest from Lisbon.

The father of his wife being dead, Columbus resided

* Irving's Columbus, to which the author is indebted for the principal facts in this biographical sketch of this extraordinary man.

with his mother-in-law, who gave him the privilege of examining the papers, charts, journals, and memorandums, of her deceased husband. These made Columbus acquainted with many important facts and suggestions, touching the great enterprise, in which the Portuguese were, at that time, engaged, viz. the discovery of a passage to the East Indies, by doubling the southern extremity of Africa.

To a mind inquisitive and enterprising like that of Columbus, this subject was invested with the deepest interest and importance; and the more he read and reflected upon the figure of the earth, the stronger was his belief, not merely that a western passage to India was practicable; but that whoever should be sufficiently enterprising to navigate the Atlantic, by sailing due west, must meet with a large body of land, which might be an extension of the continent of India, designed to balance the lands lying in the eastern hemisphere.

In this latter opinion, he was strengthened by various discoveries in the Atlantic: such as pieces of carved wood; trunks of huge pine-trees, &c., which had been noticed, after long westerly winds; but, especially, by the well established fact, that the bodies of two men had been cast upon one of the Azore islands, whose features differed from those of any known race of people.

Having matured the plan of a voyage, with the above object in view, he first offered to sail under the patronage of the Portuguese; but, being disappointed in this application, and despairing of assistance from Henry VII. of England, to whom he had sent his brother Bartholomew, but who, being captured, did not reach England for some time, he repaired to Genoa, and offered to sail under the auspices of that republic. Finding, however, his native state not in a situation favorable to such an undertaking, he next repaired to Spain.

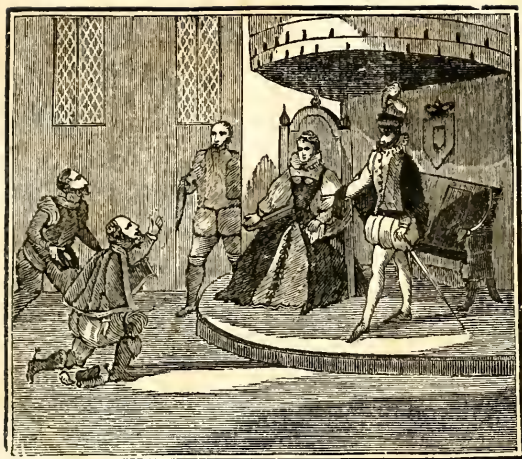
By what route, or by what means, Columbus reached Spain, is uncertain. The first trace we have of him, in this country, is as a stranger, on foot, and in humble guise, stopping at the gate of the convent of Santa Maria de Rabi-da, not far from the little seaport of Palos, and asking of the porter a little bread and water for a child—his son Diego, whom his deceased wife had left to him. While receiving this humble refreshment, the prior of the convent, happening to pass by, was struck with the appearance of the stranger, and observing from his air and accent that he was a foreigner, entered into conversation with him, and soon learned the particulars of his story.

The prior was a man of extensive information, and entered warmly into the views and plans of Columbus. Through his influence, the enterprising navigator was, at length, enabled to lay his plans before Ferdinand and Isabella, then on the united thrones of Castile and Arragon.

These sovereigns were, at this time, engaged in the conquest of the Moors. For a time, they were too much occupied to give to his views that consideration which they required; and when, at length, they were sufficiently at leisure to order commissioners to enter into an arrangement with Columbus, his terms were deemed so extravagant, that all negotiation was broken off.

A friend to Columbus, who was satisfied of the practicability of his plans, and who knew, that, mortified and disgusted, he was already on his way out of the kingdom, hastily repaired to the queen, and to her represented the great disgrace which would come upon the crown, if the proposal of Columbus was rejected. He stated his liberal offer to bear an eighth of the expense, and informed her, that all the requisites for this great enterprise consisted but of two vessels, and about three thousand crowns. For a time, the queen hesitated, but, at length, with an enthusiasm worthy of herself, and of the cause, exclaimed, "I undertake the enterprise, for my own crown of Castile; and will pledge my private jewels to raise the necessary funds." A messenger was now immediately dispatched, to recall Columbus. Fortunately, he overtook him, before he had left the kingdom. Thus summoned back, he returned to court; soon after which an arrangement, satisfactory to himself, was effected with the sovereigns—the necessary funds were advanced, and a fleet, consisting of three small vessels, was, at no distant time, in a state of readiness for the voyage. Two of these were light barks, called caravals, not superior to river and coasting craft of more modern days. These were open, without deck in the centre, but built up high at the prow and stern, with forecastles and cabins for the accommodation of the crew. The names of these vessels were the *Pinta* and *Nina*. The ship of Columbus was decked, and of larger dimensions. She was called the *Santa Maria*. On board this fleet were ninety mariners, together with various private adventurers—in all, one hundred and twenty persons.

On Friday, the 3d of August, 1492, early in the morning, the squadron of Columbus set sail from Palos, steering in a southwesterly direction for the Canary islands, from whence



*Columbus petitioning to Ferdinand and Isabella.
P. 20.*



Landing of Columbus. P. 22.

it was his intention to strike due west. At these islands he was detained for the space of three weeks, in consequence of an accident which befell the rudder of the *Pinta*. Sailing thence, they stretched due west, for the unknown parts of the Atlantic. This was an interesting period of their voyage. "On losing sight of this last trace of land, the hearts of the crews failed them. They seemed literally to have taken leave of the world. Behind them was every thing dear to the heart of man; country, family, friends, life itself: before them every thing was chaos, mystery, and peril. In the perturbation of the moment, they despaired of ever more seeing their homes. Many of the rugged seamen shed tears, and some broke into loud lamentations. The admiral tried in every way to soothe their distress, and to inspire them with his own glorious anticipations."

Passing over many interesting incidents in their outward voyage—the storms and tempests which they encountered—the delusive appearances of land—their hopes and their fears—their high wrought excitement, and then their deep dejection—the murmurs, and even mutinous spirit of the crew, and the happy expedients of Columbus to raise their courage, and to keep burning within them the spirit of the enterprise—we arrive at the 11th of October, at which time the indications of land were so strong, that, at night, Columbus ordered a double watch, on the fore-castle of each vessel, and promised to the first discoverer of the long-looked for land, a doublet of velvet, in addition to the pension of thirty crowns, which had been offered by Ferdinand and Isabella.

"The greatest animation now prevailed throughout the ships; not an eye was closed that night. As evening darkened, Columbus took his station on the top of the castle or cabin, on the high poop of his vessel. However he might carry a cheerful and confident countenance during the day, it was to him a time of the most painful anxiety; and now, when he was wrapped by the shades of night from observation, he maintained an intense and unremitting watch, ranging his eye along the dusky horizon, in search of the most vague indication of land. Suddenly, about ten o'clock, he thought he beheld a light glimmering at a distance. Fearing that his eager hopes might deceive him, he called to Pedro Gutierrez, gentleman of the king's bedchamber, and demanded whether he saw a light in that direction; the latter replied in the affirmative. Columbus, yet doubtful whether it might not be some delusion of the fancy, called Roderigo Sanchez, of Segovia, and made the inquiry. By

the time the latter had ascended the round house, the light had disappeared. They saw it once or twice afterwards, in sudden and passing gleams, as if it were a torch in the bark of a fisherman, rising and sinking with the waves, or in the hand of some person on shore, borne up and down as he walked from house to house. So transient and uncertain were these gleams, that few attached any importance to them. Columbus, however, considered them as certain signs of land, and moreover, that the land was inhabited.

“They continued their course, until two in the morning when a gun from the *Pinta* gave the joyful signal of land. It was first descried by a mariner, named Roderigo de Friana; but the reward was afterwards adjudged to the admiral, for having previously perceived the light. The land was now clearly seen about two leagues distant, whereupon they took in sail, and laid to, waiting impatiently for the dawn.

“The thoughts and feelings of Columbus, in this little space of time, must have been tumultuous and intense. At length, in spite of every difficulty and danger, he had accomplished his object. The great mystery of the ocean was revealed; his theory, which had been the scoff even of sages, was triumphantly established; he had secured to himself a glory, which must be as durable as the world itself.”

The morning at length arrived, October 12th, and before the delighted Spaniards lay a level and beautiful island, several leagues in extent, of great freshness and verdure, and covered with trees like a continual orchard.

Columbus, in a rich dress, and with a drawn sword, soon after landed with his men, with whom, having kneeled and kissed the ground with tears of joy, he took formal possession of the island, in the name of Queen Isabella, his patron. On landing, the Spaniards were surprised to find a race of people, quite unlike any that they had ever seen before. They were of a dusky, copper color—naked—beardless, with long black hair, floating on their shoulders, or bound in tresses round their heads. The natives were still more surprised at the sight of the Spaniards, whom they considered as the children of the sun, their idol. The ships they looked upon as animals, with eyes of lightning, and voices of thunder.

Having spent some time in an examination of this island, he proceeded to visit several others, not far distant; and at length, on the 28th of October, came in sight of the impor-

tant island of Cuba, and not long after fell in with the island of Hispaniola, or San Domingo.

While engaged in these discoveries, Columbus had the mortification to be deserted by the *Pinta*. Her commander, Pinzon, had been for some time impatient of control, and was evidently desirous of prosecuting the enterprise in his own name. Indignant at the insubordination of Pinzon, and his evident wish to deprive him of his just honors, Columbus at first determined to pursue him; but, upon further reflection, deeming it uncertain whether he should find him, he relinquished the purpose.

Not long after the discovery of Hispaniola, Columbus had the misfortune to be shipwrecked, with the entire loss of his vessel, the *Santa Maria*. This he felt the more severely, as the accident was the result of unfaithfulness on the part of the person to whom he had given the helm in charge, while he sought a few hours rest, after long watching and fatigue. Shortly after Columbus had retired, the steersman gave the command of the helm to a boy, and himself lay down to sleep, as did the rest of the crew. A treacherous current soon bore the vessel upon a reef, from which it was impossible to liberate her. Columbus and his men took refuge on board the *Nina*, until morning, when they were landed, and encamped upon the shore.

The situation of the navigator was now exceedingly painful and perplexing. His ablest ship was no more—the *Pinta* had deserted him, and he was now left to attempt a dangerous voyage to Spain, with one small and crowded vessel. It was a fortunate circumstance, that the natives were found to be cordial, and warmly to second the project, at length suggested, of a part of the crew remaining on the island, while the admiral returned to Spain.

This being determined upon, a rude, but comfortable fortress, called *La Navidad*, was constructed from the wreck of the *Santa Maria*. Thirty-nine of the most able and exemplary of the crew were selected, from among those who volunteered to remain. For these, Columbus drew up such regulations, and imparted such advice, as seemed to him best calculated to insure their peace and unanimity; which having done, on the 4th of January, 1493, he set sail on his return to Spain.

Shortly after the commencement of the voyage, much to their joy, the *Pinta* was discovered bearing down upon them. On meeting, Pinzon pretended that his desertion was unintentional, having been driven by adverse winds to

a distance, from which he knew not the way to return. Subsequent information proved this story to be untrue and fastened upon him the guilt of a willful desertion, from selfish and mercenary motives. The discovery of the *Pinta*, however, was a fortunate occurrence, as the vessel in which Columbus sailed was small and feeble.

They now proceeded on their return voyage in company. For a time, nothing worthy of special notice occurred; but when, at length, they were within a few hundred miles of Spain, a tempest of no ordinary violence came on, and continued to increase in fury for several days. During its continuance, the vessels were separated, and the crew of each supposed their companions had found a watery grave.

Columbus was not given to despondency; but the violence and long continuance of the tempest terrified and confounded him. The history of his discovery—the secret of the new world, depended, as he had reason to believe, upon his own feeble bark, and one surge of the ocean might bury it for ever in oblivion. “In the midst of these gloomy apprehensions, an expedient suggested itself to him, by which, though he and his ship should perish, the glory of his achievement might survive to his name, and its advantages be secured to his sovereigns. He wrote on parchment a brief account of his voyage and discovery, and of his having taken possession of the newly found lands, in the name of their Catholic majesties. This he sealed, and directed to the king and queen, and superscribed also a promise of a thousand ducats to whoever should deliver the packet unopened. He then wrapped it in a waxed cloth, which he placed in the centre of a cake of wax, and inclosing the whole in a large barrel, threw it into the sea, leaving his crew to suppose that he was performing some religious vow. Lest this memorial should never reach land, he inclosed a copy in a similar manner, and placed it upon the poop, so that, should the caravel be swallowed up by the waves, the barrel might float off and survive.

It was the will of Heaven, however, that the bark of Columbus should outride this storm, and the knowledge of his important discovery be preserved to Europe. He was at length able to put into a harbor of Portugal, from which, sailing once more, he entered the harbor of Palos, from whence he had sailed on the third of August, in the preceding year, having taken not quite seven months and a half to accomplish this most momentous of all maritime enterprises.

The reception which Columbus met with at Palos, was such as might be expected. The whole community broke forth into transports of joy. For a time, all business was suspended, and the people gave themselves up to general exultation, and to the celebration of the success of the enterprise, in a grand procession, and public thanksgiving to God.

It is related, that in the evening of the very day on which Columbus entered the port of Palos, and while the inhabitants were rejoicing at his safe return, the Pinta entered the harbor. She had been separated from Columbus, as we have related, and took refuge, for a time, in the Bay of Biscay. From this point, Pinzon, calculating upon the loss of the Nina, addressed a letter to Ferdinand and Isabella, announcing his return, and communicating to them the intelligence of the discovery of a new world, the credit of which he took to himself. But, now, on his arrival, he beheld the vessel of the admiral riding at anchor, and learned, to his inexpressible mortification, that honors were paying to Columbus, which his selfish soul was appropriating to himself. Secretly leaving his vessel, he hastened to his house, where, in seclusion, he not long after died, "the victim of humiliation and remorse."

The honors paid to Columbus by the people of Palos, were the harbingers of still higher honors which awaited him at the court of Spain. At Barcelona, at that time the residence of the Spanish court, he was welcomed in a manner comparable to a Roman triumph. Both sovereigns and people, the elevated and the humble, united to do him honor.

Having spent some time in Spain, enjoying the confidence of Ferdinand and Isabella, and in the reception of all the hospitality and kindness which they and their subjects could show him, Columbus, at their suggestion, made preparations for a second voyage. Liberality now marked their conduct in his outfit, as much as parsimony had in his first voyage. On the 25th of September, he was sailing from the bay of Cadiz, at the head of a squadron of seventeen vessels of various burden, on board of which were not less than fifteen hundred souls.

We shall pass over the incidents of this voyage, excepting only to say, that in the course of it, the fleet fell in with the Caribbee, or West India islands. On the 27th of November, 1493, they anchored opposite the harbor of La Navidad. As it was now evening, they "cast anchor about a league from the land, not daring to enter in the dark, on

account of the dangerous reefs. It was too late in the night to distinguish objects. Impatient to satisfy his doubts, therefore, he ordered two cannon to be fired. The report echoed along the shore, but there was no reply from the fort. Every eye was now directed to catch the gleam of some signal light; every ear listened to hear some friendly shout; but there was neither light, nor shout, nor any other sign of life: all was darkness and death-like silence."

The reasons for this silence were, at length, explained. It appeared, that after the departure of Columbus, on his return to Spain, the colony had fallen into dissensions among themselves; had separated from one another; had given themselves up to indolence and licentiousness; some had died of sickness, others in a quarrel between themselves, and that the remnant, together with the Indians in the neighborhood, had been assailed by Caonabo, a fierce and warlike chief in the interior, who had vanquished both—burnt the village of the Indians, destroyed the fortress of the Spaniards, the latter of whom, together with great numbers of the former, they had killed. The region, so beautiful at the time Columbus departed, now wore the marks of desolation, and served to confirm the story told by the surviving Indians of what had taken place.

The objections to repairing the ruins of La Navidad were so serious, that Columbus concluded to select another spot upon which to commence a settlement. At the distance of about ten leagues to the east, an advantageous situation was discovered, and here was commenced the building of a place, which, in honor of the queen of Spain, was called *Isabella*.

For a time, matters went on prosperously at the new settlement. A part of the fleet was dispatched to Spain, and Columbus made an excursion into the interior, where he erected a fortress, which he named St. Thomas. When completed, he gave it in command to Pedro Margarite, with whom he left a garrison of fifty-six men. On his return to *Isabella* from building this fort, he found the affairs of the colony not as peaceful as when he left it. Discontentment made its appearance among some. Provisions were less plenty, and not a few began to be feeble and sick. To all these evils, Columbus applied the best remedy in his power. Having settled matters somewhat to his satisfaction, he proceeded on an expedition to the east of Cuba. During this voyage, he discovered the island of Jamaica; and, at length, returned again to *Isabella*.

During his absence, untoward events transpired. Mar-

garite, who had the charge of the fortress of St. Thomas, had been ordered to explore the surrounding country. In obedience to these orders, he left Alonzo de Ojeda, with a small party, to garrison the fort. But, forgetful of his instructions, he and his men abandoned themselves to great excesses among several tribes of Indians whom they visited. Tidings of these excesses reaching Don Diego, the brother of Columbus, who had the superintendence of affairs at Isabella, during the absence of the admiral, the former wrote to Margarite a letter of reproof. Upon this, the latter, abandoning his command, repaired to Isabella, where, seizing an unoccupied vessel, he sailed with several of the disaffected of the colony for Spain.

Caonabo, the chief who had destroyed the fortress of La Navidad, hearing of the departure of Margarite, assembled ten thousand of his warriors, with the design of surprising Ojeda in the fortress of St. Thomas.

Ojeda, however, was not to be taken by surprise. The fortress was in a state of preparation; and, although he had but fifty men, he maintained his post for the space of thirty days, with little loss to himself, but to the destruction of many of the bravest warriors of Caonabo. At length, finding its reduction impossible, the haughty chief retired with his men, filled with admiration of the prowess and achievements of Ojeda.

The return of Columbus was a fortunate event, both for his own honor and the welfare of the colony. Ojeda now proposed to Columbus a plan for taking Caonabo, to which the former acceded, although he deemed it wild and hazardous.

In fulfillment of his plan, Ojeda selected ten bold and hardy followers, well armed and well mounted, with whom he traversed the forests to the territories of Caonabo, a distance of sixty leagues. Having found the chief, Ojeda proposed to him to repair to Isabella, for the purpose of making a treaty with Columbus, offering him, in consideration of such a treaty, the bell of the chapel of Isabella—the wonder of the island, in the view of the Indians, who had heard its sound.

The chief at length consented to go; but when the time of departure arrived, he had collected a powerful force of warriors to accompany him. In the course of their march, they halted near a river. In this Ojeda proposed to Caonabo that they should bathe. The latter consenting, they went into the water, at some distance from the Indians;

and, on coming out, Ojeda invited the chief to get up behind him. This well pleased the chief, who, when mounted, had put upon his feet, by way of ornament and honor, as Ojeda pretended, a set of *manacles* of polished steel, but the real purpose of which was to secure him safely upon the horse.

Thus mounted, Ojeda, with his men also mounted, performed, in the view of the Indians, several feats of horsemanship; and, as they circled round at a distance from the Indians, on a given signal, the party of horsemen, with their prisoner, fled into the forests, through which passing with great expedition, they escaped, and at length arrived at Isabella.

While these things were transacting in the new world, Margarite and other malcontents arrived in Spain, and were loud in their complaints against Columbus. Although not satisfied with the justice of these complaints, Ferdinand and Isabella deemed it expedient to dispatch a commission to inquire into the state of the colony. The person thus commissioned bore the name of Aguado. On his arrival at Isabella, transcending his orders, he treated Columbus with great rudeness; and, by every possible means, endeavored to procure testimony which might be used to his prejudice in the court of Spain.

Finding in what manner Aguado was proceeding, and the injury which his reputation might receive, if he were suffered to return to Spain alone, Columbus determined to accompany him. On the 10th of March, 1496, they embarked in two caravals. At this time, Caonabo was taken on board the vessel of Columbus, for the purpose of undergoing a trial in Spain, for his conduct in relation to the murder of the Spaniards; but in the course of the voyage, this unfortunate chief expired. On the 11th of June the vessels anchored in the bay of Cadiz.

The enemies of Columbus had in a measure successfully attacked his popularity; and, on his arrival in Spain, he found the former enthusiasm and zeal, in respect to his discoveries, somewhat diminished; yet he was still treated with kindness by Ferdinand and Isabella. After experiencing much delay, he was permitted to fit out another expedition, consisting of six vessels, and on the 30th of May, 1498, he left Spain on his third voyage. In the course of this voyage, pursuing a different route from those of his former voyages, on the 31st of July, he fell in with an island, which he named *Trinidad*; and, on the following day, August 1st, 1498, for the first time obtained a view of the

main continent, near the mouth of the Oronoco. Yet, at this time, he appears to have been ignorant that the land in question was any thing more than an island.

From this point, he hastened his voyage towards Isabella, where he arrived on the 30th of August, at this time worn down by fever, gout, and incessant watchfulness. He indulged the hope, however, that the repose which he should now enjoy would repair the waste which his constitution had undergone; but he was destined to meet with new troubles, and from a quarter, too, he had little reason to expect.

During his absence, a defection had taken place, headed by one Roldan, a man under the greatest obligations to Columbus, but who now aspired to usurp the reins of authority from Don Diego, the brother of Columbus, the governor of the island.

This rebellion Diego had attempted in vain to settle. On the appearance of Columbus, a negotiation was entered into with the rebels, and, for a time, affairs were apparently adjusted; but the spirit of insubordination had taken deep root, and numerous and bitter were the complaints against Columbus, which were from time to time forwarded to Spain.

In this unsettled state of affairs, Ferdinand and Isabella incautiously issued letters to Bobadilla, an officer of the royal household, commissioning him to repair to the new world to redress all grievances, and at the same time furnished him with blank letters, signed by themselves, to be filled up in such manner, in relation to his mission, as he thought advisable.

With this unlimited commission in his hands, Bobadilla arrived at San Domingo, on the 5th of August, 1500. Shortly after, this infamous man proceeded to arrest Columbus and his brothers, whom, for a time, he imprisoned; and, at length, crowned his arrogance and injustice by sending them to Spain in chains.

To the people of Spain, such a procedure was most unexpected, and a general burst of indignation proceeded from all quarters. On landing, Columbus dispatched a letter explanatory of his conduct, to a lady in the confidence of Isabella, who showed it to the latter, who was filled with mingled sympathy and indignation.

However Ferdinand might have secretly felt disposed towards Columbus, observes the biographer of the latter, the momentary tide of public feeling was not to be resisted. He joined with his generous queen in her reprobation of the treatment of the admiral, and both sovereigns hastened to

give evidence to the world, that his imprisonment had been without their authority, and contrary to their wishes. Orders were issued for the instant release of Columbus and his brothers—Bobadilla was soon after recalled, and a man by the name of Ovando was appointed to succeed him. This was doing great injustice to Columbus, who had done nothing to forfeit the confidence of his sovereigns, or his title to his former command. He still shared the confidence of Isabella, but the politic Ferdinand had objects in view, which he found he could accomplish with more certainty by other agents than by means of Columbus.

He was permitted, however, again to fit out an expedition at the public expense; but was forbidden, in his voyage, to touch at Hispaniola. On his arrival, however, on that coast, the injury sustained by one of his vessels compelled him to seek a shelter in the harbor. This request was refused by the hard-hearted Ovando.

At this moment, a fleet was on the point of sailing for Spain, on board of which were Bobadilla, Roldan, and others of his inveterate enemies. Perceiving indications of an approaching tempest, Columbus, notwithstanding the refusal of Ovando, sent to him, informing him of the approaching storm, and advising that the squadron bound for Spain should wait until it was past.

This advice, however, was unheeded, and the fleet set sail. "Within two days, the predictions of Columbus were verified. One of those tremendous hurricanes which sometimes sweep those latitudes, had gradually gathered up. The baleful appearance of the heavens, the wild look of the ocean, the rising murmurs of the wind, all gave notice of its approach. The fleet had scarcely reached the eastern point of Hispaniola, when the tempest burst over it with awful fury, involving every thing in wreck and ruin. The ship on board which were Bobadilla, Roldan, and a number of the most inveterate enemies of Columbus, was swallowed up, with all its crew, and with a large mass of gold, and the principal part of the ill-gotten treasure gained by the miseries of the Indians. Many of the ships were entirely lost; some returned to San Domingo in a shattered condition, and only one was enabled to continue her voyage to Spain. That one, according to Fernando Columbus, was the weakest of the fleet, and had on board four thousand pieces of gold belonging to Columbus."

The little squadron of Columbus survived the tempest, after which he continued his voyage. This proved to be

one of the most eventful and distressing of all the voyages ever undertaken by this illustrious man. Our limits forbid us to follow him. Having experienced every variety of fortune, he at length returned to Spain, where he arrived, a wreck of what he once was, on the 7th of November, 1504.

Here he had still reason to hope, that justice would be done him; but the death of Isabella, his patroness and unchanging friend, which occurred within less than a month after his arrival, overshadowed his prospects. For some time he was confined by a painful illness at Seville; but, at length, was enabled to present himself at court. Here, however, "he met with none of that distinguished attention, that cordial kindness, that cherishing sympathy, which his unparalleled services, and his recent sufferings, had merited. Ferdinand received him with many professions of kindness, but with those cold ineffectual smiles, which pass like wintry sunshine over the countenance, and convey no warmth to the heart."

At length, the final hour of Columbus arrived—arrived, too, without his having received from the hands of Ferdinand, what gratitude, what justice, demanded. On the 20th of May, 1506, he expired with great resignation. His last words were, "*In manus tuas, Domine, commendo spiritum meum* : "into thy hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit."

The body of Columbus was deposited in the convent of St. Francisco, but was afterwards removed to a monastery at Seville, where, for a time, it rested with the remains of his son Diego. The bodies of both, however, were afterwards removed to Hispaniola, and here again disinterred, and conveyed to the Havana, in the island of Cuba, where, in peace, they now repose.

Not only was Columbus deprived of his merited honors and rewards, while living, but even his name was neglected to be given to the country which he discovered. This latter honor was borne away by *Americus Vesputius*, a Florentine, who, the year after Columbus had made the discovery of the continent, followed in his track, and some time after his return published such an account of his voyage, as to lead to the belief, that he was the first discoverer of the continent.

We shall conclude this notice of the great pioneer to this western world, in the eloquent language of the author to whom we have been indebted for the principal incidents in the life of this illustrious man. "He (Columbus) died in ignorance of the real grandeur of his discovery. Until his

last breath, he entertained the idea, that he had merely opened a new way to the old resorts of opulent commerce, and had discovered some of the wild regions of the east. He supposed Hispaniola to be the ancient Ophir, which had been visited by the ships of Solomon, and that Cuba and Terra Firma were but remote parts of Asia. What visions of glory would have broken upon his mind, could he have known that he had indeed discovered a new continent, equal to the whole of the old world in magnitude, and separated by two vast oceans from all the earth hitherto known by civilized man! And how would his magnanimous spirit have been consoled, amidst the afflictions of age, and the cares of penury, the neglect of a fickle public, and the injustice of an ungrateful king, could he have anticipated the splendid empires which were to spread over the beautiful world he had discovered, and the nations, and tongues, and languages, which were to fill its lands with his renown, and to reverence and bless his name to the latest posterity!"

Sec. 3. The discovery of Columbus naturally excited the attention of the civilized nations of Europe, and they became eager to share with Spain the honors and advantages of further discoveries in the new world. As early as May, 1497, John and Sebastian Cabot, father and son, sailed, under the patronage of Henry VII., king of England, on a voyage of discovery; and, in June following, fell in with the island of Newfoundland, which they called *Prima Vista*. Soon after they discovered the smaller island of St. John's, and the *continent itself*. On their return, they pursued a southerly course to Virginia, and, according to others, to the cape of Florida. They returned without attempting a settlement, but took possession of the country in behalf of the crown of England.

John Cabot appears to have been a native of Venice, but to have settled in England with his family some time previous to the above voyage. The commission granted to him by Henry, which is the oldest American state paper of England, bore date March 5th, 1496, although he did not sail

until the year following. This squadron was allowed to consist of six ships of the burden of two hundred tons; but, for reasons not well understood, they sailed with but two caravals, and three hundred men. These were freighted by the merchants of London and Bristol. They have the honor of making the first discovery of the continent, Columbus not falling in with it until 1498, during his third voyage, as has already been related. The extent of this voyage of the Cabots appears not to have been settled by historians. Some writers suppose that they reached the latitude of 67° , while others make the limits of their voyage the 45th and 38th degrees of north latitude.

Sec. 4. The French attempted no discoveries on the American coast until 1524. This year, John Verrazano, a Florentine, sailed under the patronage of Francis I. of France, and in the course of his voyage explored the coast from 30° to 50° of north latitude, and examined Florida with considerable accuracy.

Historians differ in their account of this voyage of Verrazano. By some he is supposed to have first made the American coast where the town of Savannah now stands. Others place his approach in latitude 37° , whence it is supposed that he proceeded south to latitude 34° , in the neighborhood of Wilmington, North Carolina, where he landed. Thence sailing southerly, as far as the 30th degree, he resumed his northern course, touching, it is supposed, at Sandy Hook, and afterwards at some of the islands off Rhode Island, whence he proceeded northerly to the 50th degree of north latitude, to Newfoundland. The following year this enterprising navigator made another voyage to the American coast, during which, by some unknown disaster, he was lost with all his crew.

Sec. 5. In 1534, James Cartier, under a commission from the king of France, made a voyage to America, in which he visited the island of Newfoundland, and discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The following year, during a second voyage, he proceeded up the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to the Isle of Orleans, and thence as

far as Montreal. At the former place, he spent the winter, and in the spring returned to France.

On his first voyage, Cartier sailed with two small ships, and one hundred and twenty-two men. On the 10th of May he made the island of Newfoundland, but being prevented by the ice from proceeding farther, he sailed southwardly. As soon, however, as the season would permit, he returned to the north, and visited several harbors in Newfoundland and Labrador. Proceeding northerly with the hope of passing to China, he discovered and entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but soon after was obliged, on account of unpropitious weather, to return to France. During his second voyage, he reached, as we have stated above, the island on which Montreal stands. Here he found a large Indian settlement, by the inhabitants of which he was well treated. This Indian settlement was called Hochelaga. Cartier gave it the name of Mount Royal, from a mountain in the neighborhood. From this circumstance, the island and city of Montreal derive their name. During the winter, which he passed at the island of Orleans, many of his men died of the scurvy, with which they had been afflicted for some time.

It may here be added, that, in 1540, Cartier again visited America, with the intention of forming a settlement. He built a fort at some distance from the Isle of Orleans; but, in the following spring, not having received anticipated supplies, he set sail to return to France with his colony. At Newfoundland he met with three ships and two hundred persons, on their way to the new settlement. Cartier proceeded on his voyage to France. The other ships continued their course to the fort which Cartier had left; after passing a distressing winter, the whole party, abandoning the settlement, in the spring returned to France.

Sec. 6. In the spring of 1541, six years from the discovery of the river St. Lawrence, another equally important river, the Mississippi, was discovered. This honor belongs to Férdinand de Soto, a Spaniard, who, having projected the conquest of Florida from the natives, arrived from Cuba, 1539, with a considerable force. He traversed the country to a great distance, and in

the spring of 1541, first discovered the Mississippi, five or six hundred miles from its mouth.

The object of Soto in traversing so wide an extent of country, appears to have been to search for gold. The summer and winter of 1539, he spent in Florida. In 1540, he began his tour northeast, and having crossed the Altamaha, Savannah, and Ogechee rivers, he turned westerly, and crossing the Alleganies, proceeded southwardly, as far as Mobile and Pensacola. The winter of this year he spent with the Chickasaws. The following spring, he made the important discovery above mentioned. The following year, he died on the banks of the Red river, soon after which the remnant of his followers, who, at first, amounted to some hundreds, constructed several small boats, and having sailed down the Mississippi, returned to Cuba.

Sec. 7. In 1584, Sir Walter Raleigh, under a commission from Queen Elizabeth of England, dispatched two small vessels, commanded by Amidas and Barlow, to the American coast. On their arrival, they entered Pamlico sound, now in North Carolina, and thence proceeded to Roanoake, an island near the mouth of Albemarle sound. Here they spent several weeks, in trafficking with the natives, but effected no settlement. On their return to England, they gave so splendid a description of the beauty and fertility of the country, that Elizabeth bestowed upon it the name of *Virginia*, as a memorial that the happy discovery had been made under a virgin queen.

Previously to the above voyage, under the auspices of Sir Walter Raleigh, two unfortunate attempts had been made by his brother-in-law, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, to effect a settlement in the new world. Both, however, proved ineffectual, and during the last, while Sir Humphrey was returning to England, his vessel was shipwrecked, and all on board perished. Not discouraged by the unfortunate issue of the enterprises of Gilbert, Raleigh fitted out an expedition, as we have above stated, in 1584. The report brought back by Amidas and Barlow induced Sir Walter, in 1585, to attempt

a settlement at the island of Roanoake. This colony was, in a short time, reduced to great distress; and, in 1586, returned with Sir Francis Drake to England. The following year, however, another colony was sent out, consisting of one hundred and fifty adventurers. These most unfortunately were neglected, in respect to supplies; and when, at length, a vessel was dispatched to inquire into their state, not a vestige of them remained.

Sec. 8. In 1602, Bartholomew Gosnold, in a voyage from Falmouth to the northern part of Virginia, discovered the promontory in Massachusetts Bay, which, since his time, has been known by the name of Cape Cod, from the circumstance of his taking a great number of cod-fish at that place.

Gosnold was the first Englishman, who, abandoning the circuitous route by the Canaries and West Indies, came in a direct course to this part of the American continent. He was but seven weeks in making the passage. After the discovery of Cape Cod, coasting southwest, he discovered two islands, one of which he named Martha's Vineyard, and the other Elizabeth island. On the western part of this latter island it was concluded to settle, and a fort and storehouse were accordingly erected; but, before Gosnold left the place, discontents arising among those who were to form the colony, it was thought expedient to abandon the settlement and to return to England. The homeward voyage occupied but five weeks.

NOTES.

Sec. 9. As we are now about to enter upon a period, which will exhibit our ancestors as inhabitants of this new world, it will be interesting to know, what was its aspect, when they first set their feet upon its shores.

STATE OF THE COUNTRY.—On the arrival of the first settlers, North America was almost one unbroken wilderness. From the recesses of these forests were heard the panther, the catamount, the bear, the wildcat, the wolf, and other beasts of prey. From the thickets rushed the buffalo, the elk, the moose, and the carrabo; and, scattered on the mountains and plains, were seen the stag and fallow deer.



Indian Amusements. P. 38.



Indian women engaged in Agriculture. P. 38.

Numerous flocks of the feathered tribe enlivened the air, and multitudes of fish filled the rivers, or glided along the shores. The spontaneous productions of the soil, also, were found to be various and abundant. In all parts of the land grew grapes, which historians have likened to the ancient grapes of Eshcol. In the south were found mulberries, plums, melons, cucumbers, tobacco, corn, peas, beans, potatoes, squashes, pompions, &c. Acorns, walnuts, chestnuts, wild cherries, currants, strawberries, whortleberries, in the season of them, grew wild in every quarter of the country.

Sec. 10. ABORIGINES.—The country was inhabited by numerous tribes or clans of Indians. Of their *number*, at the period the English settled among them, no certain estimate has been transmitted to us. They did not probably much exceed 150,000 within the compass of the thirteen original states.*

In their *physical character*, the different Indian tribes, within the boundaries of the United States, were nearly the same. Their persons were tall, straight, and well proportioned. Their skins were red, or of a copper brown; their eyes black, their hair long, black, and coarse. In constitution, they were firm and vigorous, capable of sustaining great fatigue and hardship.

As to their *general character*, they were quick of apprehension, and not wanting in genius. At times, they were friendly, and even courteous. In council, they were distinguished for gravity and eloquence: in war, for bravery and address. When provoked to anger, they were sullen and retired; and when determined upon revenge, no danger would deter them; neither absence nor time could cool them. If captured by an enemy, they never asked life, nor would they betray emotions of fear, even in view of the tomahawk, or of the kindling faggot.

* This is the estimate of Dr. Trumbull.

They had no *books*, or written *literature*, except rude hieroglyphics; and *education* among them was confined to the arts of war, hunting, fishing, and the few manufactures which existed among them, most of which every male was more or less instructed in. Their language was rude, but sonorous, metaphorical, and energetic. It was well suited to the purposes of public speaking; and, when accompanied by the impassioned gestures, and uttered with the deep guttural tones of the savage, it is said to have had a singularly wild and impressive effect. They had some few war songs, which were little more than an unmeaning chorus; but, it is believed, they had no other compositions which were preserved.

Their *arts* and *manufactures* were confined to the construction of wigwams, bows and arrows, wampum, ornaments, stone hatchets, mortars for pounding corn, to the dressing of skins, weaving of coarse mats from the bark of trees, or a coarse sort of hemp, &c.

Their *agriculture* was small in extent, and the articles they cultivated were few in number. Corn, beans, peas, potatoes, melons, and a few others of a similar kind, were all.

Their *skill in medicine* was confined to a few simple prescriptions and operations. Both the cold and warm bath were often applied, and a considerable number of plants were used with success. For some diseases they knew no remedy, in which case they resorted to their *Powow*, or priest, who undertook the removal of the disease by means of sorcery.

It may be remarked, however, that the *diseases* to which the Indians were liable, were few, compared with those which prevail in civilized society.

The *employments* of the men were principally *hunting*, *fishing*, and *war*. The *women* dressed the food; took charge of the domestic concerns; tilled their narrow and scanty fields; and performed almost all the drudgery connected with their household affairs.

The *amusements* of the men were principally leaping, shooting at marks, dancing, gaming, and hunting, in all of which they made the most violent exertions. Their dances were usually performed round a large fire. In their war dances they sung or recited the feats which they or their ancestors had achieved; represented the manner in which they were performed, and wrought themselves up to an inexpressible degree of martial enthusiasm. The females occasionally joined in some of these sports, but had none peculiar to themselves.

Their *dress* was various. In summer, they wore little besides a covering about the waist; but in winter, they clothed themselves in the skins of wild beasts. They were exceedingly fond of ornaments. On days of show and festivity, their sachems wore mantles of deer-skin, embroidered with white beads, or copper, or they were painted with various devices. Hideousness was the object aimed at in painting themselves. A chain of fish-bones about the neck, or the skin of a wildcat, was the sign of royalty.

For *habitations*, the Indians had *weekwams*, or wigwams, as pronounced by the English. These originally consisted of a strong pole, erected in the centre, around which, at the distance of ten or twelve feet, other poles were driven obliquely into the ground, and fastened to the centre pole at the top. Their coverings were of mats, or barks of trees, well adjusted as to render them dry and comfortable.

Their *domestic utensils* extended not beyond a hatchet of stone, a few shells and sharp stones, which they used for knives; stone mortars for pounding corn, and some mats and skins upon which they slept. They sat, and ate, and lodged on the ground. With shells and stones they scalped their enemies, dressed their game, cut their hair, &c. They made nets of thread, twisted from the bark of Indian hemp, or of the sinews of the moose and deer. For fish-hooks, they used bones which were bent.

Their *food* was of the coarsest and simplest kind—the flesh, and even the entrails of all kinds of wild beasts and birds; and, in their proper season, green corn, beans, peas, &c. &c., which they cultivated, and other fruits, which the country spontaneously produced. Flesh and fish they roasted on a stick, or broiled on the fire. In some instances, they boiled their meat and corn, by putting hot stones in water. Corn they parched, especially in the winter, and upon this they lived, in the absence of other food.

The *money* of the Indians, called *wampum*, consisted of small beads wrought from shells, and strung on belts, and in chains. The wampum of the New-England Indians was black, blue, and white. That of the Six Nations was of a purple color. Six of the white beads, and three of black, or blue, became of the value of a penny. A belt of wampum was given as a token of friendship, or as a seal or confirmation of a treaty.

There was little among them that could be called *society*. Except when roused by some strong excitement, the men were generally indolent, taciturn, and unsocial. The wo-

men were too degraded and oppressed, to think of much besides their toils. Removing, too, as the seasons changed, or as the game grew scarce, or as danger from a stronger tribe threatened, there was little opportunity for forming those local attachments, and those social ties, which spring from a long residence in a particular spot. Their language also, though energetic, was too barren to serve the purposes of familiar conversation. In order to be understood and felt, it required the aid of strong and animated gesticulation, which could take place only when great occasions excited them. It seems, therefore, that they drew no considerable part of their enjoyments from intercourse with one another. Female beauty had little power over the men; and all other pleasures gave way to the strong impulses of public festivity, or burning captives, or seeking murderous revenge, or the chase, or war, or glory.

War was the favorite employment of the savages of North America. It roused them from the lethargy into which they fell, when they ceased from the chase, and furnished them an opportunity to distinguish themselves—to achieve deeds of glory, and taste the sweets of revenge. Their weapons were bows and arrows, headed with flint or other hard stones, which they discharged with great precision and force. The southern Indians used targets made of bark; the Mohawks clothed themselves with skins, as a defence against the arrows of their enemies. When they fought in the open field, they rushed to the attack with incredible fury, and, at the same time, uttered their appalling war whoop. Those whom they had taken captive they often tortured, with every variety of cruelty, and to their dying agonies added every species of insult. If peace was concluded on, the chiefs of the hostile tribes ratified the treaty by smoking in succession the same pipe, called the *calumet*, or pipe of peace.

The *government* of the Indians, in general, was an absolute monarchy, though it differed in different tribes. The will of the sachem was law. In matters of moment, he consulted, however, his counsellors; but his decisions were final. War and peace, among some tribes, seem to have been determined on in a council formed of old men, distinguished by their exploits. When in council, they spoke at pleasure, and always listened to the speaker with profound and respectful silence. “When propositions for war or peace were made, or treaties proposed to them, by the colonial governors, they met the ambassadors in council, and,



Indian Village. P. 39.



Indian Council. P. 40.

at the end of each paragraph, or proposition, the principal sachem delivered a short stick to one of his council, intimating that it was his peculiar duty to remember that paragraph. This was repeated, till every proposal was finished; they then retired to deliberate among themselves. After their deliberations were ended, the sachem, or some counsellors to whom he had delegated this office, replied to every paragraph in its turn, with an exactness scarcely exceeded in the written correspondence of civilized powers. Each man actually remembered what was committed to him, and, with his assistance, the person who replied remembered the whole."

The *religious notions* of the natives consisted of traditions, mingled with many superstitions. Like the ancient Greeks, Romans, Persians, Hindoos, &c., they believed in the existence of two gods, the one *good*, who was the superior, and whom they styled the Great, or Good Spirit; the other *evil*. They worshipped both; and of both formed images of stone, to which they paid religious homage. Besides these, they worshipped various other deities—such as fire, water, thunder—any thing which they conceived to be superior to themselves, and capable of doing them injury. The manner of worship was to sing and dance round large fires. Besides dancing, they offered prayers, and sometimes sweet scented powder. In Virginia, the Indians offered blood, deer's suet, and tobacco. Of the creation and the deluge they had distinct traditions.

Marriage among them was generally a temporary contract. The men chose their wives agreeable to fancy, and put them away at pleasure. Marriage was celebrated, however, with some ceremony, and, in many instances, was observed with fidelity; not unfrequently it was as lasting as life. Polygamy was common among them.

Their *treatment of females* was cruel and oppressive. They were considered by the men as slaves, and treated as such. Those forms of decorum between the sexes, which lay the foundation for the respectful and gallant courtesy, with which women are treated in civilized society, were unknown among them. Of course, females were not only required to perform severe labor, but often felt the full weight of the passions and caprices of the men.

The *rites of burial* among the Indians, varied but little throughout the continent. They generally dug holes in the ground, with sharpened stakes. In the bottom of the grave were laid sticks, upon which the corpse, wrapped in skins

and mats, was deposited. The arms, utensils, paints, and ornaments of the deceased, were buried with him, and a mound of earth raised over his grave. Among some tribes in New-England, and among the Five Nations, the dead were buried in a sitting posture, with their faces towards the east. During the burial, they uttered the most lamentable cries, and continued their mourning for several days.

The *origin* of the Indians inhabiting the country, on the arrival of the English colonists, is involved in much obscurity, and several different answers have been given by learned men to the inquiry, whence did they come to America? The opinion best supported is, that they originated in Asia, and that at some former period, not now to be ascertained, they emigrated from that country to America, over which, in succeeding years, their descendants spread. This opinion is rendered the more probable by the fact, that the figure, complexion, dress, manners, customs, &c. &c., of the nations of both continents, are strikingly similar. That they *might* have emigrated from the eastern continent is evident, since in latitude 66° the two continents are not more than forty miles distant from each other, and between them are two islands less than twenty miles distant from either shore.

REFLECTIONS.

Sec. 11. We shall find it pleasant and profitable, occasionally to pause in our history, and consider what instruction may be drawn from the portion of it that has been perused.

In the story of Columbus, we are introduced to a man of genius, energy, and enterprise. We see him forming a new, and, in that age, a mighty project; and having matured his plan, we see him set himself vigorously about its execution. For a time, he is either treated as a visionary, or baffled by opposition. But, neither discouraged nor dejected, he steadily pursues his purpose, surmounts every obstacle, and at length spreads his sails upon the unknown waters of the Atlantic. A kind Providence auspiciously guides his way, and crowns his enterprise with the unexpected discovery of a new world.

While we admire the lofty qualities of Columbus, and look with wonder at the consequences which have resulted from his discovery, let us emulate his decision, energy, and perseverance. Many are the occasions in the present world, on which it will be important to summon these to our aid;

and, by their means, many useful objects may be accomplished, which, without them, would be unattained.

But, while we thus press forward in the career of usefulness—while we aim to accomplish for our fellow-men all the amount of good in our power, let us moderate our expectations of reward here, by the consideration that Columbus died the victim of ingratitude and disappointment.

Another consideration, of still deeper interest, is suggested by the story of Columbus. We who live to mark the wonderful events which have flowed from his discovery, within the short space of three centuries, cannot but advert with awe to HIM, who attaches to the actions of a single individual, a train of consequences so stupendous and unexpected. How lightly soever, then, we may think of our conduct, let us remember, that the invisible hand of Providence may be connecting with our smallest actions the most momentous results to ourselves and others.

With respect to Americus Vesputius, it may be observed, that, although he deprived Columbus of the merited honor of giving his name to the new world, and gained this distinction for himself—still, his name will ever remain stigmatized, as having appropriated that to himself, which fairly belonged to another.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD II.

DISTINGUISHED FOR SETTLEMENTS.

Extending from the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607, to the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689.

Sec. 1. Prior to the year 1607, a period of 115 years from the discovery of San Salvador by Columbus, several attempts, some of which we have noticed, were made to effect settlements in various parts of North America, but none had proved successful.

It may appear surprising, perhaps, that, among the attempts made to effect permanent settlements in the northern part of the continent, through a lapse of so many years, not a single one should have succeeded. But it is to be remembered, that they were undertaken upon individual responsibility, with bad calculations, and intrusted, in most instances, to men of mercenary views. But it may be asked, Why the sovereigns of Europe should have so long neglected the plantation of colonies in a country, in respect to which they were, at first, so eager to make discoveries, and to obtain a title? To this it may be replied, that the unsettled state of the nations of Europe, for a long period, demanded all the attention and resources of their respective sovereigns. Henry VIII. of England was occupied with affairs connected with his divorce, marriage, and the reformation. Several of his successors also found sufficient employment at home. The long and bloody wars between Charles V., emperor of Germany, and Francis I., gave the court of France ample occupation. Besides, no prince or statesman

in Europe appears to have foreseen the advantages of planting colonies in this northern continent. It presented no mines of gold or silver, nor were its mountains covered with spicery and balm. It was not conceivable, at that period, how numerous, hardy colonies, could give such strength, opulence, and grandeur, to empires, as could never be derived from the gold and rich productions of the southern regions. One advantage, however, resulted to the nations of Europe, and which for many years they enjoyed in common, viz. the fishery on the banks of Newfoundland. For a time, it was prosecuted to an inconsiderable extent; but, at length, it ripened into a system, and became a source of national emolument.*

Sec. 2. The year 1607 marks the era, when the first permanent settlement was effected by Europeans in North America. In the month of May of this year, a colony from England, consisting of one hundred and five persons, arrived in Virginia; and, on a beautiful peninsula in James river, began a settlement, which they called *Jamestown*.

Sec. 3. This name was given to the above settlement, in honor of James I. of England, who, the year previously, had granted to two companies, called the *London* and *Plymouth* companies, the lands in North America embraced between the 34th and 45th degrees of north latitude—the southern part, called South Virginia, to the London, and the northern, called North Virginia, to the Plymouth company.

The London company consisted of Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, Richard Hackluyt, Edward Maria Wingfield, &c. These were authorized to make a settlement at any place between the 34th and 41st degrees of latitude, and in them was vested the right of property in the land extending fifty miles each way from their place of habitation; reaching one hundred miles into the country. The Plymouth company consisted of Thomas Hanham, Raleigh Gilbert, William Parker, George Popham, and others, prin-

* Trumbull.

cipally inhabitants of Bristol, Plymouth, and the eastern parts of England. To this company was granted the lands between the 38th and 45th degrees of latitude. They were vested with the right of property in lands to the same extent as in the southern colony: neither company, however, were to form settlements within one hundred miles of the other.*

Sec. 4. Under the auspices of the London company, the first settlement in Virginia was commenced. The expedition was commanded by Capt. Christopher Newport, but the government of the colony was framed in England, before it sailed. It was to consist of a council of seven persons, with a president to be elected by the council from their number. Who composed it was unknown at the time the expedition sailed, their names being carefully concealed in a box, which was to be opened after their arrival.

The original intention of the colony was to form a settlement at Roanoake; but, being driven by a violent storm north of that place, they discovered the entrance of Chesapeake bay, the capes of which they named Charles and Henry. Entering this, they at length reached a convenient spot upon which to commence a settlement.

The code of laws hitherto cautiously concealed, was now promulgated, and, at the same time, the council appointed in England was made known. It consisted of Bartholomew Gosnold, John Smith, Edward Wingfield, Christopher Newport, John Ratcliffe, John Martin, and George Kendall. Mr. Wingfield was chosen president.

Among the most enterprising and useful members of this colony, and one of its magistrates, was Capt. John Smith. As he acted a distinguished part in the early history of the colony of Virginia, a brief sketch of his life will be interesting.

He was born in Willoughby, in Lincolnshire, England, in 1579. From his earliest youth, he discovered a roving and romantic genius, and appeared irresistibly bent on extravagant and daring enterprises. At the age of thirteen, becoming tired of study, he disposed of his satchel and books,

* Pitkin.

with the intention of escaping to sea. But the death of his father, just at that time, frustrated his plans for the present, and threw him upon guardians, who, to repress the waywardness of his genius, confined him to a counting-room. From a confinement so irksome, however, he contrived to escape not long after; and, with ten shillings in his pocket, entered the train of a young nobleman, travelling to France.

On their arrival at Orleans, he received a discharge from further attendance upon Lord Bertie, who advanced him money to return to England.

Smith had no wish, however, to return. With the money he had received, he visited Paris, from which he proceeded to the Low Countries, where he enlisted into the service, as a soldier. Having continued sometime in this capacity, he was induced to accompany a gentleman to Scotland, who promised to recommend him to the notice of King James. Being disappointed, however, in this, he returned to England, and visited the place of his birth. Not finding company there suited to his romantic turn, he erected a booth in some wood, and, in the manner of a recluse, retired from society, devoting himself to the study of military history and tactics, diverting himself, at intervals, with his horse and lance.

Recovering about this time a part of his father's estate, which had been in dispute, he once more commenced travelling, being at this time only seventeen years of age. His first stage was Flanders, where, meeting with a Frenchman, who pretended to be heir to a noble family, he was prevailed upon to accompany him to France. On their arrival at St. Valory, in Picardy, by the connivance of the shipmaster, the Frenchman and attendants robbed him of his effects, and succeeded in making their escape.

Eager to pursue his travels, he endeavored to procure a place on board a man of war. In one of his rambles, searching for a ship that would receive him, he accidentally met one of the villains concerned in robbing him. Without exchanging a word, they both instantly drew their swords. The contest was severe; but Smith succeeded in wounding and disarming his antagonist, and obliged him to confess his guilt. After this rencounter, having received pecuniary assistance from an acquaintance, the Earl of Ployer, he travelled along the French coast to Bayonne; and thence crossed to Marseilles, visiting and observing every thing in his course, which had reference to naval or military architecture.

At Marseilles, he embarked for Italy, in company with a number of pilgrims. But here, also, new troubles awaited him. During the voyage, a tempest arising, the ship was forced into Toulon, after leaving which, contrary winds so impeded their progress, that, in a fit of rage, the pilgrims, imputing their ill fortune to the presence of a heretic, threw him into the sea.

Being a good swimmer, he was enabled to reach the island of St. Mary, off Nice, at no great distance, where he was taken on board a ship, in which, altering his course, he sailed to Alexandria, in Egypt, and thence coasted the Levant. Having spent some time in this region of country, he sailed on his return; and, on leaving the ship, received about two thousand dollars, as his portion of a rich prize, which had been taken during the voyage.

Smith landed at Antibes. He now travelled through Italy, crossed the Adriatic, and passed into Stiria, to the seat of Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria. The emperor being at that time at war with the Turks, he entered his army, as a volunteer.

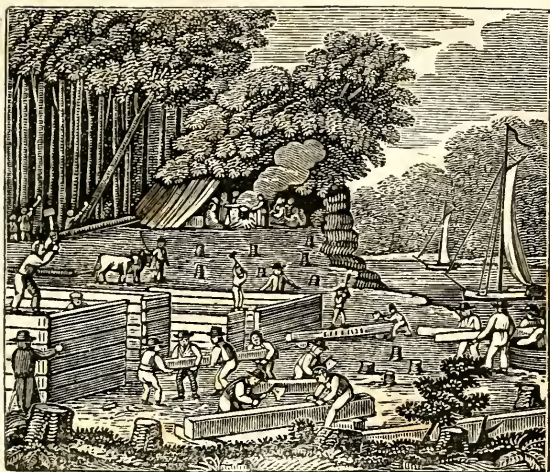
By means of his valor and ingenuity, aided by his military knowledge and experience, he soon distinguished himself, and was advanced to the command of a company, consisting of two hundred and fifty horsemen, in the regiment of Count Meldrick, a nobleman of Transylvania.

The regiment in which he served was engaged in several hazardous enterprises, in which Smith exhibited a bravery admired by all the army, and when Meldrick left the imperial service for that of his native prince, Smith followed.

At the siege of Regal he was destined to new adventures. The Ottomans, deriding the slow advance of the Transylvania army, the Lord Turbisha dispatched a messenger with a challenge, that, for the diversion of the ladies of the place, he would fight any captain of the Christian troops.

The honor of accepting this challenge was determined by lot, and fell on Smith. At the time appointed, the two champions appeared in the field on horseback, and, in the presence of the armies, and of the ladies of the insulting Ottoman, rushed impetuously to the attack. A short, but desperate conflict ensued, at the end of which Smith was seen bearing the head of the lifeless Turbisha in triumph to his general.

The fall of the chief filled his friend, Crualgo, with indignation, and roused him to avenge his death. Smith accordingly soon after received a challenge from him, which



Building of Jamestown. P. 45.



*Capt. John Smith defending himself from
the Indians. P. 51.*



he did not hesitate to accept, and the two exasperated combatants, upon their chargers, fell with desperate fury upon each other. Victory again followed the falchion of Smith, who sent the Turk headlong to the ground.

It was now the turn of Smith to make the advance. He dispatched a message, therefore, to the Turkish ladies, that if they were desirous of more diversion of a similar kind, they should be welcome to his head, in case their third champion could take it.

Bonamalgro tendered his services, and haughtily accepted the Christian's challenge. When the day arrived, the spectators assembled, and the combatants entered the field. It was an hour of deep anxiety to all; as the horsemen approached, a deathless silence pervaded the multitude. A blow from the sabre of the Turk brought Smith to the ground; and, for a moment, it seemed as if the deed of death was done. Smith, however, was only stunned. He rose like a lion, when he shakes the dew from his mane for the fight, and vaulting into his saddle, made his falchion "shed fast atonement for its first delay." It is hardly necessary to add, that the head of Bonamalgro was added to the number.

Smith was received with transports of joy by the prince of Transylvania, who, after the capture of the place, presented him with his picture set in gold, granted him a pension of three hundred ducats a year, and conferred on him a coat of arms, bearing three Turks' heads in a shield.

In a subsequent battle between the Transylvanian army and a body of Turks and Tartars, the former was defeated, with a loss of many killed and wounded. Among the wounded was the gallant Smith. His dress bespoke his consequence, and he was treated kindly. On his recovery from his wounds, he was sold to the Basha Bogul, who sent him as a present to his mistress at Constantinople, assuring her that he was a Bohemian nobleman, whom he had conquered, and whom he now presented to her as her slave.

The present proved more acceptable to the lady than her lord intended. As she understood Italian, in that language Smith informed her of his country and quality, and, by his singular address and engaging manners, won the affection of her heart.

Designing to secure him to herself, but fearing lest some misfortune should befall him, she sent him to her brother, a bashaw, on the borders of the sea of Asoph, with directions

that he should be initiated into the manners and language, as well as the religion of the Tartars.

From the terms of her letter, her brother suspected her design, and resolved to disappoint her. Immediately after Smith's arrival, therefore, he ordered him to be stripped, his head and beard to be shaven, and with an iron collar about his neck, and a dress of hair cloth, he was driven forth to labor among some Christian slaves.

The circumstances of Smith were now peculiarly afflicting. He could indulge no hope, except from the attachment of his mistress; but, as her distance was great, it was improbable that she would soon become acquainted with the story of his misfortunes.

In the midst of his distress, an opportunity to escape presented itself, but under circumstances, which, to a person of a less adventurous spirit, would have served only to heighten this distress. His employment was thrashing, at the distance of a league from the residence of the bashaw, who daily visited him, but treated him with rigorous severity, and, in fits of anger, even abused him with blows. This last was treatment to which the independent spirit of Smith could not submit. Watching a favorable opportunity, on an occasion of the tyrant's visit, and when his attendants were absent, he levelled his thrashing instrument at him, and laid him in the dust.

He then hastily filled a bag with grain, and mounting the bashaw's horse, put himself upon fortune. Directing his course towards a desert, he entered its recesses, and continuing to conceal himself in its obscurities for several days, at length made his escape. In sixteen days he arrived at Exapolis, on the river Don, where, meeting with the Russian garrison, the commander treated him kindly, and gave him letters of recommendation to other commanders in that region.

He now travelled through a part of Russia and Poland, and at length reached his friends in Transylvania. At Leipsic, he enjoyed the pleasure of meeting his colonel, Count Meldrick, and Sigismund, prince of Transylvania, who presented him with fifteen hundred ducats. His fortune being thus in a measure repaired, he travelled through Germany, France, and Spain, and having visited the kingdom of Morocco, returned once more to England.

Such is a rapid view of the life of this interesting adventurer, down to his arrival in his native land. At this time, the settlement of America was occupying the attention of

many distinguished men in England. The life of Smith, united to his fondness for enterprises of danger and difficulty, had prepared him to embark with zeal, in a project so novel and sublime, as that of exploring the wilds of a newly discovered continent.

He was soon attached to the expedition about to sail under Newport, and was appointed one of the magistrates of the colony sent over at that time. Before the arrival of the colony, his colleagues in office becoming jealous of his influence, arrested him, on the absurd charge, that he designed to murder the council, usurp the government, and make himself king of Virginia. He was therefore rigorously confined, during the remainder of the voyage.

On their arrival in the country, he was liberated, but could not obtain a trial, although in the tone of conscious integrity, he repeatedly demanded it. The infant colony was soon involved in perplexity and danger. Notwithstanding Smith had been calumniated, and his honor deeply wounded, his was not the spirit to remain idle, when his services were needed. Nobly disdaining revenge, he offered his assistance, and, by his talents, experience, and indefatigable zeal, furnished important aid to the infant colony.

Continuing to assert his innocence, and to demand a trial, the time at length arrived, when his enemies could postpone it no longer. After a fair hearing of the case, he was honorably acquitted of the charges alleged against him, and soon after took his seat in the council.

The affairs of the colony becoming more settled, the active spirit of Smith prompted him to explore the neighboring country. In an attempt to ascertain the source of Chickahominy river, he ascended in a barge as far as the stream was uninterrupted. Designing to proceed still further, he left the barge in the keeping of the crew, with strict injunctions on no account to leave her, and with two Englishmen and two Indians left the party. But no sooner was he out of view, than the crew, impatient of restraint, repaired on board the barge, and proceeding some distance down the stream, landed at a place, where a body of Indians lay in ambush, by whom they were seized.

By means of the crew, the route of Smith was ascertained, and a party of Indians were immediately dispatched to take him. On coming up with him, they fired, killed the Englishmen, and wounded himself. With great presence of mind, he now tied his Indian guide to his left arm, as a shield from the enemies' arrows, while, with his mus-

ket, he dispatched three of the most forward of the assailants.

In this manner, he continued to retreat towards his canoe, while the Indians, struck with admiration of his bravery, followed with respectful caution. Unfortunately, coming to a sunken spot filled with mire, while engrossed with eying his pursuers, he sunk so deep as to be unable to extricate himself, and was forced to surrender.

Fruitful in expedients, to avert immediate death, he presented an ivory compass to the chief, whose attention was arrested by the vibrations of the needle. Taking advantage of the impression which he had thus made, partly by signs and partly by language, he excited their wonder still more, by telling them of its singular powers.

Their wonder, however, seemed soon to abate, and their attention returned to their prisoner. He was now bound, and tied to a tree, and the savages were preparing to direct their arrows at his breast. At this instant the chief, holding up the compass, they laid down their arms, and led him in triumph to Powhatan, their king.

Powhatan and his council doomed him to death, as a man whose courage and genius were peculiarly dangerous to the Indians. Preparations were accordingly made, and when the time arrived, Smith was led out to execution. His head was laid upon a stone, and a club presented to Powhatan, who himself claimed the honor of becoming the executioner. The savages in silence were circling round, and the giant arm of Powhatan had already raised the club to strike the fatal blow, when, to his astonishment, the young and beautiful Pocahontas, his daughter, with a shriek of terror, rushed from the throng, and threw herself upon the body of Smith. At the same time, she cast an imploring look towards her furious, but astonished father, and in all the eloquence of mute, but impassioned sorrow, besought his life.

The remainder of the scene was honorable to Powhatan. The club of the chief was still uplifted, but a father's pity had touched his heart, and the eye that had at first kindled with wrath, was now fast losing its fierceness. He looked round as if to collect his fortitude, or perhaps to find an excuse for his weakness, in the pity of the attendants. A similar sympathy had melted the savage throng, and seemed to join in the petition, which the weeping Pocahontas felt, but durst not utter, "My father, let the prisoner live." Powhatan raised his daughter, and the captive, scarcely yet assured of safety, from the earth.





Pocahontas saving Capt. Smith. P. 52.



First Colonial Assembly in Virginia. P. 57.

Shortly after, Powhatan dismissed Capt. Smith, with assurances of friendship, and the next morning, accompanied with a guard of twelve men, he arrived safely at Jamestown, after a captivity of seven weeks.*

In 1609, circumstances having arisen to interrupt the friendly dispositions of Powhatan towards the colony, he plotted their entire destruction. His design was to attack them unapprised, and to cut them off at a blow.

In a dark and stormy night, the heroic Pocahontas hastened alone to Jamestown, and disclosed the inhuman plot of her father. The colony were thus put on their guard, and their ruin averted.

It may be interesting to add concerning Pocahontas, that some time after this, she was married to an English gentleman of the name of Rolfe, with whom she visited England. She embraced the Christian religion, and was baptized by the name of Rebecca. She left one son, who had several daughters, the descendants of whom inherited her lands in Virginia, and are among the most respectable families in that state.

Sec. 5. The colony thus commenced, soon experienced a variety of calamities, incidental, perhaps, to infant settlements, but not the less painful and discouraging. Inefficiency and a want of harmony marked the proceedings of the council. Provisions were scarce, and of a poor quality. The neighboring tribes of Indians became jealous and hostile, and, more than all, sickness spread among them, and carried a large proportion of their number to an early grave.

By the middle of July, they were so distressed with the badness and scarcity of provisions, with sickness, labor, and continual guarding against the enemy, that scarcely ten of the whole company could walk, or even stand alone. By the end of the month, fifty of their number were no more. Among the dead, was that enterprising gentleman, Captain Gosnold, the projector of the whole scheme of the plantation.

To increase their misfortunes, the president embezzled the public stores, and attempted to run away with the company's bark, and to return to England. It was therefore found necessary, for the common safety, to displace him.

* Burk's Virginia.

Mr. Ratcliffe was elected to the presidency. But it very soon appeared, that his abilities were by no means equal to the exigencies of the company, and the whole weight of government fell, therefore, on Capt. John Smith.*

The condition of the colony was, at length, somewhat improved, and their courage renewed, by the arrival of Capt. Newport, (who had been dispatched to England,) with a supply of provisions, and an additional number of men. This number was not long after augmented, and a further supply of necessaries received, by the arrival of Capt. Nelson, who had sailed in company with Newport, but who had been separated from him during a storm, and for some time was supposed to be lost. With these accessions, the colonists now amounted to two hundred men. This number was still further increased before the end of 1608, by the arrival of seventy colonists, among whom were many persons of distinction.

Sec. 6. Early in the year 1609, the London company, not having realized their anticipated profit from their new establishment in America, obtained from the king a new charter, with more ample privileges. Under this charter, Thomas West, otherwise called Lord De la War, was appointed governor for life.

The company, under their new act of incorporation, was styled, "The treasurer and company of adventurers and planters for the first colony in Virginia." They were now granted in absolute property, what had formerly been conveyed only in trust—a territory extending from Point Comfort two hundred miles north and south, along the coast, and throughout the land from sea to sea.

Sec. 7. Lord De la War being appointed governor of the colony, but not being able to leave England, immediately dispatched to America nine ships, and five hundred men, under command of Sir Thomas Gates, his lieutenant, and Sir George Summers, his admiral. Eight of these ships arrived in safety at Jamestown, in the month of August, but that on board of which

* Trumbull.

was Sir Thomas and other officers, being wrecked on the Bermudas, did not arrive till May of the following year.

The ship, thus wrecked, contained one hundred and fifty persons, the whole of whom were, for a time, in extreme danger of being lost. For three days, they were obliged to labor incessantly at the pump. The leak, however, still increasing, it was attempted to run her on shore, but she stranded, at the distance of three quarters of a mile from land. By the help of the boats, however, the crew and passengers were all saved; and, having built two small vessels, again set sail for Virginia, where they arrived at the time stated above.

Sec. 8. At the time Sir Thomas and the other officers arrived, the colony had become reduced to circumstances of great depression. Capt. Smith, in consequence of a severe accidental wound, had sometime before returned to England. His departure was followed by disastrous consequences. Subordination and industry ceased; the Indians became hostile, and refused the usual supplies of provisions. Famine ensued, and to such extremities had they sunk, that the skins of the horses were devoured, as were also the bodies of Indians whom they had killed, and even the remains of deceased friends. Of five hundred persons, sixty only remained. At this juncture, the shipwrecked from Bermuda arrived. An immediate return to England was resolved upon: and, with that intent, they embarked, but just as they were leaving the mouth of the river, Lord De la War fortunately appeared, with supplies of men and provisions, and they were persuaded to return. By means of his judicious management, the condition of the colony soon wore a better aspect, and for several years continued to prosper.

It was unfortunate, however, for the colony, that ill health

obliged Lord De la War, in March, 1611, to leave the administration. He was succeeded by Sir Thomas Dale, who arrived in May. Hitherto, no right of property in land had been established, but the produce of labor was deposited in public stores, and shared in common. To remedy the indolence and indifference, growing out of such a system, Sir Thomas assigned to each inhabitant a lot of three acres as his own, and a certain portion of time to cultivate it. The advantages of this measure were soon so apparent, that another assignment of fifty acres was made, and not long after the plan of working in a common field was abandoned.

Sec. 9. In 1613, several Dutch merchants erected a fort on Hudson's river, where Albany now stands, and a few trading houses on the island of New-York, at that time called by the Indians *Manhattan*.

Hudson's river derives its name from Henry Hudson, an Englishman by birth, but, who, at the time of this discovery, was in the service of the Dutch East India Company. Hudson left the Texel on the 20th of March, 1609, with the design of penetrating to the East Indies, by sailing a north-westward course. Failing in this, he proceeded along the shores of Newfoundland, and thence southward as far as Chesapeake and Delaware bays. Thence returning northward, he discovered and sailed up the river, which now bears his name.

By virtue of this discovery, the Dutch laid claim to the country, and the following year several Dutch merchants sent ships to the river to open a trade with the natives. The claim, thus set up by the Dutch, was denied by the court of England, not on the ground that Hudson was not the first to discover and enter the river, but that being an English subject the right to the country belonged to them.

The Dutch, having planted themselves at Manhattan, were visited the same year by Capt. Argal, of Virginia, with a naval force, who demanded the surrender of the place to the English crown, as properly constituting a part of Virginia. The Dutch governor, finding himself incapable of resistance, submitted himself and his colony to the king of England, and under him to the governor of Virginia. Notwithstanding this surrender, the country still continued to be called as before, New-Netherlands, and the settlement, the place where New-York now stands, New-Amsterdam.

These names they retained, till the final conquest of the country by the English, in 1664.

Sec. 10. In 1614, Capt. John Smith sailed from England with two ships to North Virginia. During this voyage, he ranged the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod, and gave names to several points of land, which now, for the first time, were discovered. On his return home, having formed a map of the country, he presented it to Prince Charles, who, in the warmth of admiration, declared that the country should be called **NEW-ENGLAND**. Cape Ann was so called by the prince, in filial respect to his mother.

Sec. 11. The year 1619 forms a memorable epoch in the history of Virginia, a provincial legislature being at this time introduced, in which the colonists were represented by delegates chosen by themselves.

This colonial assembly, the first legislature to which the people of America sent representatives, was convoked by Sir George Yeardly, the governor-general of the colony, and met at Jamestown, on the 19th of June. Before this, the colonists had been ruled rather as soldiers in garrison by martial law, but now they were invested with the privileges of freemen. They were divided into eleven corporations, each of which was represented in the assembly.

The following year the colony received a great accession to their number. Eleven ships arrived, with twelve hundred and sixty persons for settlement. Nearly one thousand colonists were resident here before. In order to attach them still more to the country, Sir Edwin Sandys, the treasurer of the company, recommended to send over a number of young women of reputable character, to become wives to the planters. Accordingly, ninety at this time came over, and sixty the following year. These were sold to the planters, at the price, at first, of one hundred, and, afterwards, one hundred and fifty pounds of tobacco. Tobacco, at this time, was worth three shillings per pound. Debts incurred for the purchase of wives were recoverable before any others.

Accessions to the colony, of a different character, were

also made about this time. By order of King James, one hundred persons of profligate character, who had rendered themselves obnoxious to government by their crimes, were sent to the colony, by way of punishment. This, perhaps designed for its benefit, as the exiles were chiefly employed as laborers, was ultimately prejudicial to its prosperity.

During the year 1620, slave-holding was introduced into the colony. A Dutch ship from Africa, touching at Jamestown, landed twenty negroes for sale. These were purchased by the planters, and with these was introduced an evil into the country, the sad effects of which are felt to the present day.

Sec. 12. The year 1620 marks the era of the first settling of *New-England*. On the 22d of December of this year, a colony originally from England, known by the name of *Puritans*, landed at *Plymouth*, Massachusetts, and began the settlement of that place. Although natives of England, they were driven thence by the arm of persecution, for urging a more thorough reformation in the church of England.

They fled from England, first to Amsterdam, in Holland, in 1607, with their pastor, the Rev. Mr. Robinson. From Amsterdam, they soon after removed to Leyden, where they continued, until they embarked for America.

Among the motives which influenced them to remove to America, the prospect of enjoying "a purer worship, and greater liberty of conscience," was the principal. To secure these objects, they were willing to become exiles from a civilized country, and encounter the dangers and privations, which might meet them in a wilderness.

The people who first settled New-England were principally from the counties of Nottinghamshire, Lancashire, and Yorkshire. In these counties, there prevailed, about the year 1602, an extensive revival of religion. The new converts wishing to worship God in a manner more simple than was observed in the established church, but not being

allowed to do it, while they continued members of it, agreed upon a separation from it; and, for the sake of peace, and more liberty of conscience, resolved upon a removal to the states of Holland, which, at that time, granted a free toleration to different denominations of protestants.

The leader of these emigrants, in the year 1607, was an able and pious man, Mr. John Robinson, who, with his congregation, having disposed of their property, prepared for their removal, with a design to fix themselves at Amsterdam; but now they found the ports and harbors carefully watched, and the design of this congregation being suspected, strict orders were given, that they should not be suffered to depart. They were compelled to use the most secret methods, to give extravagant fees to seamen, by whom, notwithstanding, they were often betrayed. Twice they attempted to embark, but were discovered and prevented. At another time, having got on board a ship, with their effects, the ship-master sailed a little distance, and then returned, and delivered them to the resentment of their enemies. The next year, they made another attempt, in which, after the severest trials, they succeeded. Having engaged a ship belonging to Holland, for their conveyance, they were going on board. By some treachery, their enemies had been informed of their design, and, at this juncture, a great number of armed men came upon them. A part of the men were on board, without any of their effects; the women and children were in a bark approaching the ship. The Dutch captain, apprehensive of danger to himself, hoisted sail, and with a fair wind directed his course to Holland. The passengers used every effort to persuade him to return, but in vain. They saw their wives and children fall into the hands of merciless enemies, while unable to afford them any relief. They had none of their effects, not even a change of clothes, on board. A violent storm came on, which raged seven days, without intermission. By the violence of the storm, they were driven to the coast of Norway. On a sudden, the sailors exclaimed, "The ship has foundered; she sinks; she sinks!" The seamen trembled in despair; the pilgrims looked up to God, and cried, "Yet, Lord, thou canst save. Yet, Lord, thou canst save." To the astonishment of all, the vessel soon began to rise—rode out the storm, and, at length, reached its destined port. After some time, all their friends who had been left, arrived safely in Holland.

This congregation fixed their residence at Amsterdam. But, in consequence of some unhappy disputes which then

agitated the other English churches in that city, they thought it prudent to remove. Accordingly, they retired the next year, and settled in the city of Leyden. Here they were kindly received, and enjoyed a quiet habitation. As the flames of religious tyranny and persecution continued to rage in England, many of their countrymen joined them; under the able ministry of their beloved pastor, they continued in great union and prosperity, and became a numerous congregation.

After remaining a number of years in Holland, this little flock found their situation, on many accounts, unpleasant. The immoralities of their neighbors were dangerous to the rising generation; the difficulties of procuring a comfortable living induced not a few of their sons to enter the Dutch armies, and, at no distant day, there was reason to apprehend, their posterity would become incorporated with the people of the country, and their church become extinct. These considerations, added to the more powerful motive, the hope of laying a foundation for the extensive advancement of the kingdom of Christ, in the western wilderness, induced them to remove to America. Previous to their final determination, as their governing maxim always was, "In all thy ways acknowledge God, and he shall direct thy paths," they set apart a day for fasting and prayer, to seek direction from God.*

Having decided to settle in Virginia, their next object was to obtain a patent, which they at length effected, from the London company. At the same time, they received from King James an intimation, that they should not be molested, in respect to the enjoyment of their religion. They now began to prepare themselves for their momentous enterprise. For this purpose, they procured two vessels, the *Speedwell* and the *Mayflower*. The *Speedwell*, of sixty tons, they purchased in Holland, with the intention of keeping her for their accommodation in America. The *Mayflower*, of one hundred and eighty tons, they hired at London.

All things being in readiness for their departure from Leyden, they kept a day of solemn humiliation and prayer. On the 21st of July, the pilgrims went to Delfthaven, a place about twenty miles from Leyden, and two miles from Rotterdam. Here they were to embark. To this port, they were kindly attended by many of their brethren and friends from Amsterdam, as well as from Leyden. One night was

* Robbins' New-England Fathers.



Landing of the Pilgrims. P. 58.



Settlement of Dover. P. 67.



spent with little sleep, but "with friendly entertainment, and Christian discourse, and real expressions of the purest love."

"The next day, the wind being fair, they went on board, and their friends with them, where truly affecting was the sight of that sad and mournful parting—to hear what sighs and sobs and prayers did sound among them, what tears did gush from every eye, and pithy speeches pierced each other's heart, that sundry of the Dutch strangers, that stood on the key as spectators, could not refrain from tears. Yet comfortable and sweet it was, to see such lively and sweet expressions of dear and unfeigned love." But the tide, which waits for no man, now called them away. The moment was overwhelming. Their affectionate pastor fell on his knees, to lead the devotions of the pilgrims for the last time. With cheeks bedewed with tears, they commended themselves, and each other, most fervently to God. Then, with mutual embraces, and many prayers, they parted. To many it was a final parting on earth. A prosperous gale soon bore them to Southampton. There they found the *Mayflower*, come from London, with the rest of their company, prepared to embark for America. Most welcome and joyful was their meeting and mutual gratulation.

August 5th, 1620, the pilgrims embarked at Southampton for the *New World*. Very soon, Mr. Reynolds, captain of the *Speedwell*, complained that his vessel was so leaky, that he durst not proceed. They were therefore constrained to put in at Dartmouth. Having made such repairs as were judged necessary, and sailed about one hundred leagues, Reynolds again complained of the *Speedwell*, and they went in at Plymouth. There the poor *Speedwell* was searched, and condemned as not sea worthy. But the true cause, at least the principal cause, of her condemnation, was the unfaithfulness and treachery of Reynolds and his crew, who were very far from having the hearts of puritans or pilgrims. A part of her company were dismissed, and the rest were taken on board the *Mayflower*.

With one hundred and one passengers, this vessel sailed from Plymouth, September 6th, 1620. For a time, their voyage was pleasant. A fine breeze wafted them forward, and they had a fair prospect of speedily landing in the *New World*. But not long after, they encountered fierce and contrary winds. For a time, they were in the utmost danger; and, at length, held a consultation as to the expediency of again shaping their course towards England. A majority, however, decided to pursue the voyage. For two

months they were tossed and driven upon the tempestuous ocean; till, at length, on the ninth of November, they had the happiness to descry the bleak and dreary shores of Cape Cod. The part then discovered, was Sandy Point, called Cape Malabar, in Chatham. But they were still remote from the place which they had selected for a habitation. It was their intention to settle near the mouth of the Hudson. Toward that river they now bent their course. But the wintry season, the stormy prospect, the "perilous shoals and breakers" in their way, induced them to relinquish their design, and seek the nearest resting place, where they might hope for tolerable accommodations. They therefore turned back, sailed round Race Point, and after two days, Nov. 11th, anchored in Cape Cod harbor, between Cape Cod and Plymouth.*

Before landing, having devoutly given thanks to God for their safe arrival, they formed themselves into a body politic, forty-one signing a solemn contract, according to the provisions of which they were to be governed. Mr. John Carver was elected governor for one year.

"Government being thus established, sixteen men, well armed, with a few others, were sent on shore the same day, to fetch wood and make discoveries; but they returned at night, without having found any person or habitation. The company, having rested on the Lord's day, disembarked on Monday, the 13th of November; and soon after proceeded to make further discovery of the country. On Wednesday, the 15th, Miles Standish and sixteen armed men, in searching for a convenient place for settlement, saw five or six Indians, whom they followed several miles, until night; but, not overtaking them, were constrained to lodge in the woods. The next day they discovered heaps of earth, one of which they dug open, but finding within implements of war, they concluded these were Indian graves; and, therefore, replacing what they had taken out, they left them inviolate. In different heaps of sand they also found baskets of corn, a quantity of which they carried away in a great kettle, found at the ruins of an Indian house. This providential discovery gave them seed for a future harvest, and preserved the infant colony from famine. Before the close of the month, Mrs. Susannah White was delivered of a son, who was called Perigrine; and this was the first child of European extraction, born in New-England.

* Dr. Parish.

“ On the 6th of December, the shallop was sent out with several of the principal men, Carver, Bradford, Winslow, Standish, and others, and eight or ten seamen, to sail round the bay, in search of a place for settlement. The next day this company was divided; and, while some travelled on shore, others coasted in the shallop. Early on the morning of the eighth, those on shore were surprised by a flight of arrows from a party of Indians; but on the discharge of the English muskets, the Indians instantly disappeared. The shallop, after imminent hazard from the loss of its rudder and mast in a storm, and from shoals, which it narrowly escaped, reached a small island on the night of the eighth; and here the company the next day, which was the last day of the week, reposed themselves, with pious gratitude for their safety. On this island they kept the Christian sabbath. The day following, they sounded the harbor, and found it fit for shipping; went on shore and explored the adjacent land, where they saw various cornfields and brooks; and judging the situation to be convenient for a settlement, they returned with the welcome intelligence to the ship.

“ On the 15th they weighed anchor, and proceeded with the ship for this newly discovered port, where they arrived on the following day. On the 18th and 19th they went on shore for discovery, but returned at night to the ship. On the morning of the 20th, after imploring Divine guidance, they went on shore again, to fix on some place for immediate settlement. After viewing the country, they concluded to settle on a high ground, facing the bay, where the land was cleared, and the water was excellent.

“ On Saturday, the 23d, as many of the company as could, with convenience, went on shore and felled and carried timber to the spot designed for the erection of a building for common use. On the Lord's day, the 24th, the people on shore were alarmed by the cry of Indians, and expected an assault; but they continued unmolested. On Monday, the 25th, they began to build the first house. A platform for their ordnance demanding their earliest attention, they began one on the 28th, on a hill, which commanded an extensive prospect of the plain beneath, of the expanding bay, and of the distant ocean.

“ In the afternoon they divided their whole company into nineteen families; measured out the ground and assigned to every person by lot half a pole in breadth, and three poles in length, for houses and gardens. Though most of the company were on board the ship on the Lord's day, Dec. 31st,

yet some of them kept sabbath for the first time in their new house. Here, therefore, is fixed the epoch of their settlement, which, in grateful remembrance of the Christian friends whom they found at the last town they left in their native country, they called *Plymouth*. This was the foundation of the first English town built in New-England.”*

Sec. 13. In November, 1620, the same month in which the puritans arrived on the American coast, James I. issued a patent granting to the Duke of Lenox, Ferdinando Gorges, and others, styling themselves “The Council of Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for planting and governing New-England, in America,” the territory between the 40th and 48th degrees of north latitude, and extending through the main land from sea to sea.

This territory had, until this time, been known by the name of North Virginia; but now it received the name of New-England, by royal authority. The patent thus issued to the Council of Plymouth, was the foundation of all the subsequent grants, under which the colonies of New-England were settled.

Sec. 14. In March, 1621, the colony of Plymouth, through Gov. Carver, entered into a league of friendship, commerce, and mutual defence, with Masassoit, the great sachem of the neighboring Indians. This treaty, which was strictly observed, until the breaking out of Philip’s war, (a period of more than fifty years,) gave general peace to the colony, and laid the foundation for their intimate and amicable correspondence with the neighboring Indian tribes.

The person chiefly instrumental in bringing this event to pass, was Samoset, a sagamore, or chief of the country, lying at the distance of about five days’ journey. He was the first visitant of the colony at Plymouth, and greatly surprised the inhabitants, by calling out as he entered their village, “Welcome, Englishmen! welcome, Englishmen!”

* Holmes’ Annals.

He had conversed with the English fishermen, who had come to the eastern coast, and had learned some of the language. He informed the colony that the place where they were settled, was called by the Indians *Patuxet*; that five years before, a plague had swept off all the natives from the place, so that there was neither man, woman, nor child remaining. Providence had thus singularly prepared the way for the colonies to take possession of the land, without molesting a single owner.

Samoset, having been treated with hospitality by these strangers, was disposed to cultivate a further acquaintance with them; and on his third visit was accompanied by Squanto, a native of the country, who had been carried away in 1614, by one Hunt, and sold into Spain, but had been taken to London, whence he had returned to America.

They informed the English that Masassoit, the greatest sachem of the neighboring Indians, was near, with a guard of sixty men. Mutual distrust prevented, for some time, any advances from either side. But Squanto, who was at length sent to Masassoit, returned, saying that the sachem wished the English to send some one to confer with him. Mr. Edward Winslow was accordingly sent, bearing suitable presents to the chief. These proving acceptable, Masassoit left Mr. Winslow in the custody of his men as a hostage, and ventured to the English, by whom he was hospitably entertained, and with whom he concluded the treaty already noticed.

Sec. 15. In 1621, the colony of Virginia received from the London company, through Sir Francis Wyat, who, at this time, arrived as governor, a more perfect constitution and form of government. The powers of this government were vested in a governor and two councils. One of these was called the council of state, to advise and assist the governor. This council was to be appointed and removed by the company. The other was called the general assembly, consisting of the council of state, and two burgesses, or representatives, deputed from each town, hundred, or plantation. This assembly met annually, and were intrusted with the business of

framing laws for the colony, the governor having a negative upon their proceedings. No laws were valid until ratified by a court of the company in England.

Sec. 16. In 1622, the Virginia colony, which for some time had enjoyed great prosperity, and had received frequent accessions, experienced a stroke which proved nearly fatal. The successor of Powhatan, who was of a proud, revengeful spirit, and extremely hostile to the colony, concerted a plan to cut them off at a blow. On the 22d of March, it was so far put in execution, that three hundred and forty-seven of the colony, men, women, and children, were butchered almost in the same instant.

The chief by whom this massacre was planned, and under whom it was executed, was Opecanough, the successor of Powhatan, but a deadly foe to the English. The whole Indian population in the surrounding country had been enlisted by this artful chief, and yet they visited the English settlements, and even purchased arms and borrowed boats, to enable them to accomplish their savage purpose.

“ On the evening before the fatal day, they brought them presents of game; and the next morning came freely among them, behaving as usual. Suddenly, precisely at mid-day, the blow fell, at the same instant, upon the unsuspecting settlers; and three hundred and forty-seven men, women, and children, were victims to savage treachery and cruelty. The massacre would have been more extensive, had not a domesticated Indian, residing in one of the villages, revealed the plot to his master, whom he had been solicited to murder. Information was instantly given to some of the nearest settlements, and just in time to save them from the calamity which fell upon the others. The horrid spectacle before them roused the English from repose to vengeance. A vindictive and exterminating war succeeded. The whites were victorious, destroying many of their enemies, and obliging the remainder to retire far into the wilderness. But their own number melted away before the miseries of war; their settlements were reduced from eighty to eight, and famine again visited them with its afflicting scourge.

In 1624, out of nine thousand persons, who had been sent from England, but eighteen hundred existed in the colony."*

Sec. 17. While the Virginians were mourning their losses, the Plymouth colony began to experience the distresses of famine. By the time their planting was finished in 1623, they were destitute of bread and corn. The most gloomy anticipations were indulged, but, by a remarkable and well attested interference of Divine Providence, they were delivered.

From the third week in May to the middle of July, there was no rain. Their corn, for which they had made their utmost exertions, withered under the heat of a scorching sun, and the greater part of it appeared irrecoverably lost. The Indians, seeing their prospects, observed that they would soon be subdued by famine, when *they* should find them an easy prey. A public fast was appointed, and observed with great solemnity. The morning and most of the day was clear and hot, but towards evening, the clouds collected, and, like the gracious influences of God, the rain descended in moderate, yet copious showers. This revived their expiring crop, and produced a plentiful harvest. After which they observed a day of public thanksgiving, the origin of the annual thanksgiving which is now observed in New-England.†

Sec. 18. In 1623, a number of persons from England were sent to America by Ferdinando Gorges, to form settlements on lands which had been granted to them by the council of Plymouth, between the Merrimac and Sagadahok, and extending from the ocean west to the rivers of Canada. These settlers arriving in the river Piscataqua, began two settlements, one at the mouth, called Little Harbour; the other still higher up the river, at Cocheco, afterwards called Dover. These were the first settlements in NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

Sec. 19. In 1624, the London Company, which

* History of United States.

† Robbins' New-England Fathers.

had settled Virginia, was dissolved by an act of King James I. under pretext of the calamities which had befallen the colony, and the dissensions which had agitated the company. Their charter was taken away, and the government of the colony assumed by the crown. The king himself appointed the governor, in whom, with twelve counsellors, the powers of government were vested.

The London Company, thus dissolved, consisted of gentlemen of noble and disinterested views, who had expended more than one hundred thousand pounds of their fortunes, in this first attempt to plant an English colony in America; and more than nine thousand persons had been sent from the mother country to people this new settlement. At the time of the dissolution of the company, scarcely two thousand persons survived.

Charles I. succeeding James I. in 1625, brought the Virginia colony more immediately under the direction of the crown. Under this administration, the colony suffered much for many years, from the severe and arbitrary restraints imposed upon it by the king, through the governor and council.

Sec. 20. It has been stated, that the lands, upon which the Plymouth colony settled, were granted by the crown to "the Council of Plymouth," in England, in November, 1620. This was the same month that the puritans had arrived in the country, (*Sec. 13.*) Being apprised of this grant, the colony, in 1626, began to take measures to purchase these lands. The negotiations for this purpose ended the next year in a patent, which the company granted them for one thousand eight hundred pounds sterling, with ample powers of government.

The government of the colony was at first formed and

conducted according to a voluntary compact, entered into before landing, (*Sec. 12.*) Till the year 1624, it consisted of a governor and one assistant only. From this period, five were annually chosen, the governor having a double vote. The number of assistants was afterwards increased to seven. The laws of the colony were enacted, and the affairs of government conducted, by these officers, for near twenty years. In 1639, the towns in this colony, for the first time, sent deputies. The colony continued distinct near seventy years, until 1691, when, by charter of William and Mary, it was united to the colony of Massachusetts, and the Province of Maine.

Sec. 21. In 1628, the foundation was laid for another colony in New-England, by the name of the *Colony of Massachusetts Bay*. At this time, several enterprising men purchased of the Council of Plymouth the territory, which constituted the above colony. The same year, the purchasers sent out Mr. John Endicot, with about a hundred adventurers, to commence a settlement. This they did at *Salem*, at that time called by the Indians, Naumkeak.

The territory included in the colony of Massachusetts Bay, extended three miles north of the Merrimac river, and three miles south of Charles river, and east and west from the Atlantic to the South Sea.

The settlement of Massachusetts Bay, like the colony of Plymouth, was commenced by non-conformists, for the purpose of enjoying greater religious liberty, in matters of worship and discipline. Among the most active in this enterprise was Mr. Endicot, already mentioned, and Mr. White, a pious and active minister of Dorchester, in England.

Sec. 22. The following year, 1629, the Massachusetts Company was confirmed by King Charles in their title to the soil; and, at the same time, received the powers of civil government. They were incorporated by the name of "the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay, in New-England." Soon after, a form of government for the

new colony was settled. Mr. Endicot, already in the colony, was appointed governor.

On the appointment of Mr. Endicot as governor, an expedition was fitted out, for the purpose of giving an impulse to the colony. Five ships were provided, which, being laden with cattle and other necessaries, sailed from England, with nearly three hundred planters, and arrived at Salem in June. They found the settlement in prosperous circumstances; yet, not being themselves pleased with the situation of Salem, two hundred of them removed, and settled at a place, which they called *Charlestown*.

Sec. 23. In the month of August of the same year, it was determined by the company in England, that the government and the patent of the plantation should be transferred from London to Massachusetts Bay. At the same time, a new election of officers for the colony took place. John Winthrop was chosen governor, and Thomas Dudley deputy governor. Soon after their appointment, they sailed with a large company, some of whom settled at Charlestown, others at Boston, and in towns adjacent.

On the arrival of Gov. Winthrop, in June, who continued from that time to his death, the head and father of the colony, he found the plantation in a distressed and suffering state. In the preceding autumn, the colony contained about three hundred inhabitants. Eighty of these had died, and a great part of the survivors were in a weak and sickly state. Their supply of corn was not sufficient for more than a fortnight, and their other provisions were nearly exhausted. In addition to these evils, they were informed, that a combination of the various tribes of Indians was forming for the utter extirpation of the colony. Their strength was weakness, but their confidence was in God, and they were not forsaken. Many of the planters, who arrived this summer, after long voyages, were in a sickly state, and disease continued to rage through the season. By the close of the year, the number of deaths exceeded two hundred. Among these were several of the principal persons in the colony. Mr. Higginson, the venerable minister of Salem, spent about a year with that parent church, and was removed to the

church in glory. His excellent colleague, Mr. Skelton, did not long survive him. Mr. Jackson, one of the assistants, and his lady, who was a great patroness of the settlement, died soon after their arrival. Of the latter, an early historian observes, "She left an earthly paradise in the family of an earldom, to encounter the sorrows of a wilderness, for the entertainments of a pure worship in the house of God; and then immediately left that wilderness for the heavenly paradise."

The succeeding winter commenced in December with great severity. Few of the houses which had been erected were comfortable, and the most of them were miserable coverings. Unused to such severities of climate, the poor people suffered severely from the cold. Many were frozen to death. The inconveniences of their accommodations increased the diseases, which continued to prevail among them. But their constancy had not yet been brought to the last trial. During the continuance of the severe season, their stock of provisions began to fail. Those who wanted were supplied by those who possessed, as long as any remained. A poor man came to the governor to complain, and was informed, that the last bread of his house was in the oven. Many subsisted upon shell-fish, ground-nuts, and acorns, which at that season could not have been procured, but with the utmost difficulty. In consideration of their perilous condition, the sixth day of February was appointed for a day of public fasting and prayer, to seek deliverance from God. On the fifth of February, the day before the appointed fast, the ship *Lion*, which had been sent to England for supplies, arrived, laden with provisions. She had a stormy passage, and rode amidst heavy drifts of ice, after entering the harbor. These provisions were distributed among the people, according to their necessities, and their appointed fast was exchanged for a day of general thanksgiving.*

Sec. 24. In 1623, Charles I. completed a patent to Cœcilius Calvert, otherwise called Lord Baltimore, which had been designed for his father, by which was conveyed to him a tract of country on the Chesapeake Bay, which, in honor of Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry the Great of France, he named MARYLAND.

* Robbins' New-England Fathers.

George Calvert, the father, having embraced the Roman Catholic religion, found his situation in England so unpleasant, that, for the sake of enjoying his religious opinions in peace, made a visit to America, and having explored the territory above mentioned, returned to England, for the purpose of procuring a patent of it. Before it was completed he died, and the patent was made out to his son, Cecil. By this patent, the latter came into possession of the country, from the Potomac to the 40th degree of north latitude. This grant covered the land which had long before been granted to Virginia, as what was now granted to Lord Baltimore was in part subsequently given to William Penn. In consequence of these arbitrary acts of the crown, long and obstinate contentions arose between the descendants of Penn and Lord Baltimore.

Sec. 25. In 1633, Lord Baltimore appointed his brother, Leonard Calvert, governor of the province, who, with about two hundred planters, mostly Roman Catholics, left England near the close of this year, and arriving in 1634, at the mouth of the river Potomac, purchased of the Indians Yoamaco, a considerable village, where they formed a settlement, to which they gave the name of St. Mary.

Sec. 26. In 1633, the first house was erected in Connecticut. This was a trading house at Windsor, the materials of which a party of Plymouth adventurers transported in a vessel up Connecticut river.

The first discoveries made of this part of New-England were of its principal river, and the fine meadows lying upon its banks. Whether the Dutch at New-Netherlands, or the people of New-Plymouth, were the first discoverers of the river, is not certain. Both the English and Dutch claimed this honor, and both purchased and made a settlement of the lands upon it, nearly at the same time.

In 1631, Waquimacut, a sachem upon the river Connecticut, made a journey to Plymouth and Boston, earnestly soliciting the governors of each of the colonies to send men to make settlements upon the river. He represented the exceeding fruitfulness of the country, and promised that he



First house erected in Connecticut. P. 72.



John Holmes passing the Dutch fort at Hartford. P. 73.



would supply the English, if they would make a settlement there, with corn annually, and give them eighty beaver skins. He urged, that two men might be sent to view the country. Had this invitation been accepted, it might have prevented the Dutch claim to any part of the lands upon the river, and opened an extensive trade, in hemp, furs, and deer skins, with all the Indians upon it, and far into Canada.

The governor of Massachusetts treated the sachem and his company with generosity, but paid no further attention to his proposal. Mr. Winslow, the governor of Plymouth, judging it worthy of attention, himself made a journey to Connecticut, discovered the river, and the lands adjacent.

Two years from this time, the people of Plymouth began to make preparations for erecting a trading-house, and establishing a small company upon the river. In the mean time, the Dutch having heard of the intended enterprise of the people of Plymouth, sent a party to the river, who erected a fort, where the city of Hartford is now situated.

Having at length prepared the frame of a house, William Holmes, who commanded the Plymouth expedition, proceeded in a vessel with his party for Connecticut. He had a commission from the governor of Plymouth, and a chosen company to accomplish his design. When he came into the river, he found that the Dutch had got in before him, made a light fort, and planted two pieces of cannon. This was erected at the place since called Hartford. The Dutch forbid Holmes going up the river, stood by their cannon, and ordered him to strike his colors, or they would fire upon him. But he was a man of spirit, assured them that he had a commission from the governor of Plymouth to go up the river, and that he must obey his orders. They poured out their threats, but he proceeded, and landing on the west side of the river, erected his house below the mouth of the little river in Windsor. The house was covered with the utmost dispatch, and fortified with palisades. The Dutch, considering them as intruders, sent, the next year, a band of seventy men to drive them from the country, but finding them strongly posted, they relinquished the design.*

Sec. 27. In the autumn of 1635, a company, consisting of sixty men, women, and children, from the settlements of Newtown and Watertown, in Massachusetts, commenced their journey

* Trumbull.

through the wilderness to Connecticut river. On their arrival, they settled at Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford.

They commenced their journey on the 15th of October. A wide wilderness spread before them. With incredible difficulty they made their way through swamps and rivers, over hills and mountains. So long were they on their journey, and so much time was spent in passing the river, and in getting over their cattle, that, after all their exertions, winter came upon them before they were prepared. This was an occasion of great distress and damage to the planters. By the 15th of November, Connecticut river was frozen over, and the snow was so deep, and the season so tempestuous, that a considerable number of the cattle, which had been driven from Massachusetts, could not be brought across the river. The people had so little time to prepare their huts and houses, and to erect sheds and shelters for their cattle, that the sufferings of man and beast were extreme. It being impracticable to transport much provision or furniture through a pathless wilderness, they were put on board several small vessels, which were either cast away or did not arrive. Several vessels were wrecked on the coasts of New-England, by the violence of the storms. Two shallops, laden with goods from Boston for Connecticut, were cast away, and the men, with every thing on board, lost. A vessel with six of the Connecticut people on board, which sailed from the river for Boston, early in November, was about the middle of the month cast away in Manamet Bay. The men got on shore, and after wandering ten days in deep snow and a severe season, without meeting any human being, arrived, nearly spent with cold and fatigue, at New-Plymouth.

About the first of December, provisions generally failed in the settlements on the river, and famine and death looked the inhabitants in the face. Some of them, driven by hunger, attempted their way, in this severe season, through the wilderness from Connecticut to Massachusetts. Of thirteen, in one company, who made this attempt, one, in passing the rivers, fell through the ice, and was drowned. The other twelve were ten days on their journey, and would all have perished, had it not been for the assistance of the Indians. Such was the general distress early in December, that a considerable part of the new settlers were obliged to abandon their habitations. Seventy persons, men, women, and chil-

dren, determined to go down the river to meet their provisions, as the only expedient to preserve their lives. Not meeting with the vessels which they expected, they all went on board the Rebecca, a vessel of about sixty tons. This, two days before, was frozen in twenty miles up the river; but by the falling of a small rain, together with the tide, the ice became so broken that she was enabled to get out. She ran, however, upon the bar, and the people were forced to unlade her to get her off. She was reladed, and in five days reached Boston.

The people who kept their stations on the river, suffered in an extreme degree. After all the help they were able to obtain, by hunting and from the Indians, they were obliged to subsist on acorns, malt, and grains. Numbers of cattle, which could not be got over the river before winter, lived through without any thing but what they found in the woods and meadows. They wintered as well, or better, than those which were brought over, and for which all the provision possible was made. However, a great number of cattle perished. The Windsor people lost in this single article about two hundred pounds sterling. Their other losses were very considerable.*

Sec. 28. During the same year, 1635, in which the above towns were settled in Connecticut, John Winthrop, son of the governor of Massachusetts, arrived from England, with a commission as governor of Connecticut, under Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brooke, to whom the council of Plymouth had sold, in March, 1631, a patent of the territory.

This patent included that part of New-England which extends from Narraganset river 120 miles on a straight line, near the shore, towards the southwest, as the coast lies towards Virginia, and within that breadth, from the Atlantic Ocean and the South Sea. This is the original patent for Connecticut.

Soon after Winthrop's arrival at Boston, he dispatched a bark of thirty tons with twenty men, to take possession of Connecticut river, and to build a fort at its mouth. This was accordingly erected, and called Saybrook fort. A few days after their arrival, a Dutch vessel, from New-Nether-

* Trumbull.

lands, appeared, to take possession of the river; but, as the English had already mounted two cannon, their landing was prevented.

The next June, 1636, the Rev. Messrs. Hooker and Stone, with a number of settlers, from Dorchester and Watertown, removed to Connecticut. With no guide but a compass, they made their way one hundred miles over mountains, through swamps and rivers. Their journey, which was on foot, lasted a fortnight, during which they lived upon the milk of their cows. They drove one hundred and sixty cattle. This party chiefly settled at Hartford. Mr. Hooker and Mr. Stone became the pastors of the church in that place, and were both eminent as men and ministers. The death of Mr. Hooker occurred in 1647. About the time of his departure, a friend, standing by, said, "Sir, you are going to receive the reward of all your labors." He replied, "Brother, I am going to receive *mercy*." Mr. Stone died in 1663.

Sec. 29. This year, 1636, Roger Williams, having been banished from the colony of Massachusetts in 1634, removed with his family to Mooshawsic, and began a plantation, which he called *Providence*. From this, we date the settlement of RHODE ISLAND.

Mr. Williams, who thus commenced the settlement of Rhode Island, came from England in 1631; and, having resided a short time at Plymouth, removed to Salem, in Massachusetts, and became the pastor of the church in that place. During his connexion with the people of Salem, he promulgated opinions which were contrary to those prevalent at that day in the colonies, and among them, "that the civil magistrate is bound to afford equal protection to every denomination of Christians." On account of this doctrine, he was sentenced to depart out of the territory. At first, he repaired to Secconk, where he procured a grant of land from the Indians. "Being informed, however, by the governor of Plymouth, that the land was within the limits of that colony, he proceeded to Mooshawsic, where, in 1636, with those friends who followed him, he began a plantation. He purchased the land of the Indians, and, in grateful acknowledgment of the kindness of heaven, he called the place *Providence*. Acting in conformity with the wise and liberal principle, for avowing and maintaining which, he had suf





Emigration of Roger Williams. P. 76.



Attack on the Pequot Fort. P. 79.

ferred banishment, he allowed entire freedom of conscience to all who came within his borders. And to him must be given the glory of having first set a practical example of the equal toleration of all religious sects, in the same political community. His labors were not confined to his civilized brethren. He labored to enlighten, improve, and conciliate the savages. He learned their language, travelled among them, and gained the entire confidence of their chiefs. He had often the happiness, by his influence over them, of saving from injury the colony which had proclaimed him an outlaw, and driven him into the wilderness."*

In 1638, William Coddington and seventeen others being persecuted for their religious tenets in Massachusetts, followed Mr. Williams to Providence. By his advice, they purchased of the Indians the island Aquetneck, and began a settlement on the northern part of it. Others followed the next summer, and commenced another settlement on the southwestern side—dividing the island into two townships, Portsmouth and Newport. They formed themselves into a body politic, and elected Mr. Coddington chief magistrate.

In 1640, the inhabitants of Providence agreed upon a form of government. Rhode Island, so called from a fancied resemblance to the ancient island of Rhodes, soon began to be extensively settled, both on account of its natural fertility, and also on account of the religious freedom allowed to all denominations.

In 1644, Roger Williams visited England, as agent of the settlers, and obtained of the Earl of Warwick, one of the Plymouth Company, a free charter of incorporation for Providence and Rhode Island plantations.

In 1663, a royal charter was granted to them, by Charles II. This charter constituted an assembly, consisting of a governor, deputy governor, and ten assistants, with the representatives from the several towns, all to be chosen by the freemen.

Sec. 30. The year 1637 is remarkable in the history of Connecticut, for the war with the Pequots, a tribe of Indians, whose principal settlement was on a hill, in the present town of Groton.

Prior to this time, the Pequots had frequently annoyed the infant colony, and in several instances had killed some of its inhabitants. In March of this year, the commander of

* History of the United States.

Saybrook fort, with twelve men, was attacked by them, and three of his party killed. In April, another portion of this tribe assaulted the people of Wethersfield, as they were going to their fields to labor, and killed six men and three women. Two girls were taken captive by them, and twenty cows were killed.

In this perilous state of the colony, a court was summoned at Hartford, May 1. After mature deliberation, it was determined that war should be commenced against the Pequots.

Ninety men, nearly half the fencible men of the colony, were ordered to be raised; forty-two from Hartford; thirty from Windsor; and eighteen from Wethersfield.

On the assembling of this force at Hartford, the Rev. Mr. Hooker, previously to their marching, addressed them in the following manner:

“Fellow-soldiers, countrymen, and companions, you are this day assembled by the special providence of God; you are not collected by wild fancy, nor ferocious passions. It is not a tumultuous assembly, whose actions are abortive, or, if successful, produce only theft, rapine, rape, and murder; crimes inconsistent with nature’s light, inconsistent with a soldier’s valor. You, my dear hearts, were selected from your neighbors, by the godly fathers of the land, for your known courage, to execute such a work.

“Your cause is the cause of heaven; the enemy have blasphemed your God, and slain his servants; you are only the ministers of his justice. I do not pretend that your enemies are careless or indifferent: no, their hatred is inflamed, their lips thirst for blood; they would devour you, and all the people of God; but, my brave soldiers, their guilt has reached the clouds; they are ripe for destruction; their cruelty is notorious; and cruelty and cowardice are always united.

“There is nothing, therefore, to prevent your certain victory, but their nimble feet, their impenetrable swamps and woods; from these your small numbers will entice them, or your courage drive them. I now put the question—Who would not fight in such a cause? fight with undaunted boldness? Do you wish for more encouragement? more I give you. Riches waken the soldier’s sword; and though you will not obtain silver and gold, on the field of victory, you will secure what is infinitely more precious; you will secure the *liberties, the privileges, and the lives of Christ’s Church, in this new world,*

“ You will procure safety for your affectionate wives, safety for your prattling, harmless, smiling babes ; you will secure all the blessings enjoyed by the people of God in the ordinances of the gospel. Distinguished was the honor conferred upon David, for fighting the battles of the Lord ; this honor, O ye courageous soldiers of God, is now prepared for you. You will now execute his vengeance on the heathen ; you will bind their kings in chains, and their nobles in fetters of iron. But perhaps some one may fear that a fatal arrow may deprive him of this honor.

“ Let every faithful soldier of Jesus Christ be assured, that if any servant be taken away, it is merely because the honors of this world are too narrow for his reward ; an everlasting crown is set upon his head ; because the rewards of this life are insufficient. March, then, with Christian courage, in the strength of the Lord ; march with faith in his divine promises, and soon your swords shall find your enemies ; soon they shall fall like leaves of the forest under your feet.”

With these troops, together with seventy river and Mohegan Indians, Capt. Mason, to whom the command of the expedition was given, dropped down the river Connecticut, to Saybrook. Here a plan of operations was formed. On the 26th of May, about the dawn of day, Capt. Mason surprised Mystic, one of the principal forts of the enemy, in the present town of Stonington. On their near approach to the fort, a dog barked, and an Indian, who now discovered them, cried out, “ O wanux ! O wanux ! ” Englishmen, Englishmen.

The troops instantly pressed forward, and fired. The destruction of the enemy soon became terrible, but they rallied at length, and made a manly resistance. After a severe and protracted conflict, Capt. Mason and his troops being nearly exhausted, and victory still doubtful, he cried out to his men, *we must burn them !*

At the same instant, seizing a firebrand, he applied it to a wigwam. The flames spread rapidly on every side ; and as the sun rose upon the scene, it showed the work of destruction to be complete. Seventy wigwams were in ruins, and between five and six hundred Indians lay bleeding on the ground, or smouldering in the ashes.

But, though the victory was complete, the troops were now in great distress. Besides two killed, sixteen of their number were wounded. Their surgeon, medicines, and provisions, were on board some vessels, on their way to Pequot harbor, now New-London. While consulting what

should be done in this emergency, how great was their joy to descry their vessels standing directly towards the harbor, under a prosperous wind!

Soon after, a detachment of nearly two hundred men, from Massachusetts and Plymouth, arrived to assist Connecticut in prosecuting the war.

Sassacus, the great sachem of the Pequots, and his warriors, were so appalled at the destruction of Mystic, that they fled towards Hudson's river. The troops pursued them as far as a great swamp, in Fairfield, where another action took place, in which the Indians were entirely vanquished.

This was followed by a treaty with the remaining Pequots, about two hundred in number, agreeably to which they were divided among the Narragansetts and Mohegans.

Thus terminated a conflict, which, for a time, was eminently distressing to the colonies. This event of peace was celebrated throughout New-England, by a day of thanksgiving and praise.

Sec. 31. The expedition against the Pequots made the English acquainted with Quinnapiak, or *New-Haven*; and the next year, 1638, led to the settlement of that town. This, and the adjoining towns, soon after settled, went by the name of the COLONY OF NEW-HAVEN.

Among the founders of this colony, which was the fourth in New-England, was Mr. John Davenport, for some time a distinguished minister in London. To avoid the indignation of the persecuting Archbishop Laud, in 1633, he fled to Holland. Hearing, while in exile, of the prosperity of the New-England settlements, he meditated a removal to America. On his return to England, Mr. Theophilus Eaton, an eminent merchant in London, with Mr. Hopkins, afterwards governor of Connecticut, and several others, determined to accompany him. They arrived in Boston in June, 1637.

This company were inclined to commence a new plantation, and lay the foundation of a separate colony. Though the most advantageous offers were made them by the government of Massachusetts, to choose any place within their jurisdiction, they preferred a place without the limits of the existing colonies. They accordingly fixed upon New-Haven for the place of their future habitation, and on the 8th of April, they kept their first sabbath in the place,

under a large oak tree, where Mr. Davenport preached to them.

Sec. 32. The following year, January 14, 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield, finding themselves without the limits of the Massachusetts patent, met, and formed themselves into a distinct commonwealth, and adopted a constitution.

This constitution, which has been much admired, and which, for more than a century and a half, underwent little alteration, ordained that there should annually be two general assemblies, one in April, the other in September. In April, the officers of government were to be elected by the freemen, and to consist of a governor, deputy governor, and five or six assistants. The towns were to send deputies to the general assemblies. Under this constitution, the first governor was John Haynes, and Roger Ludlow the first deputy governor.

Sec. 33. The example of the colony of Connecticut, in forming a constitution, was followed the next June, by the colony of New-Haven. Both constitutions were essentially alike.

In October following the government was organized, when Mr. Eaton was chosen governor. To this office he was annually elected, till his death, in 1657. No one of the New-England colonies was so much distinguished for good order and internal tranquillity, as the colony of New-Haven. Her principal men were distinguished for their wisdom and integrity, and directed the affairs of the colony with so much prudence, that she was seldom disturbed by divisions within, or by aggressions from the Indians from without.

Having been bred to mercantile employments, the first settlers were inclined to engage in the pursuits of commerce. With this view, they fixed their settlement at a port selected for that purpose. In these pursuits, they sustained many severe losses; particularly in the loss of a new ship, of 150 tons, freighted with a valuable cargo, and manned with seamen and passengers from many of the best families in the colony, which foundered at sea, in the year 1647. This severe loss discouraged, for a time, their commercial pursuits,

and engaged their attention more particularly in the employments of agriculture.

Sec. 34. This same year, 1639, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained of the crown a distinct charter, in confirmation of his own grant (*Sec. 18*) of all the lands from Piscataqua to Sagadahoc, styled the PROVINCE OF MAINE. He formed a system of government for the province, and incorporated a city near the mountain Agamenticus, in York, by the name of Georgeana; but neither the province nor city flourished. In 1652, the province was taken under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, by the request of the people of Maine.

It would exceed our limits to examine the different grants of territory, which were made at different times, of the state of Maine. In 1652, at the time the province was taken under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, it was made a county by the name of Yorkshire. It had the privilege of sending deputies to the general court at Boston. Massachusetts laid claim to the province, as lying within her charter of 1628, and, after various controversies, the territory was incorporated with her in 1691. In 1786, 1787, 1802, and 1816, efforts were made by a portion of the people of Maine to become separate from Massachusetts proper, but to this a majority of the inhabitants were averse. In 1818, however, this measure was effected; and, on the 3d of March, 1820, the district of Maine, by an act of congress, became an independent state.

Sec. 35. The next event of importance in our history, is the union of the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New-Haven, by the name of THE UNITED COLONIES OF NEW-ENGLAND. The articles of this confederation, which had been agitated for three years, were signed May 19th, 1643.

To this union the colonies were strongly urged, by a sense of common danger from the Indians, (a general combination of whom was expected,)

and by the claims and encroachments of the Dutch, at Manhattan, New-York.

By these articles of union, each colony retained its distinct and separate government. No two colonies might be united into one, nor any colony be received into the confederacy, without the consent of the whole. Each colony was to elect two commissioners, who should meet annually, and at other times, if necessary, and should determine "all affairs of war and peace, of leagues, aids, charges, and numbers of men for war," &c. Upon notice that any colony was invaded, the rest were immediately to dispatch assistance.

This union subsisted more than forty years, until the charters of the colonies were either taken away, or suspended, by James II. and his commissioners.

In 1643, Rhode Island petitioned to be admitted to this confederacy, but was denied, unless she would be incorporated with Plymouth, and lose her separate existence. This she refused, and was consequently excluded.

The effects of this union on the New-England colonies were, in a high degree, salutary. On the completion of it, several Indian sachems, among whom were the chiefs of the Narraganset and Mohegan tribes, came in, and submitted to the English government. The colonies also became formidable, by means of it, to the Dutch. This union was also made subservient to the civil and religious improvement of the Indians.

Prior to this period, Mr. Mayhew and the devoted Elliot had made considerable progress towards civilizing the Indians, and converting them to christianity. They had learned the Indian language, and had preached to the Indians in their own tongue.

Upon a report in England of what these men had done, a society was formed for propagating the gospel among the Indians, which sent over books, money, &c. to be distributed by the Commissioners of the United Colonies.

The Indians at first made a great opposition to christianity; and such was their aversion to it, that had they not been overawed by the United Colonies, it is probable they would have put to death those among them who embraced it. Such, however, were the ardor, energy, and ability, of Messrs. Mayhew and Elliot, aided by the countenance and support of government, and blessed by Providence, that, in 1660, there were ten towns of converted Indians in Massachusetts. In 1695, there were not less than three thousand

adult Indian converts in the islands of Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket.

Sec. 36. 1662. The colony of Connecticut, having petitioned King Charles II. through Governor Winthrop, for a charter of incorporation, his majesty granted their request, and issued his letters patent, April 2d, constituting them a body corporate and politic, by the name of *The Governor and Company of the English Colony of Connecticut, in New-England, in America.*

The territory granted to Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brooke, in 1631 and confirmed by this charter to Connecticut, was bounded east by Narraganset river; south by Long Island sound; north by Massachusetts; and extended west to the Pacific Ocean.

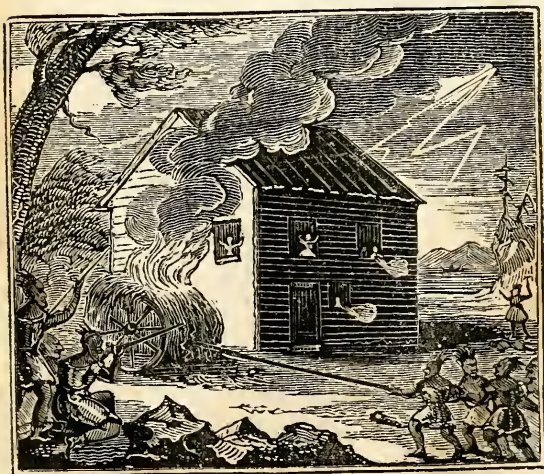
The charter of Connecticut ordained that there should be a governor, deputy governor, and twelve assistants, to be chosen annually. The charter instituted two general assemblies for each year, to consist of the above officers, and deputies from the towns; the former to compose the upper, and the deputies the lower house. The government under the charter was essentially the same with that which the people had themselves adopted, in 1639, and continued to be the constitution of the colony and state of Connecticut, until the year 1818.

This charter included the colony of New-Haven; but not being agreeable to that colony, it did not unite with Connecticut, until two years after. The granting of a charter to Connecticut was followed the next year, 1663, by a similar grant to Rhode Island and Providence plantations, as already noticed.

Sec. 37. In 1664, Charles II. granted to his brother, the Duke of York and Albany, the territory included in the several colonies of New-York, New-Jersey, and Delaware. The same year the latter dispatched an expedition, under command of Col. Richard Nichols, to the Dutch colony at Manhattan, which had for many years denied the right of the English to control it. This expedition arrived at Manhattan in August



Surrender of the Dutch at Manhattan. P. 85.



Indians attacking the house at Brookfield. P 91.

of this year, and demanded a surrender of the territory to his English majesty. The Dutch governor, being unprepared for defence, complied with the demand, and the whole country passed into the hands of the English. In honor of the duke, the two principal Dutch settlements were now named New-York and Albany.

The first settlement of the Dutch at Manhattan, in 1613, and their surrender to the English, the same year, have already been noticed, (*Sec. 9.*) Soon after, however, they revolted, and the claims of the English being neglected, they continued to manage for themselves, until the above year, 1664.

On entering the harbor, Stuyvesant, the Dutch governor, sent a letter to Nichols, to desire the reason of his approach. To this letter, Nichols replied, the next day, by a summons to surrender. Stuyvesant, determining on a defence, refused to surrender; but, at length, finding himself without the means of resistance, and that many of the people were desirous of passing under the jurisdiction of the English, he surrendered the government into the hands of Col. Nichols, who promised to secure to the governor and inhabitants their liberties and estates, with all the privileges of English subjects. The administration of Nichols continued for three years, and was marked by great integrity and moderation. Upon his return to England, in 1667, he was succeeded by Col. Lovelace, who administered the government with equal moderation.

Sec. 38. A short time previous to the surrender of the Dutch, the Duke of York conveyed to Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, the territory of New-Jersey. This name was given it in compliment to Carteret, who had been governor of the Isle of Jersey, in the English channel. Soon after the grant, but before it was known, three persons from Long Island purchased of the natives a tract, which was called Elizabethtown grant, and a settlement was begun at Elizabeth town. Other towns were soon settled by emigrants from the colonies and from Europe. **IR**

consequence of these opposite claims to the territory, much discord prevailed between the proprietors and the inhabitants.

The first settlement within the limits of New-Jersey was made by the Danes, about the year 1624, at a place called Bergen. Some Dutch families also, about the same time, planted themselves on the Jersey side, near New-York. In 1626, a colony of Swedes and Finns purchased land on both sides of the river Delaware, and formed a settlement on its western bank. In 1640, the English began a plantation at Elsingburgh, on its eastern bank. But this was soon after broken up by the Swedes, with the assistance of the Dutch from Manhattan. From this time, until 1655, the Swedes held possession of the country on both sides of the Delaware, when the Dutch governor, Stuyvesant, subdued them. The Dutch now held possession until 1664, when the territory passed into the hands of the English.

Sec. 39. The next year, 1665, Philip Carteret, who had been appointed governor by the proprietors, arrived at Elizabethtown, which he made the seat of government. He administered the government according to a constitution, which the proprietors had formed.

This constitution ordained a free assembly, consisting of a governor, council, and representatives, the latter to be chosen by each town. The legislative power resided in the assembly; the executive, in the governor and council.

Sec. 40. DELAWARE was also included in the grant to the Duke of York. At this time, it was in the hands of the Dutch, but an expedition was sent against it under Sir Robert Carr, to whom it surrendered, Oct. 1, 1664, soon after which, it was put under the authority of the English governor of New-York.

Delaware was first settled in 1627, by a number of Swedes and Finns, who, at the instance of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, emigrated to America. They landed at Cape Henlopen, which, on account of its beauty, they called Paradise Point; the Delaware they named Swedeland Stream.

The Dutch at New-Netherlands laid claim, however, to the territory, and mutual contests subsisted for a long time between them and the Swedes. After several times changing masters, the territory finally surrendered to the Dutch, who held possession of it at the time of the English expedition against it under Carr, in 1664. It was now considered a part of New-York. In 1682, however, the Duke of York sold the town of New Castle, and the country twelve miles around it, to William Penn, and some time after the territory between New Castle and Cape Henlopen. These tracts, then known by the name of "Territories," constitute the present state of Delaware. Until 1703, they were governed as a part of Pennsylvania; but, at this time, they had liberty from the proprietor to form a separate and distinct assembly.

Sec. 41. After the reduction of New-York by Col. Nichols, (*Sec. 37,*) he, with Sir Robert Carr, George Cartwright, and Samuel Maverick, proceeded to New-England, under a commission from King Charles, "to hear and determine complaints and appeals, in all causes, as well military as criminal and civil," within New-England, and to proceed in all things for settling the peace and security of the country.

The conduct of these commissioners was exceedingly arbitrary and offensive to the colonies. Under pretext of executing their commission, they received complaints against the colonies from the Indians; required persons, against the consent of the people, to be admitted to the privileges of freemen, to church membership, and full communion; heard and decided in causes which had already been determined by the established courts; and gave protection to criminals. After involving the colonies in great embarrassment and expense, they were at length recalled, and the country saved from impending ruin.

Sec. 42. In the year 1663, the tract of country extending from the 36th degree of north latitude

to the river St. Matheo, was erected into a province by the name of CAROLINA, so called in honor of Charles IX., king of France, under whose patronage the coast had been discovered in 1563.

This tract was conveyed, by charter of Charles II., king of England, at this time, to Lord Clarendon, and seven others, who were made absolute proprietors of the territory, and invested with ample powers to settle and govern it. Two years after, the charter was confirmed and enlarged, so as to embrace the whole territory, now divided into the two Carolinas, Georgia, and the Floridas.

As early as 1650, a settlement was begun in Albemarle county, by planters from Virginia, and emigrants from other places. This settlement was placed by the proprietors under the superintendence of Sir William Berkley, governor of Virginia, who was instructed to visit it, and to appoint a governor and council of six for it.

The attention of the proprietors was next turned to the country south of Cape Fear, which they erected into a county by the name of Clarendon. This county was settled in 1665, by emigrants from the island of Barbadoes. Sir John Yeamans, who was from that island, was appointed governor, and a separate government granted, similar to that of Albemarle.

In 1669, another settlement was made still further south, at Port Royal, under the direction of William Sayle, who was appointed the first governor. The name of this county was Carteret. Thus three distinct governments were formed in Carolina.

In 1671, Gov. Sayle, dissatisfied with the situation of Port Royal, removed to the northward, and took possession of a neck of land between Ashley and Cooper's river. Here was laid the foundation of a town called Charlestown. Nine years after, however, the inhabitants removed to "the Oyster Point," where Charleston, the present capital of South Carolina, was begun. The place which they left went by the name of "the Old Town."

In consequence of the unhealthiness of the climate, Governor Sayle died shortly after his removal to Old Charleston, upon which this colony was annexed to the government

of that of Clarendon, under Governor Yeamans, and the three governments were reduced to two.

During the administration of Governor Sayle, a constitution, prepared, at the request of the proprietors, by the celebrated Mr. Locke, was attempted to be put in force.

By this constitution, a president of a palatine court, to consist of the proprietors, was to be chosen for life. An hereditary nobility was to be established, consisting of land-graves and caciques. A parliament, chosen once in two years, was to be held, consisting of the proprietors, of the nobility, and of representatives from each district. All were to meet in one apartment, and to have an equal voice. No business, however, could be proposed in parliament, until it had been debated in a grand council, to consist of the governor, nobility, and deputies of proprietors.

This constitution it was found impossible to reduce to practice. Great opposition was made to it; and in Albemarle an insurrection was occasioned by an attempt to enforce it. It was therefore at length abandoned, and the former proprietary government restored. This latter sort of government continued from 1669 to 1729, when the proprietors surrendered their title and interest to the king of England. The province was now divided into North and South Carolina, and their governors and councils were appointed by the crown.

Sec. 43. This year, 1675, began the memorable war in New-England, with the Indians, called *King Philip's war*; by which the peace of the colonies was greatly disturbed, and their existence for a time seriously endangered.

For several years previous to the opening of the war, the Indians had regarded the English with increasing jealousy. They saw them growing in numbers, and rapidly extending their settlements. At the same time, their own hunting grounds were visibly narrowing, and their power and privileges sensibly decreasing. The prospect before them, was humbling to the haughty descendants of the original lords of the soil.

The principal exciter of the Indians, at this time, against the English, was Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, grandson and successor of Masassoit, who, fifty years before, had made a treaty with the colony of Plymouth. Philip's residence was at Mount Hope, Bristol, Rhode Island.

The immediate cause of the war was the execution of three Indians by the English, whom Philip had excited to murder one Sausaman, an Indian missionary. Sausaman, being friendly to the English, had informed them that Philip, with several tribes, was plotting their destruction.

The execution of these Indians roused the anger of Philip, who immediately armed his men, and commenced hostilities. Their first attack was made June 24th, upon the people of Swanzey, in Plymouth colony, as they were returning home from public worship, on a day of humiliation and prayer, under the apprehension of the approaching war. Eight or nine persons were killed.

The country was immediately alarmed, and the troops of the colony flew to the defence of Swanzey. On the 28th, a company of horse and a company of foot, with one hundred and ten volunteers from Boston, joined the Plymouth forces at Swanzey. The next morning an attack was made upon some of Philip's men, who were pursued, and five or six of them killed. This resolute conduct of the English made a deep impression on the enemy. Philip, with his forces, left Mount Hope the same night—marking his route, however, with the burning of houses, and the scalping of the defenceless inhabitants.

It being known that the Narragansets favored the cause of Philip, he having sent his women and children to them for protection, the Massachusetts forces, under Capt. Hutchinson, proceeded forthwith into their country, either to renew a treaty with them, or to give them battle. Fortunately, a treaty was concluded, and the troops returned.

On the 17th of July, news arrived that Philip, with his warriors, was in a swamp at Pocasset, now Tiverton. The Massachusetts and Plymouth forces immediately marched to that place, and the next day resolutely charged the enemy in their recesses. As the troops entered the swamp, the Indians continued to retire. The English in vain pursued, till the approach of night, when the commander ordered a retreat. Many of the English were killed, and the enemy seemed to take courage.

It being impossible to encounter the Indians with advantage in the swamps, it was determined to starve them out; but Philip, apprehending their design, contrived to escape with his forces.

He now fled to the Nipmucks, a tribe in Worcester county, Massachusetts, whom he induced to assist him. This tribe had already commenced hostilities against the

English; but, in the hope of reclaiming them, the governor and council sent Captains Wheeler and Hutchinson to treat with them. But the Indians, having intimation of their coming, lurked in ambush for them, fired upon them as they approached, killed eight men, and mortally wounded eight more, of whom Capt. Hutchinson was one.

The remainder of the English fled to Quaboag, Brookfield. The Indians, however, closely pursued them into the town, and burnt every house excepting one, in which the inhabitants had taken refuge. This house at length they surrounded. "For two days they continued to pour a storm of musket balls upon it, and although countless numbers pierced through the walls, but one person was killed. With long poles, they next thrust against it brands and rags dipped in brimstone; they shot arrows of fire; they loaded a cart with flax and tow, and with long poles fastened together, they pushed it against the house. Destruction seemed inevitable. The house was kindling, and the savages stood ready to destroy the first that should open the door to escape. At this awful moment, a torrent of rain descended, and suddenly extinguished the kindling flames."

August 4th, Major Willard came to their relief, raised the siege, and destroyed a considerable number of the assailants.

During the month of September, Hadley, Deerfield, and Northfield, on Connecticut river, were attacked; several of the inhabitants were killed, and many buildings consumed. On the 18th, Capt. Lathrop, with several teams, and eighty young men, the flower of the county of Essex, were sent to Deerfield to transport a quantity of grain to Hadley. On their return, stopping to gather grapes at Muddy Brook, they were suddenly attacked by near eight hundred Indians. Resistance was in vain, and seventy of these young men fell before the merciless enemy, and were buried in one grave. Capt. Mosely, who was at Deerfield, hearing the report of the guns, hastened to the spot, and, with a few men, attacked the Indians, killed ninety-six, and wounded forty, losing himself but two men.

Early in October, the Springfield Indians, who had hitherto been friendly to the English, concerted a plan, with the hostile tribes, to burn that town. Having, under cover of night, received two or three hundred of Philip's men into their fort, with the assistance of these, they set fire to the town. The plot, however, was discovered so seasonably, that troops arrived from Westfield in time to save the town, excepting thirty-two houses, already consumed.

Soon after hostilities were commenced by Philip, the Tarrenteens began their depredations in New-Hampshire, and the Province of Maine. They robbed the boats and plundered the houses of the English. In September, they fell on Saco, Scarborough, and Kittery, killed between twenty and thirty of the inhabitants, and consigned their houses, barns, and mills, to the flames.

Elated with these successes, they next advanced towards Piscataqua, committing the same outrages at Oyster river, Salmon Falls, Dover, and Exeter. Before winter, sixty of the English, in that quarter, were killed, and nearly as many buildings consumed.

The Indians in those parts, however, had real ground of complaint. Some seamen, hearing it reported that Indian children could swim by instinct, overset the canoe of Squando, sachem of the Saco Indians, in which were his squaw and infant child. This act Squando could not overlook, especially as some time after the child died, and, as the sachem believed, on account of some injury that it then received. Besides this, several Indians had been enticed on board a vessel, carried off, and sold into slavery. To redress these wrongs, the Indians commenced hostilities.

Notwithstanding the Narragansets had pledged themselves by their treaty, not to engage in the war against the English, it was discovered that they were taking part with the enemy. It was deemed necessary, therefore, for the safety of the colonies, early to check that powerful tribe.

Accordingly, Gov. Winslow, of Plymouth, with about one thousand eight hundred troops from Massachusetts and Connecticut, and one hundred and sixty friendly Indians, commenced their march from Pettysquamscot, on the 19th of December, 1675, through a deep snow, towards the enemy, who were in a swamp about fifteen miles distant.

The army arrived at the swamp at one in the afternoon. Some Indians at the edge of the swamp were fired upon, but fled. The whole army now entered and pursued the Indians to their fortress.

This stood on a rising ground, in the middle of the swamp. It was a work of great strength and labor, being composed of palisades, and surrounded by a hedge about sixteen feet in thickness.

One entrance only led to the fort, through the surrounding thicket. Upon this the English providentially fell; and without waiting to form, rushed impetuously towards the fort. The English captains entered first. The resist-

ance of the Indians was gallant and warlike. Captains Johnson and Davenport, with many of their men, fell at the entrance. At length, the English gave back, and were obliged to retreat out of the fort,

At this crisis, the army being on the point of a fatal repulse, some Connecticut men, on the opposite side of the fort, discovered a place destitute of palisades; they instantly sprang into the fort, fell upon the rear of the Indians, and, aided by the rest of the army, after a desperate conflict, achieved a complete victory. Six hundred wigwams were now set on fire. The scene was awful. Deep volumes of smoke rolled up to heaven, mingling with the dying shrieks of mothers and infants, while the aged and infirm were consuming in the flames.

Even at this distant period, we cannot recall this scene without pain, and can justify this severity of our ancestors, only by admitting its necessity for self-preservation.

The Indians in the fort were estimated at four thousand; of these, seven hundred warriors were killed, and three hundred died of their wounds; three hundred were taken prisoners, and as many women and children. The rest, except such as were consumed, fled.

The victory of the English, complete as it was, was purchased with blood. Six brave captains fell; eighty of the troops were killed or mortally wounded; and one hundred and fifty were wounded, who recovered.

From this defeat, the Indians never recovered. They were not yet, however, effectually subdued. During the winter, they still continued to murder and burn. The towns of Lancaster, Medfield, Weymouth, Groton, Springfield, Northampton, Sudbury, and Marlborough, in Massachusetts, and of Warwick and Providence, in Rhode Island, were assaulted, and some of them partly, and others wholly, destroyed. In March, Captain Pierce, with fifty English, and twenty friendly Indians, were attacked, and every Englishman, and most of the Indians, were slain. In April, Capt. Wadsworth, marching with fifty men to the relief of Sudbury, was surrounded, and all either killed on the spot, or reserved for long and distressing tortures.

The success of the Indians, during the winter, had been great; but on the return of spring the tide turned against them. The Narraganset country was scoured, and many of the natives were killed, among whom was Canonchet, their chief sachem.

On the 12th of August, 1676, the finishing stroke was

given to the war in the United Colonies, by the death of Philip. After his flight from Mount Hope, he had attempted to rouse the Mohawks against the English. To effect his purpose, he killed, at several times, some of that tribe, and laid it to the English. But his iniquity was discovered, and he was obliged hastily to flee. He returned at length to Mount Hope.

Tidings of his return were brought to Captain Church, a man who had been of eminent service in this war, and who was better able than any other person to provide against the wiles of the enemy. Capt. Church immediately proceeded to the place of Philip's concealment, near Mount Hope, accompanied by a small body of men. On his arrival, which was in the night, he placed his men in ambushes round the swamp, charging them not to move till daylight, that they might distinguish Philip, should he attempt to escape. Such was his confidence of success, that taking Major Sandford by the hand, he said, "It is scarcely possible that Philip should escape." At that instant, a bullet whistled over their heads, and a volley followed.

The firing proceeded from Philip and his men, who were in view. Perceiving his peril, the savage chief desperately snatched his powder horn and gun, and ran fiercely towards the spot where an Englishman and Indian lay concealed. The Englishman levelled his gun, but it missed fire: the Indian fired, and shot Philip through the heart.

Capt. Church ordered him to be beheaded, and quartered. The Indian who executed this order, pronounced the warrior's epitaph: "You have been one very great man. You have made many a man afraid of you. But so big as you be, I will now chop you to pieces."

Thus fell a savage hero and patriot—of whose transcendent abilities our history furnishes melancholy evidence. The advantage of civilized education, and a wider theatre of action, might have made the name of Philip of Mount Hope, as memorable as that of Alexander, or Cesar.

After the death of Philip, the war continued in the province of Maine, till the spring of 1678. But westward, the Indians having lost their chiefs, wigwams, and provisions, and perceiving further contest vain, came in singly, by tens, and hundreds, and submitted to the English.

Thus closed a melancholy period in the annals of New-England history; during which, six hundred men, the flower of her strength, had fallen; twelve or thirteen towns had been destroyed, and six hundred dwelling houses con-

sumed. Every eleventh family was houseless, and every eleventh soldier had sunk to his grave. So costly was the inheritance which our fathers have transmitted to us.

Sec. 44. The grant of the territory of New-York, by Charles II., to his brother the Duke of York, in 1664, has already been noticed, (*Sec. 37,*) as also its capture from the Dutch, the same year. In 1673, a war commencing between England and Holland, the latter sent a small fleet to New-York, and the town immediately surrendered.

The following year, 1674, the war terminated, and a treaty was concluded between England and Holland. By this treaty New-York was restored to the English. To prevent controversy about his title to the territory, the Duke of York took out a new patent, and appointed Sir Edmund Andross governor, who entered upon the duties of his appointment, in October of the same year.

The administration of Andross, however, was arbitrary and severe. He admitted the people to no share in legislation, but ruled them by laws, to which they had never given their assent.

Connecticut also experienced the weight of his oppression and despotism. That part of her territory west of Connecticut river, although long before granted to the colony of Connecticut, was included in the grant to the Duke of York. By virtue of this grant, Andross now claimed jurisdiction over the territory, and in July, 1675, made an attempt with an armed force to take possession of Saybrook Fort.

The governor and council of Connecticut, having notice of his coming, sent Capt. Bull to defend the fort. On the arrival of Andross at the mouth of the river, after making a show of force, he invited Capt. Bull to a conference. This was granted; but no sooner had he landed, than he attempted to read his commission, and the duke's patent. This Capt. Bull firmly and positively forbid, and Sir Edmund, finding the colony determined, at all events, not to submit to his government, relinquished his design, and sailed for Long Island.

Sec. 45. But the colonies had other troubles to experience, and other enemies to combat. In 1676, while the Indian war was still going on, complaints were made in England against the colonies, for violating the acts of trade. These acts imposed oppressive customs upon certain commodities, if imported from any country besides England, or if transported from one colony to another. The acts were considered by the colonies as unjust, impolitic, and cruel. For several years they paid little attention to them, and his majesty at length required, that agents should be sent to England to answer in behalf of the colonies for these violations.

By the acts of trade, none of the colonies suffered more than Virginia and Maryland, their operation being greatly to lessen the profits on their tobacco trade, from which a great portion of their wealth was derived. In addition to these sufferings, the colony of Virginia, in violation of chartered rights, was divided, and conveyed away in proprietary grants. Not only uncultivated woodlands were thus conveyed, but also plantations, which had long been possessed, and improved according to law and charter.

The Virginians complained, petitioned, remonstrated—but without effect. Agents were sent to England, to lay their grievances at the foot of the throne, but agents were unsuccessful. At length, their oppression became insupportable, and the discontent of the people broke out into open insurrection.

At the head of this insurrection was placed one Nathaniel Bacon, an Englishman, who, soon after his arrival, had been appointed a member of the council. He was a young man of commanding person, and great energy and enterprise.

The colony, at this time, was engaged in war with the Susquehannah Indians. Bacon despatched a messenger to Governor Berkley, requesting a commission to go against the Indians. This commission the governor refused, and, at the same time, ordered Bacon to dismiss his men, and, on penalty of being declared a rebel, to appear before himself and the council. Exasperated by such treatment, Bacon, without disbanding the rest of his men, proceeded in a sloop with forty of them, to Jamestown. Here a quarrel ensued, and Berkley illegally suspended him from the council. Bacon departed in a rage, with his sloop and men, but the governor pursued him, and adopted such measures that he was taken, and brought to Jamestown.

Finding that he had dismissed Bacon from the council illegally, he now admitted him again, and treated him kindly. Soon after, Bacon renewed his importunity for a commission against the Indians. Being unable to effect his purpose, he left Jamestown privately, but soon appeared again with six hundred volunteers, and demanded of the assembly, then sitting, the required commission. Being overawed, the assembly advised the governor to grant it. But soon after Bacon had departed, the governor, by the same advice, issued a proclamation, denouncing him as a rebel.

Hearing what the governor had done, Bacon, instead of marching against the Indians, returned to Jamestown, wreaking his vengeance upon all who opposed him. Governor Berkley fled across the bay to Accomack, but the spirit of rebellion had gone before him. He therefore found himself unable to resist Bacon, who now ranged the country at pleasure.

At length, the governor, with a small force, under command of Major Robert Beverly, crossed the bay to oppose the malecontents. Civil war had now commenced. Jamestown was burnt by Bacon's followers; various parts of the colony were pillaged, and the wives of those that adhered to the governor's party were carried to the camp of the insurgents.

In the midst of these commotions, it pleased the Supreme Ruler to withdraw Bacon by a natural death. The malecontents, thus left to recover their reason, now began to disperse. Two of Bacon's generals surrendered, and were pardoned, and the people quietly returned to their homes.

Upon this, Berkley resumed the government, and peace was restored. This rebellion formed an era of some note

in the history of Virginia, and its unhappy effects were felt for thirty years. During its continuance, husbandry was almost entirely neglected, and such havock was made among all kinds of cattle, that the people were threatened with distressing famine. Sir William Berkley, after having been forty years governor of Virginia, returned to England, where he soon after died.

Three years after, 1679, Lord Culpepper was sent over as governor, with certain laws prepared in conformity to the wishes of the ministry of England, and designed to be enacted by the assembly in Virginia. One of those laws provided for raising a revenue for the support of government. It made the duties perpetual, and placed them under the direction of his majesty. Out of the duties, Culpepper dishonestly took as his salary, two thousand pounds, and one hundred and sixty more for house rent.

On presenting these laws to the assembly, Culpepper informed them that in case they were passed, he had instructions to offer pardon to all who had been concerned in Bacon's rebellion; but if not, he had commissions to try and hang them as rebels, and a regiment of soldiers on the spot to support him. The assembly, thus threatened, passed the laws.

Sec. 46. In the year 1676, the province of New-Jersey was divided into East and West Jersey, and continued thus divided until 1702, when the proprietors surrendered the government to the crown, under Queen Anne, upon which, the two provinces were united into one.

The two proprietors of New-Jersey were Lord Berkley, and Sir George Carteret. In 1674, Lord Berkley made a conveyance of his half to John Fenwick, in trust for Edward Billinge, and his assigns. Billinge, being in debt, presented his interest in the province to his creditors, William Jones, and others, being appointed trustees to dispose of the lands.

In the division which thus took place, Carteret took East Jersey, the government of which he retained; and the trustees of Billinge, West Jersey. The Duke of York, though he had conveyed away his powers of government, when he sold the province to Berkley and Carteret, in 1664, unjustly claimed West Jersey, as a dependency of New-york.

Until 1680, this dependency was maintained, when the Duke of York, after much solicitation, relinquished his claim, and restored to the proprietors the right granted by his patent of 1664. In 1682, Carteret, disgusted with the people, sold his right to East Jersey to William Penn, and others, who immediately sold one half of it to the Earl of Perth, and his associates. Robert Barclay, the celebrated author of "the Apology for the Quakers," was the next year made governor of East Jersey.

In 1685, both the Jerseys and New-York were annexed to New-England, and continued so till the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, in 1689. "A government under the proprietors of both the Jerseys, had become extremely disagreeable to the inhabitants; who, from various causes, become so uneasy, that the proprietors surrendered the government of East and West Jersey to the crown in 1702, which Queen Anne very readily accepted."

"The two provinces were now united into one, and Lord Cornbury was appointed governor over the united colony, and received his commission and instructions from the queen.

"The freemen chose the house of representatives, consisting of twenty-four members, but the governor and council, consisting of twelve members, were appointed by the crown. New-York and New-Jersey had, till the year 1738, a common governor; but at this time a separate governor was appointed over the latter province."

Sec. 47. In 1677, a controversy which had subsisted for some time between the colony of Massachusetts and the heirs of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, relative to the province of Maine, was settled in England, and the colony adjudged to Gorges' heirs. Upon this, Massachusetts purchased the title for one thousand two hundred pounds sterling, and the territory from that time till 1820, was a part of Massachusetts.

Both the colony of Massachusetts, and the heirs of Gorges, claimed the province of Maine; the former by virtue of her patent of 1628, (*Sec. 21.*) which was construed as including that territory; the claim of the latter was founded upon a charter granted to Gorges, in 1639. (*Sec. 34.*)

Sec. 48. Two years after this adjustment, viz, in 1679, a commission was made out, by order of Charles II., for the separation of New-Hampshire from the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and its erection into a royal province. The form of government sent over by the king, ordained a president and council to govern the province, with an assembly, &c. The assembly to be chosen by the people; the president and council to be appointed by the crown.

In 1629, the Plymouth company granted to John Mason the territory called New-Hampshire. About the year 1640, the settlements now being considerable, the patent holders agreed to assign their right of jurisdiction to Massachusetts. The colony of New-Hampshire, therefore, remained under the government of Massachusetts, until it was separated by the king's commission, in 1679.

The first legislative assembly, under the above commission, was convened March 16, 1680, when the colony of New-Hampshire was declared to be independent of Massachusetts. This separation, however, was disagreeable to most of the people; for near forty years they had enjoyed under Massachusetts the privilege of choosing their own rulers, and had derived great peace and harmony from an impartial government. Nor did this province long enjoy tranquillity. Mason, grandson of the Mason to whom New-Hampshire had been originally granted, came over the next year, and demanded, by virtue of his claims to the soil, a seat in the council. This being granted, he soon after returned to England, and surrendered a part of his claims to the king, and mortgaged the remainder to Edward Cranfield, who was appointed lieutenant governor, and shortly after repaired to New-Hampshire.

It is necessary to add, that the Rev. Mr. Wheelright and others, in 1629, the same year that the grant was made to *Mason* by the Plymouth company, bought of the Indians a large tract of land in New-Hampshire. The same land was, therefore, claimed under both these grants, and the foundation thus laid of serious disputes in the colony.

Cranfield, finding it for his interest to favor the claim of Mason to the province, soon called upon the inhabitants to take their leases under him. Suits were instituted against





Death of King Philip. P. 94.



Penn treating with the Indians. P. 102.

all the landholders who neglected this call, and the jurors being selected by Cranfield, and interested in the result, uniformly gave judgment against them.

Under these oppressions, the people despatched an agent, with complaints to his majesty, against the governor. After a hearing by the lords of trade, the iniquitous conduct of Cranfield was represented to the king, who recalled him.

It may be proper to add, that the above controversy about the claims of Mason continued long to disturb the peace of the province, and was not finally terminated until the death of Samuel Allen, in 1715, to whom the heirs of Mason had sold their claim for seven hundred and fifty pounds; upon his demise, no one appeared to renew the claims, and the question dropped.

Sec. 49. In 1681, King Charles II. granted to William Penn, son of Admiral Penn, in consideration of debts due the latter, for services done to the crown, the territory of PENNSYLVANIA, so called after Penn himself.

This patent encroached on the territory of Lord Baltimore in Maryland, one whole degree, or sixty-nine miles and a half; and on the north, nearly three hundred miles, across the whole territory conveyed to Connecticut in 1631,* and confirmed by the royal charter of 1662. Hence arose contentions between the colonies of Pennsylvania and Connecticut, about boundaries, that were not settled till a century after. Within a short time from the date of the grant by King Charles to Penn, two other conveyances were made to him by the Duke of York. One was a bill of sale of New-Castle, and a territory of twelve miles around it. The other was a bill granting a tract south of the former, as far as Cape Henlopen. These two deeds embraced the whole state of Delaware. At this time, Delaware was divided into three counties, which, in 1662, were annexed to Pennsylvania, although they had a separate assembly, in which the governor of Pennsylvania presided.

The patent of King Charles to Penn provided for the king's sovereignty, and for obedience to British acts, regarding commerce. It gave power to the proprietor to assemble the freemen, or their delegates, as he should judge

* See *Sec. 36.* where the boundaries of the territory granted to Connecticut are given.

most convenient, for levying moneys and enacting laws, not contrary to the laws of England.

In May, 1681, Penn sent one Markham, with a few others, to take possession, and prepare for a settlement. The next year, Penn published a form of government, by which the supreme power was lodged in a general assembly, to consist of a governor, council, and house of delegates. The council and house to be chosen by the freemen. The proprietor and governor to preside, and to have a treble voice in the council, which was to consist of seventy-two members.

It was also agreed, that every person of good moral character, professing his faith in Christ, should be a freeman, and capable of holding any office; and that none who believed in one God, should be molested in his religion, or be compelled to attend, or maintain religious worship.

In October, Penn, with two thousand planters, mostly Quakers, arrived at New-Castle. In December, he convoked an assembly; but so few delegates appearing, he ordered, that instead of seventy-two, three members only should constitute the council, and nine the house of assembly.

Penn now entered into a treaty with the Indians, of whom he purchased large tracts of territory; at the same time, he commenced the city of Philadelphia, which, in one year, increased to a hundred houses and cottages.

Pennsylvania had a more rapid and prosperous settlement than any of the other colonies. This was doubtless owing partly to its healthful climate and fruitful soil, partly to the fact, that the great obstacles of settlement had been overcome by the other colonies, and partly to the religious tolerance, mildness, and equity, which characterized its laws, and their administration.

In 1683, Penn, at the request of the freemen, granted them a new charter, by which eighteen persons were to form the council, and thirty-six the assembly. The next year, Penn himself returned to England.

The lasting prosperity of Pennsylvania, the foundation of which must be traced to his wisdom and benevolence, is an eloquent eulogium upon his character.

Sec. 50. In the year 1684, June 18, an event, highly interesting to the colony of Massachusetts took place in England. This was a decision in the high court of chancery, that she had for

feited her charter, and that henceforth her government should be placed in the hands of the king.

The person chiefly instrumental in bringing about this event, was Edmund Randolph, a man who had long been the enemy of the colonies, and who, for several years, had filled the ears of the king with complaints against them, for violating the acts of trade.

To answer to these complaints, Massachusetts repeatedly incurred the expense of sending agents to England, and of maintaining them there; but his majesty would accept of no conditions, short of a surrender of her charter. As she would not make this surrender voluntarily, it was violently wrested from her.

Before King Charles had time to adjust the affairs of the colony, he died, and was succeeded by James II. Soon after his accession, similar proceedings took place against the other colonies. Rhode-Island submitted, and gave up her charter. Plymouth sent a copy of her charter to the king, with a humble petition that he would restore it. Connecticut voted an address to his majesty, in which she prayed him to recall the writ that had been filed against her, and requested the continuance of her charter.

The petitions and remonstrances of the colonies were, however, of no avail. Both the heart and hand of the king were manifestly against them. After all their hardships and dangers in settling a wilderness, they had no other prospect before them than the destruction of their dearest rights, and no better security of life, liberty, and property, than the capricious will of a tyrant.

In pursuance of this cruel policy towards the colonies, two years after the charter of Massachusetts was vacated, King James commissioned and sent out Sir Edmund Andross as governor of all New-England, Plymouth excepted. He arrived at Boston, Dec. 20, 1686.

The commencement of his administration was comparatively auspicious. In a few months, however, the fair prospect was changed. Among other arbitrary acts, restraints were laid upon the freedom of the press, and marriage contracts. The liberty to worship in the congregational way was threatened, and the fees of all officers of government were exorbitantly and oppressively enhanced.

In October, Sir Edmund, and suite, with a guard of about sixty regular troops, went to Hartford, where the assembly of Connecticut was in session. He entered the house of the assembly, demanded the charter of Connecticut, and declared the colonial government to be dissolved.

Extremely reluctant to surrender the charter, the assembly intentionally protracted its debates till evening, when the charter was brought in, and laid on the table.—Upon a preconcerted signal, the lights were at once extinguished, and a Capt. Wadsworth, seizing the charter, hastened away under cover of night, and secreted it in the hollow of an oak. The candles, which had been extinguished, were soon relighted without disorder; but the charter had disappeared. Sir Edmund, however, assumed the government, and the records of the colony were closed.

The condition of the New-England colonies was now distressing, and as the administration of Andross was becoming still more severe and oppressive, the future seemed not to promise alleviation. But Providence was invisibly preparing the way for their relief. Nov. 5th, 1688, William, Prince of Orange, who married Mary, daughter of James II., landed at Torbay, in England, and, compelling James II. to leave the kingdom, assumed the crown, being proclaimed Feb. 16th, 1689, to the general joy of the nation.

NOTES.

Sec. 51. MANNERS OF THE COLONISTS. In the colonies of North America, at the close of this period,

three varieties of character might be distinguished. In *New-England*, the strict puritanical notions of the people wrought a correspondent austerity upon the manners of society. Placing implicit faith in the Scriptures, they moulded their government, and shaped private character and morals, upon a severe and literal construction of them. They were devout—patriotic—industrious—and public spirited; and though of a grave, reflecting exterior, they often showed that shrewd inquisitiveness and keen relish of a jest, which are still characteristic of the New-Englanders.

The laws of the colonies throw some light on the views and manners of the people. As examples, in 1639, the drinking of healths was prohibited by law in Massachusetts. In 1651, the legislature of that colony prohibited all persons whose "estate did not exceed two hundred pounds, from wearing any gold or silver lace, or any bone lace above two shillings per yard." The law authorized the selectmen to take notice of the costliness and fashion of the "apparel of the people, especially in the wearing of ribands and great boots." The New-Haven colony, in 1639, resolved that they would be governed by the rules of Scripture; and that church members only should act in the civil affairs of the plantation.

In 1647, the colony of Connecticut expressed their disapprobation of the use of tobacco, by an act of assembly, in which it was ordered, "that no person under the age of twenty years, nor any other that hath already accustomed himself to the use thereof, shall take any tobacco, until he shall have brought a certificate, from under the hand of some, who are approved for knowledge and skill in physic, that it is useful for him; and also, that he hath received a license from the court for the same. All others, who had addicted themselves to the use of tobacco, were, by the same court, prohibited taking it in any company, or at their labors, or on their travels, unless they were ten miles at least from any house, or more than once a day, though not in company, on pain of a fine of sixpence for each time; to be proved by one substantial witness. The constable in each town to make presentment of such transgressions to the particular court, and upon conviction, the fine to be paid without gainsaying."

In the *Colony of New-York*, during this period, the manners of the colonists were strictly Dutch—with no other modifications than the privations of a new country, and the few English among them, necessarily effected. The same steadfast pursuit of wealth; the same plodding industry; the same dress, air, and physiognomy, which are given as characteristic of Holland, were equally characteristic of the inhabitants of New-Amsterdam.

In *Virginia*, the manners of the colonists were those of the less rigid English, rendered still more free and voluptuous by the influence of a softer climate and a more prolific soil.

Stith says of the first settlers of this colony, that some emigrated “to escape a worse fate at home;” others, it is said, sought to repair fortunes by emigration, which had been ruined by excess. Many persons, however, of high character, were among the emigrants, and amidst the licentiousness of the Virginia colony were found, at the close of this period, the seeds of that frankness, hospitality, taste, and refinement, which distinguish the people of the south at this day.

Other national peculiarities might be noticed, as those of the Finns in Delaware, those of the Quakers in Pennsylvania, &c.; but, at this period, they were too limited to require a distinct notice in our work.

Sec. 52. RELIGION. The colony of Virginia, from its earliest existence, was exclusively devoted to the Church of England.

For several years, its unsettled state prevented that attention to a religious establishment, which afterwards the subject received. At the expiration of thirteen years from the founding of the colony, there were but eleven parishes, and five ministers; the inhabitants of the colony did not, at this time, however, much exceed two thousand persons.

In 1621, the colony received a large accession to its numbers, and the governor and council were instructed “to take into special regard the service of Almighty God, and the observance of his divine laws; and that the people should be trained up in true religion and virtue.” At the same time, the Virginia Company ordered a hundred acres of land, in each of the boroughs, to be laid off for a glebe, and two hundred pounds sterling to be raised, as a standing and

certain revenue, out of the profits of each parish, to make a living: this stipend was thus settled—that the minister shall receive yearly five hundred pounds of tobacco, and sixteen barrels of corn; which were collectively estimated at two hundred pounds sterling. In 1642, the assembly passed a law prohibiting all, but those who had been ordained by English bishops, from preaching.

In 1650, during the time of Governor Berkley, the parishes of the colony were further regulated, the religion of the church of England was confirmed and established, and provision made for the support of the ministers. The maintenance of a minister was put at sixteen thousand pounds of tobacco, which, as valued at that time, at ten shillings per hundred, was about eighty pounds sterling. But in addition to this, he had a dwelling-house and glebe; also, four hundred pounds of tobacco, or forty shillings, for a funeral sermon, and two hundred pounds of tobacco, or twenty shillings, for performing marriage by license, or five shillings when the banns were proclaimed. The tobacco destined for the minister was brought to him, well packed in hogsheads, prepared for shipping. To raise this crop, twelve negroes were necessary.

The special object of the New-England planters, in settling the country, was the enjoyment of their religious opinions, and the free exercise of religious worship, without molestation. Early attention was, therefore, paid to the gathering of churches, and the regulation of religion. They were Calvinists in doctrine, and Congregational in discipline.

Each church maintained its right to govern itself. They held to the validity of Presbyterian ordination, and the expediency of synods on great occasions. From the commencement, they used ecclesiastical councils, convoked by particular churches for advice, but not for the judicial determination of controversies.

In each of the churches there was a pastor, teacher, ruling elder, and deacons. The pastor's office consisted principally in exhortation; upon the teacher devolved the business of explaining and defending the doctrines of christianity. The business of the ruling elder was to assist the pastor in the government of the church.

Early provision was made for the support of the ministry. On the arrival of the colonists of Massachusetts Bay, at Charlestown, before landing, a court of assistants was held, and the first question proposed was, How shall the ministers be maintained? The court ordered that houses be built.

and salaries be raised for them at the public charge. Their two ministers, Mr. Phillips and Mr. Wilson, were granted a salary—the former thirty pounds per annum, and the latter twenty pounds, until the arrival of his wife.

After the settlement of the several colonies, all persons were obliged by law to contribute to the support of the church. Special care was taken that all persons should attend public worship. In Connecticut the law obliged them to be present on the Lord's day—on all days of public fasting and thanksgiving, appointed by civil authority, on penalty of five shillings for every instance of neglect.

By the year 1642, twenty-two years from the landing of the pilgrims at Plymouth, there had been settled in New-England, seventy-seven ministers, who were driven from the parent country, fifty towns and villages had been planted, and thirty or forty churches gathered.

In 1637, the first synod convened in America, sat at Newtown, Massachusetts, and was composed of all the teaching elders in the country, and messengers of the several churches. Magistrates also were present, and spoke as they thought fit. The object of calling this synod was to inquire into the opinions of one Ann Hutchinson, a very extraordinary woman, who held public lectures in Boston, and taught doctrines considered heretical. The whole colony was agitated and divided into parties. The synod, after a session of three weeks, condemned eighty-two erroneous opinions which had become disseminated in New-England.

The *Dutch Reformed Church* was introduced into New-York with the first settlers, and was generally embraced by the Dutch population of that colony.

The *Roman Catholics* first came to America in 1632; they settled in Maryland, and now constitute a respectable and numerous portion of the inhabitants of that state.

The first *Baptist* church in America was formed at Providence in 1639, under the celebrated Roger Williams. Their sentiments spreading into Massachusetts, in 1651, the general court passed a law against them, inflicting banishment for persisting in the promulgation of their doctrines.

In 1656, the *Quakers*, making their appearance in Massachusetts, the legislature of that colony passed severe laws against them.

No master of a vessel was allowed to bring any one of this sect into its jurisdiction, on penalty of one hundred pounds. Other still severer penalties were inflicted upon them in 1657, such as cutting their ears, and boring their tongues with a hot iron, &c. They were at length banished on pain of death, and for refusing to go, were executed in 1659.

Without intending to justify these severities toward the Baptists, Quakers, and other sectaries, it is still proper to state, as some apology for them, that the conduct of the leaders of these sects was often calculated, and no doubt designed, to provoke persecution. They sought improper occasions to inculcate their peculiar tenets—departed unnecessarily from the decencies of social intercourse, and rudely inveighed against established and cherished opinions. In this way, the peace of the colonies was disturbed, and that unanimity of religious sentiment, which had hitherto existed, was broken. Our forefathers sought to avert these evils by the arm of civil power; not yet having learnt that persecution is a ready way to propagate the sentiments of the persecuted.

In the year 1646, a synod met at Cambridge, which, by adjournment, protracted its session to 1648, when it dissolved. This synod composed and adopted the "Cambridge Platform," and recommended it, together with the Westminster Confession of Faith, to the general court and to the churches. In this synod were present the ministers and churches of Connecticut, and New-Haven, who united in the form of discipline which it recommended. This, in connexion with the ecclesiastical laws, was the religious constitution of Connecticut, until the compilation of the Saybrook Platform, a period of about sixty years.

Sec. 53. TRADE AND COMMERCE. The colonies, during this period, had little other trade than with England, though the West-India trade had begun, and there was some commerce with Canada, and a few ports on the European continent. The colonies imported from England all their merchandise; and exported thither tobacco, pel-

try, and at length some beef, pork, grain, and fish. The importations from England, however, much exceeded the exports thither.

During the first thirty years of the colony of Virginia, their exports were confined to tobacco. But the price of it fell, at length, from three shillings and sixpence per pound, to twenty shillings per hundred, in consequence of which, a trade was opened with the frontier Indians, and the Five Nations. The skins of the deer, elk, and buffalo, and the furs of the otter, hare, fox, muskrat, and beaver, were procured for rum, hatchets, blankets, &c. These skins and furs were exported to England. English grain and Indian corn were also exported to a considerable extent. Although the Virginians owned a few vessels, the greater part of the trade was carried on by English vessels, during this period. They brought to the colony English manufactures, and took tobacco, furs, skins, grain, tar, pitch, &c. in return. The Virginians also carried on some trade with Canada.

The principal article of export from New-England, during this period, was peltry, which was procured of the Indians, for goods of small value. In 1639, a fishing trade was begun at Cape Anne, and in 1641, three hundred thousand codfish were sent to market.

The first vessel directly from the West Indies was a Dutch ship of 160 tons, which arrived at Marblehead, 1635. The first American vessel that went to the West Indies was a pinnace of thirty tons, in 1636. The ship *Desire* of Salem made a voyage in 1638 to New-Providence and Tortuga, and returned laden with cotton, tobacco, salt, and negroes. This was the first introduction of African slaves into New-England. The first importation of indigo, and sugar, from the West Indies, mentioned in our accounts, was made in 1639. In 1642, a Dutch ship exchanged a cargo of salt for plank and pipe staves, the exports of lumber from New-England. The next year, eleven ships sailed for the West Indies with lumber.

In 1678, the annual exports of the New-York colony, besides beef, pork, tobacco, and peltry, were about sixty thousand bushels of wheat. About ten or fifteen vessels, on an average of one hundred tons, English and colonial, traded to this colony in a year.

Sec. 54. AGRICULTURE. Early attention was

paid to agriculture. The first business of the settlers, was to clear the forests, and supply themselves with food from the soil. But the fertility of the earth taught them soon to look to agriculture as a source of wealth, as well as of subsistence. It therefore became the leading object of industry in the colonies.

The method adopted by the first settlers to clear the land was very slow and laborious, compared with the present modes. They used generally to cut down the trees and *dig up* the stumps, before tillage.

Tobacco was early cultivated in Virginia, and soon began to be exported. The year after the colony landed, the people gathered corn of their own planting, the seed of which they received of the Indians. Vineyards were attempted, and experienced vinedressers were sent over for the purpose of taking care of them. Flax, hemp, barley, &c., were cultivated to a considerable extent. Rye was first raised in Massachusetts, in 1633. Ploughs were early introduced into the country.

The first neat cattle, ever brought into New-England, were introduced by Mr. Winslow, in 1624. In 1629, one hundred and forty head of cattle, some horses, sheep, and goats, were brought to Massachusetts Bay. In a few years they became so numerous as to supply all the wants of the inhabitants. In 1623, the cattle in Virginia had increased to above one thousand head.

New-York raised considerable beef and pork for exportation, and in 1678, they exported sixty thousand bushels of wheat.

Sec. 55. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. The colonists, during this period, being chiefly occupied in gaining a subsistence, and in protecting themselves against their enemies, had occasion for few articles beyond the necessaries and comforts of life. Arts and manufactures could, therefore, receive but little encouragement, beyond the construction of such articles, and even those were principally imported.

In 1620, one hundred and fifty persons came from Eng-

land to Virginia to carry on the manufacture of silks, iron, potash, tar, pitch, glass, salt, &c., but they did not succeed. In 1673, Chalmer says of New-England, "There be five iron works which cast no guns—no house in New-England has above twenty rooms—not twenty in Boston have ten rooms each—a dancing school was set up here, but put down—a fencing school is allowed. There be no musicians by trade. All cordage, sail-cloth, and mats, come from England—no cloth made there worth four shillings per yard—no alum, no copperas, no salt, made by their sun."

The first buildings of the settlers were made of logs and thatched, or were built of stone. Brick and framed houses were soon built in the larger towns, and afterwards in the villages. The frames and brick were, however, in some instances, imported. The first mill in New-England was a wind-mill, near Watertown, but it was taken down in 1632, and placed in the vicinity of Boston. Water-mills began to be erected the next year. The first attempt to build water-craft, in New-England, was at Plymouth, in 1626. A house carpenter sawed their largest boat into two parts, and lengthened it five or six feet, built a deck, and rigged it into a convenient vessel, which did service for seven years. The first vessel, built in Massachusetts, was a bark in 1631, called *The Blessing of the Bay*. In 1633, a ship of sixty tons was built at Medford. In 1636, one of one hundred and twenty tons was built at Marblehead. In 1641, a ship of three hundred tons was launched at Salem, and one of one hundred and sixty tons at Boston. From this time ship building rapidly extended in the northern colonies.

The first *printing* in New-England, was done in 1639, by one Day. The proprietor of the press, was a clergyman, by the name of Glover, who died on his passage to America. The first thing printed was the Freeman's Oath, the second an almanack, and the third an edition of the Psalms. No other printing press was established in America, during this period. John Elliot, the celebrated missionary, having translated the Bible into the Indian language, had it printed at Cambridge in 1664.

The mode of travelling considerable distances was on foot or on horseback, there being no carriages for that purpose, and the roads from one village to another being only narrow foot-paths, through forests.

Sec. 56. POPULATION. We may estimate the po-

pulation of the English American colonies at the close of this period at about 200,000.

It is impossible to ascertain very exactly the population of the American colonies at the close of this period. The estimates made by writers are vague, and often contradictory. The estimate of Dr. Humphries in 1701, which seems as well entitled to credit as any other, is as follows :

	<i>Souls.</i>		<i>Souls.</i>
Massachusetts,	70,000	New-York,	30,000
Connecticut,	30,000	Jerseys,	15,000
Rhode Island,	10,000	Pennsylvania,	20,000
New-Hampshire,	10,000	Maryland,	25,000
		Virginia,	40,000
New-England,	120,000	North Carolina,	5,000
Mid. and S. colonies,	142,000	South Carolina,	7,000
Total,	262,000		142,000

Making a deduction from this account, so as to bring the estimate to the close of our period, we state the whole white population of the English American colonies, in 1689, at about two hundred thousand.

Sec. 57. EDUCATION. In New-England, schools were founded, at the outset of the colonies, for the education of *all classes* : In the southern colonies, provisions for the education of the *higher classes only* were attempted during this period.

Scarcely had the American colonists opened the forests, and constructed habitations, before they directed their attention to the object of education.

Previously to 1619, the King of England authorized the collection of moneys, throughout the kingdom, to erect a college in Virginia, for the education of Indian children ; one thousand five hundred pounds were collected for this purpose, and *Henrico* was selected as a suitable place for the seminary. The same year, the Virginia company granted ten thousand acres of land for the projected university. This donation, while it embraced the original object, was intended also for the foundation of a seminary of learning for English scholars.

In addition to a college, the colonists, in 1621, instituted a school at Charles' city for the benefit of all the colony, which

they called the *East India School*. For the maintenance of the master and usher, one thousand acres of land were appropriated, with five servants and an overseer. From this school, pupils were to be transferred to the college at Henrico, when the latter should be sufficiently endowed. These establishments in Virginia, however, failed of success, and in 1692, their funds were given to William and Mary's college, which we shall notice hereafter.

Still more attentive to education were the northern colonies. In 1630, a general court of Massachusetts Bay appropriated the sum of four hundred pounds towards the commencement of a college. In 1637, the college was located at Newtown, which, not long after, was called *Cambridge*, in memory of Cambridge, in England, where many of the colonists had received their education. Mr. John Harvard, a worthy minister, dying at Charlestown about this time, bequeathed nearly eight hundred pounds to the college, in consideration of which legacy, it was called after him. In 1642, was held the first commencement, at which nine were graduated.

To this institution, the plantations of Connecticut and New-Haven, so long as they remained unable to support a similar one at home, contributed funds from the public purse; and sent to it such of their youth as they wished to be educated. Private subscriptions were also made from the united colonies, to aid the institution.

Great attention was also paid by all the colonies to the subject of common schools. As a specimen of the arrangements common to the New-England colonies, we may notice those of Connecticut. By her first code, in 1639, only six years from the time the first house was erected within the colony, it was ordered that every town, consisting of fifty families, should maintain a good school, in which reading and writing should be well taught, and that in every county town a good grammar school should be instituted. Large tracts of land were appropriated by the legislature as a permanent support of these schools, and the selectmen of every town were required to see that all heads of families instructed their children and servants to read the English tongue well.

REFLECTIONS.

Sec. 58. At the commencement of this period, our history presented us with a continent, over whose surface an interminable wilderness had for ages cast its deep and solemn

shade. If we approach the shore, and look through the gloom that gathers over it, the scenes which strike the eye are Indians at their war dance, or perhaps flames curling round some expiring captive, or wild beasts mangling their prey.

Passing from this point of time to the close of our period, a space of eighty-two years, the prospect is greatly changed. We *now* see smiling fields and cheerful villages in the place of dismal forests; instead of beasts of prey, we see grazing herds; instead of the kindling faggot, we witness the worship of Jesus Christ; and instead of the appalling war whoop, we listen to the grateful songs of David. In the beautiful words of scripture, the wilderness has *begun* to blossom as the rose, and the desert is becoming vocal with the praises of God.

But how is it that a change so wonderful has been brought to pass? We have indeed seen the hardy spirit of enterprise leaving the luxuries of Europe, and plunging into the forests of America. But we have also seen our forefathers struggling with difficulties, and often trembling on the very brink of ruin. We have seen them amidst Indian war, desolating famine, and pestilence; and we have wondered, after the storm has passed, to see them rise with renovated strength, and seem to gather power and advantage from circumstances calculated to overwhelm them.

Admitting, then, the extraordinary energy, wisdom, enterprise, and hardihood, of the first settlers of America, still we are driven to the admission of a benign providence working in their favor, and mysteriously establishing their strength and security, by exercising them for years with danger, trial, and misfortune.

Nor are these the only considerations which excite our admiration, in regard to the first settlers of North America. Although, in the eloquent words of Mr. Walsh, "It was their peculiar lot, at one and the same time, to clear and cultivate a wilderness; to erect habitations and procure sustenance; to struggle with a new and rigorous climate; to bear up against all the bitter recollections inseparable from distant and lonely exile; to defend their liberties from the jealous tyranny and bigotry of the mother country; to be perpetually assailed by a savage foe, the most subtle and the most formidable of any people on the face of the earth:"—still, they looked forward to the welfare of future generations; laid broad and deep foundations for religious institutions; made the most careful provisions for learning, and

enacted wholesome laws, the benefit of which is distinctly felt to this day.

It may be further remarked, that history shows the influence of the manners of a people upon their government, and the reciprocal influence of government upon the manners of a people. The history of this period furnishes striking examples of this. In Virginia, the free and licentious manners of society produce a government unsteady and capricious. This government re-acts upon their manners, and aids rather than checks their licentiousness. On the contrary, in New-England, the severe puritanical manners of the people produce a rigid, energetic government, and the government returns its puritanical influence back upon the manners of the people.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD III.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE WARS OF KING WILLIAM
QUEEN ANNE, AND GEORGE II.

Extending from the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689, to the Declaration of the War by England against France, 1756, called "the French and Indian War."

Sec. 1. The news of William's accession to the throne of England, filled the colonies with ecstasy. Under the sudden impulse of their feelings, the inhabitants of Boston seized Sir Edmund Andross, with about fifty of his associates, and put them in close confinement, where they lay, until ordered to England, to answer for male-administration. Connecticut and Rhode Island immediately resumed their charters, and were permitted by his majesty to re-establish their former governments. Massachusetts soon after obtained a new charter, in some respects less favorable to the colony, but in others, more so, than its former one.

Andross had formerly been governor of New-York, under the duke of York, in which province his administration had been distinguished for measures both arbitrary and severe. Subsequent governors, under the duke, and after he came to the throne, had generally pursued a similar

course. The discontents of the people had been gradually increasing, and they were ready for revolution, when the above intelligence of the proceedings at Boston arrived. A revolution soon commenced, and, although attended by unhappy events, issued in the restoration of the rights of the people, and the formation of a constitution, which laid the foundation of their provincial code.

From the reduction of New-York, in 1664, to 1683, the people had no share in the government. In 1681, the council court of assizes, and corporation, had solicited the Duke of York to permit the people to choose their own rulers. Accordingly, the next year, Thomas Dongan, a papist, was appointed governor, with instructions to call an assembly, to consist of a council of ten, and of eighteen representatives, elected by the freeholders.

On the accession of the Duke of York to the throne, under the title of James II., he refused to confirm to the people the privileges granted them when he was duke. No assembly was permitted to be convened; printing presses were prohibited, and the more important provincial offices were conferred on papists.

Such was the state of things, when intelligence of the seizure of Andross arrived. This gave a spring to the general dissatisfaction, which burst forth into open resistance to the existing administration.

One Jacob Leisler, with several others, immediately took possession of the fort. Governor Dongan had just embarked for England, leaving the administration of the government, during his absence, to Charles Nicholson, at that time his deputy. Nicholson and his officers made what opposition to Leisler they were able, but he having been joined by six militia captains, and four hundred and seventy men, Nicholson absconded. Upon this, Leisler assumed the supreme command.

This assumption of Leisler was far from being pleasant to the council and magistrates, at the head of whom were Col. Bayard and the mayor. Finding it impossible, however, to succeed against Leisler in New-York, they retired to Albany, and there employed their influence to foment opposition. Both Leisler, in New-York, and the people at Albany, held their respective garrisons in the name of Will-

iam and Mary, but neither would submit to the authority of the other.

In this state of things, a letter from the Lords Carmathen and Halifax, arrived, directed, "To Francis Nicholson, Esq., or in his absence, to such as, for the time being, take care for preserving the peace and administering the laws," &c. Accompanying this letter, was another of a subsequent date, vesting Nicholson with the chief command.

As Nicholson had absconded, Leisler construed the letter as directed to himself, and from that time assumed the title and authority of lieutenant governor. The southern part of New-York generally submitted to him; but Albany refusing subjection, Milborn, his son-in-law, was sent to reduce them. In his first attempt he failed; but during the ensuing spring, 1690, he took possession of the fort, and the inhabitants submitted.

On the 19th of March, 1691, Col. Slaughter arrived at New-York, in the capacity of the king's governor. Nicholson and Bayard, who had been imprisoned by Leisler, were released. The latter was obliged to abandon the fort, and with Milborn, his son-in-law, was apprehended, tried for high treason, and condemned. Their immediate execution was urged by the people; but the governor, fearful of consequences, chose to defer it. To effect their purpose, an invitation was given him by the citizens to a sumptuous feast, and while his reason was drowned in intoxication, a warrant for their execution was presented to him and signed. Before he recovered his senses, the prisoners were no more.

Measures so violent greatly agitated the existing parties, but in the end, the revolution which had taken place, restored the rights of Englishmen to the colony. Governor Slaughter convoked an assembly, who formed a constitution. This constitution, among other provisions, secured trials by jury, freedom from taxation, except by the consent of the assembly, and toleration to all denominations of Christians, excepting Roman Catholics.

Sec. 2. While these troubles were distressing the colonies of the north, that of Carolina, in the south, was far from being in a state of tranquillity. Dissensions early arose in that colony respecting the proprietary government, under which they still continued. On the one hand, a part of the

people insisted upon implicit obedience to all the laws and regulations of the proprietors in England: while another part contended, on the other hand, that no such obedience was due. Both parties being ardent and determined, the conflict between them was violent, and greatly prolonged, to the serious injury of the colony.

In addition to these dissensions, others arose between the English settlers and a colony of French Protestants who had planted themselves in the county of Craven; to whom the English denied nearly every civil privilege, and especially the right of representation in the assembly.

In view of these accumulating troubles, John Archdale, one of the proprietors, was sent to America in 1695, with full powers to redress grievances, and, if possible, to adjust existing differences.

Archdale was received with cordiality, and by his singular wisdom and address, was so happy as to accomplish the purposes of his mission, except that he was unable fully to secure the rights and liberties of the French refugees. Not long after, however, the prejudices of the English against them abated, and they became incorporated with the freemen of the colony.

Sec. 3. About this period, 1692, commenced in Danvers, then a part of Salem, Massachusetts, a singular infatuation on the supposed prevalence of witchcraft. In a short time, this infatuation pervaded several parts of New-England, producing in its progress, the greatest distress in private families, and disorder and tumult throughout the country.

The first suspicion of witchcraft in New-England, and in the United States, began at Springfield, Massachusetts,

as early as 1645. Several persons, about that time, were accused, tried, and executed in Massachusetts; one at Charlestown, one at Dorchester, one at Cambridge, and one at Boston. For almost thirty years afterwards the subject rested. But in 1687 or 1688, it was revived in Boston; four of the children of John Goodwin uniting in accusing a poor Irish woman with bewitching them. Unhappily the accusation was regarded with attention, and the woman was tried and executed.

Near the close of February, 1692, the subject was again revived, in consequence of several children in Danvers, Salem, beginning to act in a peculiar and unaccountable manner. Their strange conduct* continuing for several days, their friends betook themselves to fasting and prayer. During religious exercises it was found that the children were generally decent and still; but after service was ended, they renewed their former inexplicable conduct. This was deemed sufficient evidence, that they were labouring under the influence of witchcraft.

At the expiration of some days, the children began to accuse several persons in the neighborhood of bewitching them. Unfortunately they were credited, and the suspected authors of the spell, were seized and imprisoned.

From this date, the awful mania rapidly spread into the neighboring country, and soon appeared in various parts of Essex, Middlesex, and Suffolk. Persons at Andover, Ipswich, Gloucester, Boston, and several other places, were accused by their neighbors and others.

For some time, the victims were selected only from the lower classes. But, at length, the accusations fell upon persons of the most respectable rank. In August, Mr. George Burroughs, some time minister in Salem, was ac-

* The manner in which those who were supposed to be afflicted with this malady were exercised, is thus described by Cotton Mather in his *Magnalia*. "Sometimes they were deaf, sometimes dumb, sometimes blind, and often all this at once. Their tongues would be drawn down their throats, and then pulled out upon their chins to a prodigious length. Their mouths were forced open to such a wideness that their jaws went out of joint; and anon would clap together again with a force like that of a spring lock; and the like would happen to their shoulder-blades, and their elbows, and their hand-wrists, and several of their joints. Sometimes they would be benumbed, and be drawn violently together, and presently stretched out and drawn back. They complained that they were cut with knives and struck with blows, and the prints of the wounds were seen upon them." We cannot believe that all this actually took place; probably the persons were singularly affected, and the excited fancies of those who looked on, added the rest of the picture.

cused, brought to trial, and condemned. Accusations were also brought against Mr. English, a respectable merchant in Salem, and his wife; against Messrs. Dudley and John Bradstreet, sons of the then late governor Bradstreet; against the wife of Mr. Hale, and the lady of Sir William Phipps.

The evil had now become awfully alarming. One man, named Giles Corey, had been pressed to death for refusing to put himself on a trial by jury; and nineteen persons had been executed, more than one third of whom were members of the church. One hundred and fifty were in prison, and two hundred were accused.

At length the inquiry was anxiously suggested, where will this accumulating mischief and misery end? A conviction began to spread that the proceedings had been rash and indefensible. A special court was held on the subject, and fifty who were brought to trial, were acquitted, excepting three, who were afterwards reprieved by the governor. These events were followed by a general release of those who had been imprisoned. "Thus the cloud," says the late President Dwight, "which had so long hung over the colony, slowly and sullenly retired; and like the darkness of Egypt, was, to the great joy of the distressed inhabitants, succeeded by serenity and sunshine."*

We, who live to look back upon this scene, are wont to contemplate, with wonder, the seeming madness and infatuation, not of the weak, illiterate, and unprincipled; but of men of sense, education, and fervent piety. Let us consider, however, that at this period, the actual existence of witchcraft was taken for granted, and that doubts respecting it were deemed little less than heresy. The learned Baxter, who lived at this time in England, where the same notions on this subject prevailed, pronounced the disbeliever in witchcraft, an "obdurate Sadducee;" and Sir Matthew Hale, one of the brightest ornaments of the English bench, repeatedly tried and condemned those as criminals, who were accused of witchcraft.

The human mind is prone to superstition, and more or less of it prevails in every country, even in those which are civilized and refined, and upon which divine revelation sheds its light. In the case of the people in Essex, where this delusion chiefly prevailed, there were circumstances existing which did not exist in England. They had lived for

* Dwight's Travels.

some years among the savages, had heard their narratives of Hobbamocko, or the devil, of his frequent appearance to them, of their conversations with him, and of his sometimes carrying them off. Every village was the theatre of some such scenes, and stories of mystery and wonder, heightened by imagination, went the rounds during their winter evenings, confirmed their opinions, roused their admiration, and furnished materials for approaching terrors.

The circumstances attending the first strange appearances were also unfortunate, and powerfully tended to give them currency. The family of a minister, who was himself credulous, and with whom an Indian and his wife lived, were first affected. The opinions of the Indians were deemed important, as they were supposed to be adepts in the science of witchcraft. Added to this, the physician of the village concurred in the opinion, and the fact was therefore no longer to be doubted. The attention of the public mind was immediately roused, and as others seemed to be exercised in a similar manner, the way was prepared for the delusion to spread. Children of not more than twelve years of age were permitted to give their testimony; Indians were called to tell their stories of wonder, and women their nocturnal frights. For a time the counsels of age were unheard; wisdom was confounded, and religion silenced.

If, however, the uniform protestations of those who were executed, or the confessions of numbers who had been accusers, or the conviction of error on the part of those who were leaders in these awful scenes, be credited, we shall be satisfied that the whole originated in folly and delusion. All who were executed, excepting the first, protested their innocence with their dying breath, when a confession would have saved their lives. Years afterwards, those who had been accusers, when admitted to the church, acknowledged their delusion, and asked "pardon for having brought the guilt of innocent blood on the land."

Even juries, who had been concerned in the trial and condemnation of some of these unfortunate sufferers, recanted their errors. "We do signify," to use the language of a jury subsequently conscious of their wrong, "our deep sense of, and sorrow for, our errors in acting on such evidence; we pray that we may be considered candidly and aright, by the living sufferers, as being then, under the power of a general and strong delusion." In one instance at least, a church, that of Danvers, which had excommuni-

cated a person on suspicion of witchcraft, and who was hung, four years afterwards, recalled the sentence, "that it might not stand against her to all generations."

In conclusion it may be remarked, that no people on earth are *now* more enlightened on this subject than are the people of America. Nothing of a similar kind has since existed, and probably never will exist. Stories of wonder, founded upon ancient tradition, or upon a midnight adventure, sometimes awe the village circle on a winter's night, but the succeeding day chases away every ghost, and lulls every fear. It becomes the present generation to advert with gratitude to their freedom from those delusions which distressed and agitated their ancestors, rather than to bestow invectives upon them, since they could plead in palliation of their error—the spirit of the age in which they lived.

Sec. 4. Scarcely were the colonies relieved from the oppression of king James, before they were visited with troubles of a nature still more distressing. The revolution, which followed the accession of William and Mary, had indeed restored their liberties, but it involved them in a war both with the French and Indians, which continued from 1690, to the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, commonly called "*King William's War.*"

King James, on leaving England, fled to France. Louis XIV., king of France, attempting to support him, kindled the flame of war between his own country and England. The subjects of Louis, in Canada, of course directed their arms against the colonies of New-England and New-York, and instigated the Indians to join them in their hostilities.

Count Frontenac, a brave and enterprising officer, was now the governor of Canada. Inflamed with the resentment which had kindled in the bosom of his master, Louis XIV. of France, against William, for his treatment of James, he fitted out three expeditions, in the dead of winter, against the American colonies—one against New-York, a second against New-Hampshire, and a third against the province of Maine. Each of these parties, in the execution of their orders,



Burning of Schenectady. P. 125.



Torture of Captives taken in King William's War. P. 133.



marked their progress with plunder, fire, and death.

The party destined against New-York, consisting of about three hundred men, in February, fell upon Schenectady, a village on the Mohawk. The season was cold, and the snow so deep, that it was deemed impossible for an enemy to approach. The attack was made in the dead of the night, while the inhabitants were in a profound sleep. Not a sentinel was awake to announce the approaching danger. Care had been taken, by a division of the enemy, to attack almost every house in the same moment. When the preparations were ready, on a preconcerted signal, the appalling war whoop was begun; houses were broken open and set on fire; men and women were dragged from their beds, and, with their sleeping infants, were inhumanly murdered. Sixty persons perished in the massacre, thirty were made prisoners, while the rest of the inhabitants, mostly naked, fled through a deep snow, either suffering extremely, or perishing in the cold.

The second party, directing their course to New-Hampshire, burned Salmon Falls, killing thirty of the bravest men, and carrying fifty-four of the inhabitants into a miserable captivity.

The third party, proceeding from Quebec, destroyed the settlement of Casco, in Maine, and killed and captured one hundred people.

Sec. 5. Roused by these proceedings of the French, the colony of Massachusetts resolved to attack the enemy in turn. Accordingly an expedition consisting of seven vessels, and eight hundred men, under command of Sir William Phipps, sailed for the reduction of Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, which was easily and speedily effected.

A second expedition, under the same commander, was soon after resolved upon by the colonies of New-York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, united, for the reduction of Montreal and Quebec. A combination of unfortunate circumstances, however, defeated the design, and the expedition, after encountering numerous hardships and disasters, returned.

The plan was, for the troops of New-York and Connecticut, consisting of about two thousand, to penetrate into Canada, by Lake Champlain, and to attack Montreal, at the same time that the naval armament, consisting of between thirty and forty vessels, with a similar number of men, should invest Quebec. The troops destined for Montreal not being supplied, either with boats or provisions, sufficient for crossing the lake, were obliged to return. The naval expedition did not reach Quebec until October. After spending several days in consultation, the landing of the troops was effected, and they began their march for the town. At the same time the ships were drawn up; but the attack, both by land and water, was alike unsuccessful. The troops were soon after re-embarked, and the weather, proving tempestuous, scattered the fleet, and terminated the expedition.

The success of the expedition had been so confidently calculated upon, that provision had not been made for the payment of the troops; there was danger, therefore, of a mutiny. In this extremity, Massachusetts issued bills of credit, as a substitute for money; the first emission of the kind in the American colonies.

Sir William Phipps, to whom the above expeditions were entrusted, was a native of New-England. The extraordinary incidents of his life will serve to exhibit the powerful spirit of personal enterprise which the peculiar circumstances of the colonies called forth.

The place of his birth, which happened in 1650, was a small plantation, on the river Kennebeck, at that time nearly the limit of the English settlements on the east. His father was a gun-smith, who had a family of twenty-six children by one wife, twenty-one of whom were sons, of which William was nearly the youngest. His father dying while he was quite a lad, he lived with his mother until his eighteenth year, during which time he was chiefly concerned in the care of sheep. Contrary to the wishes of his friends, he now indented himself as an apprentice to a ship-carpenter, for four years, in which time he became master of his art. Upon the expiration of his service, he went to Boston, where he followed his trade about a year, during which he learned to read and write, and in which time he was respectably married.

Failing of that success in his trade, which his enterprising genius coveted, he turned his attention to the sea, and during his first voyage, hearing of a Spanish wreck near

the Bahamas, he directed his course thither, but obtained from it only sufficient to furnish himself for a voyage to England. On his arrival in that country, he heard of another Spanish wreck, in which was lost an immense treasure; but the precise spot of which was as yet undiscovered. Being sanguine in the belief, that he should be more successful than those who had preceded him, in their attempts to discover it, he solicited the patronage of several persons in office, through whose influence he was appointed to the *Algier Rose*, an English frigate of eighteen guns, and ninety-five men, in which, some time after, he sailed in quest of the wreck.

It often happens that Divine Providence, previously to crowning a man's exertions with success, involves him for a season in difficulties, and tries him with disappointments. This was strikingly verified in the case of Capt. Phipps. Not meeting with the success, which he had promised his crew, they at length became mutinous, and on a sudden rushed upon him, while on the quarter deck, with drawn swords, and demanded of him, as the only condition of life, that he should join them in escaping to the South Seas, to engage in piracy. Although entirely unarmed, he stood firm and collected until he had fixed his plan, and then, with a courage bordering on rashness, rushed in upon their pointed swords, dealing his blows so judiciously, that he felled numbers to the deck, and so awed the rest, that they consented to yield. At another time, finding it necessary to careen his vessel, he put into a desolate Spanish island, near to a rock, from which a temporary bridge was extended to the ship. Mutiny was secretly working among his crew. While preparations were making by the carpenter for repairing the vessel, ninety of his men left her, and retired into the adjoining wood, under pretence of diversion; but in reality for mutinous purposes. Here a plan was formed, which was to seize Capt. Phipps, and the nine or ten men who were known to be friendly to him, and to abandon them to their fate on the island.

Apprehensive that the carpenter might be necessary on their voyage, they sent to him, then at work on the vessel, and requested that he would come to them. On his arrival, he was apprised of their design, and threatened with death should he not second their views. The carpenter, being an honest man, requested a half hour to think upon the proposal, and returning to the ship, accompanied by a *spy* from the mutineers, resumed his work. On a sudden, feigning

himself severely distressed with pain, he excused himself, while he should hasten to the captain, who was below, for a *dram*. In few words, while the *dram* was getting, he discovered the plot to Capt. Phipps, and sought his advice. The captain bid him go back to the rogues, sign their articles, and leave the rest to him. No sooner had the carpenter gone, than Capt. Phipps summoned the men on board, of whom the gunner was one, and having briefly stated the plan in agitation, demanded of them, whether they would share his fortune; to which they unanimously agreed. All their provisions were on shore in a tent, round which several guns had been planted, to defend them from the Spaniards, should any chance to pass that way. These guns, Capt. Phipps ordered his men to charge, and silently to turn in the direction of the mutineers, while he should pull up the bridge, and with the assistance of two or three others, bring the guns on board to bear on every side of the tent.

Scarcely were these preparations ended, when the mutineers, flushed with their anticipated success, made their appearance. On their nearer approach, Capt. Phipps bade them advance at their peril; at the same time, directing his men to fire, should a single one come forward. Awed by his decision, and the deathlike preparations visible, they paused; upon which, Capt. Phipps informed them that their plot was discovered, and that he was determined to leave them to that fate, which they had designed for him, and those of the crew who were too virtuous to second their villanous purposes. At the same time, he directed the bridge to be let down, and the provisions to be brought on board; while some of the men should stand with matches at the guns, with orders to fire, should a single mutineer advance. This unexpected reverse, and especially the prospect of a certain, but lingering death, on a desolate shore, had the effect to subdue the mutineers, who now, on their knees, besought his pardon, and promised obedience to his orders. Unwilling, however, to trust them, Capt. Phipps tied their arms one after another; and when all were on board, immediately weighed anchor, and sailed for Jamaica, where he dismissed them. From this place, having shipped another crew, he sailed for Hispaniola, intending to proceed in search of the Spanish wreck; but his crew proving unfit, he returned to England.

Through the assistance of the Duke of Albemarle, and other persons of quality, he was furnished with another ship and a tender, with which he sailed for Port de la Plata,

where after completing his preparations, he proceeded in search of the wreck. Having for a long time fruitlessly sought the object of his voyage, in the neighborhood of a reef of rocks called the *Boilers*, further search was about being abandoned, when, as one of the boats was returning to the ship across the reef, one of the men looking over the side, spied as he thought a *sea feather*, growing out of a rock; whereupon an Indian diver was directed to descend and fetch it up. But what were their surprise and joy, on his return, to learn that he had discovered several guns, lying on the bottom of the deep. A second descent of the Indian increased their joy still more, for on his rising, he was bearing in his hand a *sow*, as they called it, or a mass of silver, of the value of several hundred pounds sterling. Tidings of the discovery were immediately conveyed to Capt. Phipps, who, with his men, repaired to the spot, and upon leaving the place, carried with him thirty-two tons of silver bullion, besides a large quantity of gold, pearls, and jewels, over which the billows had been rolling for more than half a century. On his arrival in London, the property thus rescued was valued at nearly three hundred thousand pounds sterling; yet of this sum such was his exemplary honesty and liberality, that partly by fulfilling his assurances to his seamen, and partly by conscientiously paying over to his employers all their dues, he had left to himself less than sixteen thousand pounds. As a reward to his fidelity, however, he received a large present from the Duke of Albemarle, and upon a representation of his enterprise to the king, his majesty conferred upon him the honor of knighthood. Liberal offers were made to him by the commissioners of the navy to continue in England, but he had too great an attachment for his native country to think of a permanent residence in any other land than that of New-England.

James II. was at this time on the throne of England, by whom the colonies in America had been deprived of their charters, and under whose governors they were severely suffering from arbitrary laws, and excessive exactions. Pleased with Phipps, the king gave him an opportunity to ask of his majesty what he pleased; upon which, forgetting personal aggrandizement, he besought for New-England, that her lost privileges might be restored to her. This was too great a boon to be granted, and the king replied, "*any thing but that.*" His next request was, that he might be appointed high sheriff of the country, hoping

that by means of his deputies in that office, he might supply the country with conscientious juries "which was the only method," says Mather, "that the New-Englander had left them to secure any thing that was dear unto them

Having at some expense obtained his request, after an absence of five years, he arrived in his native country; but the king's government found means not only to set aside his commission as high sheriff, but also to raise against him such a tide of opposition, that he had nearly been assassinated before his own door. Finding affairs in so unsettled a state, and his own situation uncomfortable, he, not long after, took another voyage to England. Soon after his arrival in that country, James abdicated the throne, and the Prince of Orange ascended it. This event was the harbinger of better things to New-England. Having tendered his services to William, and rejected with disdain the government of New-England, proffered to him about this time by the abdicated king, he hastened his return to America, hoping now to be of some service to his country. In the unsettled state of the colonies, his wisdom and influence were of great importance, and contributed not a little to forward the revolution, which issued in freeing the colonies from the tyranny of James and his ministers.

The latter part of the life of Sir William Phipps is rendered doubly interesting, by his openly espousing the cause of religion. At the age of forty, he was publicly baptized in one of the churches of Boston, and received into her communion. In an address on that occasion, in conclusion, he observed, "I have had proffers of baptism elsewhere made to me, but I resolved rather to defer it, until I could enjoy it in the communion of these churches. I have had awful impressions from the words of the Lord Jesus, 'Whosoever shall be ashamed of me, and of my word, of him shall the Son of Man be ashamed.' When God had blessed me with something of the world, I had no trouble so great as this, lest it should not be in mercy; and I trembled at nothing more than being put off with a portion here. That I may be sure of better things, I now offer myself unto the communion of the faithful."

King William's war breaking out at this time, he sailed upon the expedition against Port Royal and Quebec, related above. In the following year he received a commission, as captain general and governor-in-chief over the province of Massachusetts Bay. No appointment could have been more acceptable to the people. He came to the go

vernment however in unsettled times; and, though his administration was marked by disinterestedness and liberality, it was his fortune, as it is the fortune of all in high stations, to have enemies. Too restless to remain at ease, they, at length, preferred charges against him to the king, who, though satisfied of his fidelity, considering it expedient to inquire into the case, directed Sir William to appear in England. In obedience to the royal command, he took leave of Boston, in Nov., 1694, attended with every demonstration of respect from the people, and with addresses to their majesties, that he might be continued in his present respectable and useful station.

On his arrival in England, the cloud, which had hung over him, was fast dispelling, and the prospect flattering of his speedy return to his government, uninjured by the accusation of prejudice and calumny. But Providence had now accomplished its designs in respect to him. He was suddenly attacked by a malignant disease, which terminated his life, in February, to the great grief of all who were acquainted with the generosity and patriotism, integrity, and piety, that distinguished him.

The life of such a man is always replete with instruction. It reveals to those in the humbler walks of life, the means by which they may not only arrive at distinction, but to that which is of far higher importance—an extended sphere of usefulness in church and state. Enterprise, exertion, integrity, will accomplish every thing.*

Sec. 6. The failure of the expedition to Quebec was humbling to New-England, and, productive of other unhappy consequences. The Indian tribes, Mohawks, Oneidas, Senecas, Ondagos, and Delawares, called the *Five Nations*, settled along the banks of the Susquehannah, and in the adjacent country, who were in alliance with Great Britain, and had long been a safeguard to the colonies against the French, became dissatisfied. They blamed the English for their inactivity, and manifested a disposition to make peace with the French.

To restore the confidence of the Indian allies, Major P.

* Mather's Magnalia.

Schuyler, the next year, 1691, with three thousand men, nearly half Mohawks and Schakook Indians, made an attack on the French settlements, north of Lake Champlain. De Callieres, governor of Montreal, was waiting to oppose him. After a severe encounter, Schuyler made good his retreat, having killed thirteen officers and three hundred men.

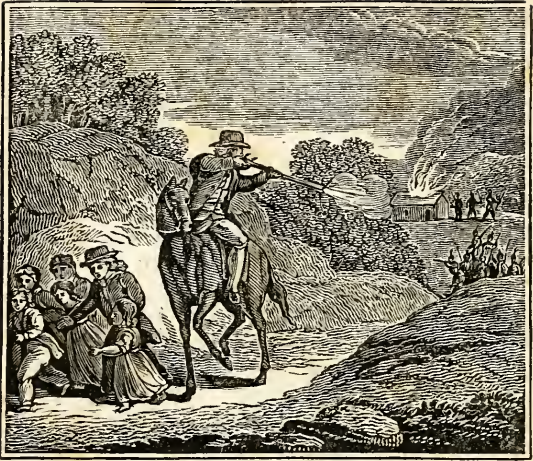
New-York found great security against the encroachments of the French, in the Five Nations, who now carried on a vigorous war, along the river St. Lawrence, from Montreal to Quebec.

But the eastern portion of the country, particularly New-Hampshire, suffered exceedingly; the storm falling with the greatest severity upon them. Both Connecticut and Massachusetts raised troops for their defence; but such was the danger and distress of the colony of New-Hampshire, that the inhabitants were upon the point of abandoning the province.

The winter of 1696 was unusually severe. Never had the country sustained such losses in commerce, nor had provisions, in any period of the war, been more scarce or borne a higher price.

Sec. 7. In the midst of these distresses, the country was threatened with a blow, which it seemed impossible that it should sustain. The Marquis Nesmond, an officer of high reputation, was despatched from France, with ten ships of the line, a galliot, and two frigates. Count Frontenac, from Canada, was expected to join him at Penobscot, with one thousand five hundred men. With this force, they were to make a descent on Boston; to range the coast of Newfoundland, and burn the shipping, which should fall in their way. To finish their work of destruction, they were to take New-York, whence the troops, under Frontenac, were to return to Canada, through the country, wasting and destroying the regions through which they should pass. But De Nesmond sailed too late for the accomplishment of his purpose. On his arrival on the coast, not be-





Mr. Dustan saving his family. P. 134.



Murder of Mrs. Williams. P. 138.

ing able to join Frontenac, in season, the expedition failed, and the colonies were saved. At length, Dec. 10, 1697, a treaty was concluded between France and England, at Ryswick, in Germany, by which it was agreed, in general terms, that a mutual restitution should be made of all the countries, forts, and colonies, taken by each party during the war.

King William's war, which was thus terminated, had been marked by atrocities on the part of the French and Indians, until then, unknown in the history of the colonies. Women, soon expecting to become mothers, were generally ripped up, and their unborn offspring inhumanly dashed against a stone or tree. Infants, when they became troublesome, were dispatched in the same manner. Or, to add to the anguish of a mother, her babe was sometimes lacerated with a scourge, or nearly strangled under water, and then presented to her to quiet. If unable soon to succeed in this, it was too effectually quieted by the hatchet, or left behind to become the prey of prowling beasts. Some of the captives were roasted alive; others received deep wounds in the fleshy parts of their bodies, into which sticks on fire were thrust, until tormented out of life, they expired. In one instance, an infant was tied to the corpse of its mother, and left to perish, vainly endeavoring to draw nourishment from her bosom.

Great were the sufferings of those whose condition was the best. They were subjected to the hardships of traveling without shoes, without clothes, and often without food, amidst frost, and rain, and snow, by night and by day, through pathless deserts, and through gloomy swamps. No kindness was shown them, and no pity felt for them. If they fainted under their burden, or only remitted for a moment their toil, they received from their inhuman conductors the severest chastisement, or expired by means of a blow from the tomahawk. Such were some of the calamities which our ancestors endured in the defence of the country, which they have transmitted to us with so much honor.

The details of individual sufferings, which occurred during this war, were they faithfully recorded, would excite the sympathies of the most unfeeling bosom. One instance only can we relate.

In an attack by a body of Indians on Haverhill, New-Hampshire, in the winter of 1697, the concluding year of the war, a party of the assailants, burning with savage animosity, approached the house of a Mr. Dustan. Upon the first alarm, he flew from a neighboring field to his family, with the hope of hurrying them to a place of safety. Seven of his children he directed to flee, while he himself went to assist his wife, who was confined to the bed with an infant, a week old. But before she could leave her bed, the savages arrived.

In despair of rendering her assistance, Mr. Dustan flew to the door, mounted his horse, and determined in his own mind, to snatch up and save the child which he loved the best. He followed in pursuit of his little flock, but, upon coming up to them, he found it impossible to make a selection. The eye of the parent could see no one of the number that he could abandon to the knife of the savage. He determined, therefore, to meet his fate with them; to defend and save them from their pursuers, or die by their side.

A body of Indians soon came up with him, and, from short distances, fired upon him and his little company. For more than a mile he continued to retreat, placing himself between his children and the fire of the savages; and returning their shots with great spirit and success. At length, he saw them all safely lodged from their bloody pursuers, in a distant house.

It is not easy to find a nobler instance of fortitude and courage, inspired by affection, than is exhibited in this instance. Let us ever cultivate the influence of those ties of kindred, which are capable of giving so generous and elevated a direction to our actions.

As Mr. Dustan quitted his house, a party of Indians entered it. Mrs. Dustan was in bed; but they ordered her to rise, and, before she could completely dress herself, obliged her and the nurse, who had vainly endeavored to escape with the infant, to quit the house, which they plundered and set on fire.

In these distressing circumstances Mrs. Dustan began her march, with other captives, into the wilderness. The air was keen, and their path led alternately through snow and deep mud; and her savage conductors delighted rather in the infliction of torment, than the alleviation of distress.

The company had proceeded but a short distance, when an Indian, thinking the infant an incumbrance, took it from the nurse's arms, and violently terminated its life. Such

of the other captives as began to be weary, and incapable of proceeding, the Indians killed with their tomahawks. Feeble as Mrs. Dustan was, both she and her nurse sustained with wonderful energy, the fatigue and misery attending a journey of one hundred and fifty miles.

On their arrival at the place of their destination, they found the wigwam of the savage, who claimed them as his personal property, to be inhabited by twelve Indians. In the ensuing April, this family set out with their captives, for an Indian settlement still more remote. The captives were informed that, on their arrival at the settlement, they must submit to be stripped, scourged, and run the gauntlet, between two files of Indians. This information carried distress to the minds of the captive women, and led them promptly to devise some means of escape.

Early in the morning of the 31st, Mrs. Dustan, awaking her nurse and another fellow-prisoner, they dispatched ten of the twelve Indians while asleep. The other two escaped. The women then pursued their difficult and toilsome journey through the wilderness, and at length arrived in safety at Haverhill. Subsequently, they visited Boston, and received, at the hand of the general court, a handsome consideration for their extraordinary sufferings and heroic conduct.

“Whether all their sufferings,” says Dr. Dwight, to whom we are indebted for this interesting story, “and all the danger of suffering anew, justified this slaughter, may probably be questioned by the exact moralist. Precedents innumerable, and of high authority, may indeed be urged in behalf of these captives; but the moralist will equally question the rectitude of these. Few persons, however, agonizing as Mrs. Dustan did, under the evils which she had already suffered, and in the full apprehension of those which she was destined to suffer, would have been able to act the part of nice casuists; and fewer still, perhaps, would have exercised her intrepidity. That she herself approved of the conduct, which was applauded by the magistrates and divines of the day, in the cool hours of deliberation, cannot be doubted. The truth is, the season of Indian invasion, burning, butchering, captivity, threatening, and torture, is an unfortunate time for nice investigation, and critical moralizing. A wife, who had just seen her house burnt, her infant dashed against a tree, and her companions coldly murdered one by one; who supposed her husband and her remaining children to have shared the same fate; who was

threatened with torture, and indecency more painful than torture; and who did not entertain a doubt that the threatening would be fulfilled; would probably feel no necessity, when she found it in her power to dispatch the authors of her sufferings, of asking questions concerning any thing, but the success of the enterprise.

“But whatever may be thought of the rectitude of *her* conduct, that of her husband is in every view honorable. A finer succession of scenes for the pencil was hardly ever presented to the eye, than is furnished by the efforts of this gallant man, with their interesting appendages. The artist must be destitute indeed of talents, who could not engross every heart, as well as every eye, by exhibitions of this husband and father, flying to rescue his wife, her infant, and her nurse, from the approaching horde of savages; attempting on his horse to select from his flying family the child which he was the least able to spare, and unable to make the selection; facing in their rear the horde of hell-hounds; alternately and sternly retreating behind his inestimable charge, and fronting the enemy again; receiving and returning their fire; and presenting himself equally as a barrier against murderers, and a shelter to the flight of innocence and anguish. In the back ground of some or other of these pictures, might be exhibited, with powerful impression, the kindled dwelling; the sickly mother; the terrified nurse, with the new-born infant in her arms; and the furious natives surrounding them, driving them forward, and displaying the trophies of savage victory, and the insolence of savage triumph.”

Sec. 8. Scarcely had the colonies recovered from the wounds and impoverishment of king William's war, which ended in 1697, before they were again involved in the horrors of another war with the French, Indians, and Spaniards, commonly called “*Queen Anne's War,*” which continued from 1702, to the peace of Utrecht, March 31st, 1713.

By the treaty of Ryswick, it was in general terms agreed, that France and England should mutually restore to each other all conquests made during the war. But the rights and pretensions of either monarch to certain places in Hudson's Bay, &c. were left to be ascertained and determined at some future day, by commissioners.

The evil consequences of leaving boundaries thus unset-

ted, were soon perceived. Disputes arose, which, mingling with other differences of still greater importance, led England to declare war against France and Spain, May 4th, 1702.

Sec. 9. The whole weight of the war in America, unexpectedly fell on New-England. The geographical position of New-York particularly exposed that colony to a combined attack from the lakes and sea ; but just before the commencement of hostilities, a treaty of neutrality was concluded between the Five Nations and the French governor in Canada. The local situation of the Five Nations, bordering on the frontiers of New-York, prevented the French from molesting that colony ; Massachusetts and New-Hampshire were thus left to bear the chief calamities of the war.

The declaration of war was immediately followed by incursions of French and Indians from Canada into these colonies, who seized every opportunity of annoying the inhabitants, by depredation and outrage.

On Tuesday, Feb. 29th, 1704, at day break, a party of French and Indians, three hundred in number, under command of the infamous Hextel De Rouville, fell upon Deerfield, Mass. Unhappily, not only the inhabitants, but even the watch, were asleep. They soon made themselves masters of the house, in which the garrison was kept. Proceeding thence to the house of Mr. Williams, the clergyman, they forced the doors, and entered the room where he was sleeping.

Awaked by the noise, Mr. Williams seized his pistol, and snapped it at the Indian, who first approached, but it missed fire. Mr. Williams was now seized, disarmed, bound, and kept standing, without his clothes, in the intense cold, nearly an hour.

His house was next plundered, and two of his children, together with a black female servant, were butchered before his eyes. The savages, at length, suffered his wife and five children to put on their clothes, after which, he was himself

allowed to dress, and prepare for a long and melancholy march.

The whole town around them was now on fire. Every house, but the one next to Mr. Williams', was consumed. Having now completed their work of destruction, in burning the town, and killing forty-seven persons, the enemy hastily retreated, taking with them one hundred of the inhabitants, among whom were Mr. Williams and his family.

The first night after their departure from Deerfield, the savages murdered Mr. Williams' servant; and, on the day succeeding, finding Mrs. Williams unable to keep pace with the rest, plunged a hatchet into her head. She had recently borne an infant, and was not yet recovered. But her husband was not permitted to assist her. He himself was lame, bound, insulted, threatened, and nearly famished—but what were personal sufferings like these, and even greater than these, to the sight of a wife under circumstances so tender, inhumanly butchered before his eyes! Before the journey was ended, seventeen others shared the melancholy fate of Mrs. Williams.

On their arrival in Canada, it may be added, Mr. Williams was treated with civility by the French. At the end of two years, he was redeemed with fifty-seven others, and returned to Deerfield, where, after twelve years labor in the gospel, he entered into his rest.

Sec. 10. In the spring of 1707, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, and New-Hampshire, fitted out an expedition against Port Royal, in Nova Scotia. The expedition, consisting of one thousand men, sailed from Nantucket in twenty-three transports, under convoy of the Deptfort man of war, and the Province galley. After a short voyage, they arrived at Port Royal; but March, the commander of the expedition, though a brave man, being unfit to lead in an enterprise so difficult, little was done, beyond burning a few houses, and killing a few cattle.

While this unfortunate expedition was on foot, the frontiers were kept in constant alarm. Oyster River, Exeter, Kingston, and Dover, in New-Hampshire, Berwick, York, Wells, and Casco, in Maine, were attacked, and considerably damaged by the enemy.

Sec. 11. The colonies were now resolved on another attempt upon Canada. In 1708, Massachusetts petitioned Queen Anne for assistance, and she promised to send five regiments of regular troops. These, with twelve hundred men raised in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, were to sail from Boston to Quebec.

A second division of one thousand eight hundred men, from colonies south of Rhode Island, were to march against Montreal, by way of Champlain ; but this project also failed, the land troops returning, after penetrating to Wood Creek, in consequence of learning that the naval armament, promised from England, had been directed to Portugal.

Sec. 12. The patience of the colonies was not yet exhausted. Another application was made to the Queen, and in July, 1710, Col. Nicholson came over with five frigates and a bomb ketch, for the purpose of reducing Port Royal. In this expedition, he was joined by five regiments of troops from New-England.

The armament, consisting of the above frigates, and between twenty and thirty transports, belonging to the colonies, sailed from Boston, September 18th. On the 24th, it reached Port Royal, which surrendered October 5th, and in honor of Queen Anne, was called *Annapolis*.

Animated with his success, Nicholson soon after sailed for England, to solicit another expedition against Canada. Contrary to the expectations of the colonies, the ministry acceded to the proposal, and orders were issued to the northern colonies to get ready their quotas of men.

Sixteen days after these orders arrived, a fleet of men of war and transports, under command of Sir Hovenden Walker, with seven regiments of the Duke of Marlborough's troops, and a battalion of marines, under Brigadier General Hill, sailed into Boston. But the fleet had neither provisions

nor pilots. Aided, however, by the prompt and active exertions of the colonies, on the 30th of July, the fleet, consisting of fifteen men of war, forty transports, and six store ships, with nearly seven thousand men, sailed from Boston for Canada.

Shortly after the departure of the fleet, General Nicholson proceeded from Albany towards Canada, at the head of four thousand men, from the colonies of Connecticut, New-York, and New-Jersey.

The fleet arrived in the St. Lawrence, August 14th. In proceeding up the river, through the unskilfulness of the pilots, and by contrary winds, it was in imminent danger of entire destruction. On the 22d, about midnight, the seamen discovered that they were driven on the north shore, among islands and rocks. Eight or nine of the British transports, on board of which were about one thousand seven hundred officers and soldiers, were cast away, and nearly one thousand men were lost. Upon this disaster, no further attempts were made to prosecute the expedition. The fleet sailed directly for England, and the provincial troops returned home. Gen. Nicholson, who had advanced to Lake George, hearing of the miscarriage of the expedition on the St. Lawrence, returned with the land forces, and abandoned the enterprise.

The failure of this expedition was unjustly imputed, by the mother country, wholly to New-England; nor did the colonies receive any credit for their vigorous exertions in raising men, and fitting out the fleet. The expedition was not, however, without a beneficial effect, as it probably prevented Annapolis from falling into the hands of the enemy.

Sec. 13. The spring of 1712 opened with new depredations of the enemy upon the frontier settlements. Oyster River, Exeter, York, Wells, &c., were again attacked and plundered. Many inhabitants in different parts of the country were murdered, although, in some portions of the colonies, one half of the militia were constantly on duty.

Sec. 14. The northern colonies were not alone in the distresses of Queen Anne's war. Carolina, then the southern frontier of the American colonies, had her full share in its expenses and sufferings.

Before official intelligence had been received of the declaration of war by England against France and Spain, in 1702, although war had actually been declared, Gov. Moore, of the southern settlements in Carolina, proposed to the assembly of the colony an expedition against the Spanish settlement of St. Augustine, Florida.

Although assured of its easy conquest, and of being amply rewarded by its treasures of gold and silver, numbers of the more considerate in the assembly were opposed to the expedition. A majority, however, being in favour of it, two thousand pounds were voted, and one thousand two hundred men were raised, of whom one half were Indians; but the expedition entirely failed.

With the forces above named, and some merchant vessels, impressed as transports, Gov. Moore sailed for St. Augustine. The design was for Col. Daniel, an enterprising officer, to proceed by the inland passage, and to attack the town by land, with a party of militia and Indians; while Moore was to proceed by sea, and take possession of the harbor. Daniel advanced against the town, entered, and plundered it, before the governor's arrival. The Spaniards, however, retired to the castle, with their principal riches, and with provisions for four months.

The governor, on his arrival, could effect nothing for want of artillery. In this emergency, Daniel was dispatched to Jamaica for cannon, mortars, &c. During his absence, two large Spanish ships appearing off the harbor, Gov. Moore hastily raised the siege, abandoned his shipping, and made a precipitate retreat into Carolina. Colonel Daniel, having no intelligence that the siege had been raised, on his return, stood in for the harbor, and narrowly escaped the ships of the enemy. In consequence of this rash and unfortunate enterprise, the colony was loaded with a debt of six thousand pounds, which gave rise to the first paper currency in Carolina, and was the means of filling the colony with dissension and tumult.

Sec. 15. The failure of this expedition was soon after in a measure, compensated by a successful

war with the Apalachian Indians, who, in consequence of their connexion with the Spaniards, became insolent and hostile. Gov. Moore, with a body of white men and Indian allies, marched into the heart of their country, and compelled them to submit to the English.

All the towns of the tribes between the rivers Altamaha and Savannah, were burnt, and between six hundred and eight hundred Indians were made prisoners.

Sec. 16. Although this enterprise was successful, new dangers soon threatened the colony. Its invasion was attempted, 1707, by the French and Spaniards, in order to annex Carolina to Florida. The expedition, headed by Le Feboure, consisted of a French frigate, and four armed sloops, having about eight hundred men on board. Owing to the prompt and vigorous measures of Johnson, who had superseded Moore as governor, the enemy were repulsed, and the threatened calamity averted.

No sooner was the intended invasion rumoured abroad, than preparations were commenced to repel the enemy. The militia were mustered and trained, and the fortifications of Charleston and other places repaired. These preparations were scarcely completed, before the fleet of the enemy appeared. Some time elapsed, however, before they crossed the bar, which enabled the governor to alarm the surrounding country, and to call in great numbers of the militia.

At length, with a fair wind, the enemy passed the bar, and sent a summons to the governor to surrender. Four hours were allowed him to return his answer. But the governor informed the messenger that he did not wish one minute. On the reception of this answer, the enemy seemed to hesitate, and attempted nothing that day.

The day succeeding, a party of the enemy, landing on James Island, burnt a village by the river's side. Another party of one hundred and sixty landed at Wando Neck. The next day, both these parties were dislodged; the latter party being surprised, and nearly all killed or taken prisoners.

This success so animated the Carolinians, that it was determined to attack the enemy by sea. This was attempted with a force of six vessels, under command of William Rhet, but on the appearance of Rhet, the enemy weighed anchor, and precipitately fled.

Some days succeeding this, Monsieur Arbuset appeared on the coast with a ship of force, and landed a number of men at Sewee Bay. Rhet sailed out against him, and, at the same time, Capt. Fenwick crossed the river, and marched to attack the enemy by land. After a brisk engagement, Fenwick took the enemy on land, prisoners, and Rhet succeeded in capturing the ship.

Sec. 17. In 1710, a large number of Palatines, inhabitants of a Palatinate, a small territory in Germany, whose governor or prince is called a Palatine, arrived and settled on the Roanoke, in Albemarle and Bath counties, within the boundaries of North Carolina. These were a great accession to the strength and numbers of the colony, which, although of sixty years standing, was exceedingly small.

The same year, near three thousand of the same people came to New-York. Some settled in that city and built the old Lutheran church; others settled on Livingston's manor. Some went into Pennsylvania, and at subsequent periods, were followed by many thousands of their countrymen.

Two years after the above settlers arrived in Carolina, and during Queen Anne's war, a plot was laid by the Corees and Tuscaroras, with other Indian tribes, to massacre the whole number. This plot was soon so far put in execution, that one hundred and seven settlers were butchered in their houses, in a single night. Information of their distress was speedily sent to Charleston; soon after which, Col. Barnwell, with six hundred militia and three hundred and fifty friendly Indians, explored their way through the intervening wilderness, and came to their relief. On his arrival, Col. B. surprised the Tuscaroras, kill-

ed three hundred of them, and made one hundred prisoners.

The surviving Indians fled to a town which had been fortified by the tribe; but here they were again attacked by Barnwell, who killed great numbers of them, and compelled the remainder to sue for peace. It is estimated that the Tuscaroras, in this war, lost one thousand of their number. The remainder of the tribe, early after the war, abandoned the country, and became united with the Five Nations, which since that time, have been called the *Six Nations*.

Sec. 18. The next year, March 31st, 1713, a treaty of peace was concluded at Utrecht, between England and France. This relieved the apprehensions of the northern part of the country, and put a welcome period to an expensive and distressing war. After the peace was known in America, the eastern Indians sent in a flag, and desired peace. The governor of Massachusetts, with his council, and with that of New-Hampshire, met them at Portsmouth, received their submission, and entered into terms of pacification.

By the above treaty between England and France, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were ceded to Great Britain. It was also stipulated, that "the subjects of France, inhabiting Canada, and other places, shall hereafter give no hindrance or molestation to the Five Nations, nor to the other nations of Indians who are friends to Great Britain." By the treaty, also, the French relinquished all claim to the Five Nations, and to all parts of their territories, and as far as respected themselves, entitled the British crown to the sovereignty of the country.

Sec. 19. The termination of Queen Anne's war gave peace to the northern colonies, but the contest with the Indians for some time continued to distress the Carolinians.

Scarcely had the people recovered from the above war with the Corees and Tuscaroras, before they were threatened with a calamity still greater and more general. The Yamosees, a powerful tribe of Indians, with all the Indian

tribes from Florida to Cape Fear river, formed a conspiracy for the total extirpation of the Carolinians. The 15th of April, 1715, was fixed upon as the day of general destruction.—Owing, however, to the wisdom, dispatch, and firmness of Governor Craven, and the blessing of Providence, the calamity was in a measure averted, and the colonies saved, though at the expense, during the war, of near four hundred of the inhabitants. The Yamosees were expelled the province, and took refuge among the Spaniards in Florida.

Sec. 20. In 1719, the government of Carolina, which till now had been proprietary, was changed, the charter was declared by the king's privy council to have been forfeited, and the colony, from this time, was taken under the royal protection, under which it continued till the American revolution.

The people had long been disgusted with the management of the proprietors, and were resolved, at all hazards, to execute their own laws, and defend the rights of the province. A subscription to this effect was drawn up, and generally signed.

On the meeting of the assembly, a committee was sent with this subscription to the governor, Robert Johnson, requesting him to accept the government of the province, under the king, instead of the proprietors.

Upon his refusal, the assembly chose Col. James Moore governor, under the crown, and on the 21st of December, 1719, the convention and militia marched to Charleston fort, and proclaimed Moore governor in his Majesty's name.

The Carolinians, having assumed the government; in behalf of the king, referred their complaints to the royal ear. On a full hearing of the case, the privy council adjudged that the proprietors had forfeited their charter. From this time, therefore, the colony, as stated above, was taken under the royal protection, under which it continued till the American revolution.

This change was followed, in 1729, by another nearly as important. This was an agreement between the proprietors and the crown, that the former should surrender to the crown their right and interest both to the government and soil, for the sum of seventeen thousand five hundred pounds sterling. This agreement being carried into effect,

the province was divided into North and South Carolina, each province having a distinct governor under the crown of England.

Sec. 21. It has been stated that peace was concluded by Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, with the eastern Indians, soon after the pacification at Utrecht, in 1713. This peace however was of short duration, dissatisfaction arising on the part of the Indians, because of the encroachments of the English on their lands, and because trading houses were not erected for the purchase of their commodities.

The governor of Massachusetts promised them redress; but the general court not carrying his stipulations into execution, the Indians became irritated, and, at the same time, being excited by the French Jesuits, were roused to war, which, in July, 1722, became general, and continued to distress the eastern settlements until 1725.

The tribes engaged in the war, were the Norridgewocks, Penobscots, St. Francois, Cape Sable, and St. John Indians. In June, 1725, hostilities ceased, soon after which a treaty was signed by the Indians, and was afterwards ratified by commissioners from Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Nova Scotia. This treaty was greatly applauded, and under it, owing to the more pacific feelings of the Indians, and the more faithful observance of its stipulations by the English, the colonies experienced unusual tranquillity for a long time.

Sec. 22. The settlement of GEORGIA was begun in 1733, and was named after King George II. of England, who was then on the throne. In the settlement of Georgia, two objects were principally in view—the relief of indigent inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, and the greater security of the Carolinas.

The charter was granted to twenty-one persons, under the title of trustees, and passed the seals June 9th, 1732.

The first settlers, one hundred and sixteen in number, embarked from England, in November of the same year, under General Oglethorpe. They landed at Charleston, whence they repaired to Savannah river, and commenced the town of that name.

The colony did not flourish for many years. In their regulations for its management, the trustees enacted that all lands granted by them to settlers should revert back, in case of the failure of male succession; although certain privileges were to be allowed to widows and daughters. At the same time, all trade with the Indians was prohibited, unless by virtue of special license. The use of negroes, and the importation of rum, were absolutely forbidden.

Although the trustees were actuated by the purest motives—by principles of humanity, and a regard to the health and morals of the inhabitants, this system of regulations was unfitted to the condition of the poor settlers, and was highly injurious to their increase and prosperity.

Emigrants, however, continued to arrive. The first adventurers, being poor and unenterprising, a more active and efficient race was desirable. To induce such to settle in the colony, eleven towns were laid out in shares of fifty acres each; one of which was offered to each new settler. Upon this, large numbers of Swiss, Scotch, and Germans, became adventurers to the colony. Within three years from the first settlement, one thousand four hundred planters had arrived.

To aid the colony, parliament made several grants of money; individuals also gave considerable sums for the same purpose; owing, however, to the impolitic regulations of the trustees, the colony maintained only a feeble existence.

Oglethorpe and his party arrived on the banks of the Savannah, on the first of February. For several days, the people were employed in erecting a fortification, and in felling the woods, while the general marked out the town. The first house was begun on the ninth, and the town, after the Indian name of the river, was called Savannah. The fort being completed, the guns mounted, and the colony put in a state of safety, the next object of Oglethorpe's attention was to treat with the Indians, for a share of their possessions. In his intercourse with the Indians, he was greatly assisted by an Indian woman, whom he found at Savannah, by the name of Mary Musgrove. She had resided among the English, in another part of the country,

and was well acquainted with their language. She was of great use therefore to Gen. Oglethorpe as an interpreter, for which service he gave her a hundred pounds a year.

Among those who came over with Gen. Oglethorpe, was a man by the name of Thomas Bosomworth, who was the chaplain of the colony. Soon after his arrival at Savannah, he married the above mentioned Mary Musgrove. Unhappily, Bosomworth was at heart a bad man, though by profession a minister of the gospel. He was distinguished for his pride and love of riches and influence. At the same time, he was artful and intriguing; yet on account of his profession, he was, for a time, much respected by the Indians. At one of the great councils of the Indians, this artful man induced the chiefs to crown Malatche, one of the greatest among them, emperor of all the Creeks. After this, he made his wife call herself the eldest sister of Malatche, and she told the Indians, that one of her grandfathers had been made king by the Great Spirit, over all the Creeks. The Indians believed what Mary told them, for they had become very proud of her since Gen. Oglethorpe had taken so much notice of her, and had been so kind to her, and they acknowledged her for their queen. They called a great meeting of the chiefs, and Mary made them a long talk. She told them, that the whites were their enemies, and had done them much injury—that they were getting away the lands of the Indians, and would soon drive them from all their possessions. Said she, “we must assert our rights—we must arm ourselves against them—we must drive them from our territories. Let us call forth our warriors—I will head them. Stand by me, and the houses which they have erected shall smoke in ruins.” The spirit of Queen Mary was contagious. Every chief present declared himself ready to defend her to the last drop of his blood.

After due preparation, the warriors were called forth. They had painted themselves afresh, and sharpened anew their tomahawks for the battle. Their march was now commenced. Queen Mary, attended by her infamous husband, the real author and instigator of all their discontent, headed the savage throng. Before they reached Savannah, their approach was announced. The people were justly alarmed. They were few in number, and though they had a fortification and cannon, they had no good reason to hope, that they should be able to ward off the deadly blow, which was aimed against them.

By this time, the savages were in sight of Savannah. At this critical moment, an Englishman, by the name of Noble Jones, a bold and daring man, rode forth, with a few spirited men on horseback, to meet them. As he approached them, he exclaimed in a voice like thunder, "Ground your arms! ground your arms! not an armed Indian shall set his foot in this town." Awe-struck at his lofty tone, and perceiving him and his companions ready to dash in among them, they paused, and soon after laid down their arms. Bosomworth and his queen were now summoned to march into the city—the Indian chiefs were also allowed to enter, but without their arms. On reaching the parade ground, the thunder of fifteen cannon, fired at the same moment, told them what they might expect, should they persist in their hostile designs. The Indians were now marched to the house of the president of the council in Savannah. Bosomworth was required to leave the Indians, while the president had a friendly talk with them.

In his address to them, he assured them of the kindness of the English, and demanded what they meant by coming in this warlike manner. In reply, they told the president that they had heard that Mary was to be sent over the great waters, and they had come to learn why they were to lose their queen. Finding that the Indians had been deceived, and that Bosomworth was the author of all the trouble, and that he had even intended to get possession of the magazine, and to destroy the whites, the council directed him to be seized, and thrown into prison. This step, Mary resented with great spirit. Rushing forth among the Indians, she openly cursed Gen. Oglethorpe, although he had raised her from poverty and distress, and declared that the whole world should know, that the ground she trod upon was her own. The warlike spirit of the Indians, being thus likely to be renewed, it was thought advisable to imprison Mary also. This was accordingly done. At the same time, to appease the Indians, a sumptuous feast was made for the chiefs by the president, who during the better state of feeling, which seemed to prevail, took occasion to explain to them the wickedness of Bosomworth, and how, by falsehood and cunning, he had led them to believe that Mary was really their queen—a descendant of one of their great chiefs. "Brothers," said he, "this is not true—Queen Mary is no other than Mary Musgrove, whom I found poor, and who has been made the dupe of the artful Bosomworth, and you, brothers, the dupes of both."

The aspect of things was now pleasant. The Indians were beginning to be satisfied of the villany of Bosomworth, and of the real character of Mary; but, at this moment, the door was thrown open, and to the surprise of all, Mary burst into the room. She had made her escape from prison, and learning what was going on, she rushed forward with the fury of a tigress. "Seize your arms!" exclaimed she, "seize your arms! remember your promise, and defend your queen." The sight of their queen seemed to bring back, in a moment, all the original ardor of the enterprise. In an instant, every chief seized his tomahawk, and sprang from the ground to rally, at the call of their queen.

At this moment, Capt. Jones, who was present, perceiving the danger of the president and the other whites, drew his sword, and demanded peace. The majesty of his countenance—the fire of his eye—the glittering of his sword, told Queen Mary what she might expect, should she attempt to raise any higher the feverish spirits of her subjects. The Indians cast an eye towards her, as if to inquire what they should do. Her countenance fell. Perceiving his advantage, Jones stepped forward, and in the presence of the Indians seized Mary, and conducted her back to prison.

A short imprisonment so far humbled both Bosomworth and Mary, that each wrote a letter, confessing what they had done, and promising, if released, that they would conduct with more propriety in future. The people kindly forgave them both, and they left the city. But they did not perform their promise. Bosomworth again tried to make Mary queen, and to get possession of three large islands called Ossalaw, Sapelo, and St. Catharine's. He pretended, that they had been given to him by the Indians. Finding, however, that he could not sustain his claim, he went over to England with Mary, and there instituted a lawsuit for their recovery. At length, having obtained St. Catharine's island, by a judgment of the court, he returned with his wife, and took up his residence on that island. Here Mary died; some time after which Bosomworth married one of his own servants, who did not survive him. At length, he finished his own inglorious life, and was buried between his two wives upon the island, which had cost him so much trouble.

Sec. 23. Upon the declaration of war by Eng-

and against Spain, Oglethorpe was appointed, 1740, to the chief command in South Carolina and Georgia. Soon after his appointment, he projected an expedition against St. Augustine. Aided by Virginia and Carolina, he marched at the head of more than two thousand men, for Florida, and after taking two small Spanish forts, Diego, and Moosa, he sat down before St. Augustine. Capt. Price, with several twenty gun ships, assisted by sea; but after all their exertions, the general was forced to raise the siege, and return with considerable loss.

Sec. 24. Two years after, 1742, the Spaniards invaded Georgia, in turn. A Spanish armament, consisting of thirty-two sail, with three thousand men, under command of Don Manuel de Montano, sailed from St. Augustine, and arrived in the river Altamaha. The expedition, although fitted out at great expense, failed of accomplishing its object.

General Oglethorpe was, at this time, at Fort Simons. Finding himself unable to retain possession of it, having but about seven hundred men, he spiked his cannon, and, destroying his military stores, retreated to his head-quarters at Frederica.

On the first prospect of an invasion, Gen. Oglethorpe had applied to the governor of South Carolina for assistance, but the Carolinians, fearing for the safety of their own territory, and not approving of Gen. Oglethorpe's management in his late expedition against St. Augustine, declined furnishing troops, but voted supplies.

In this state of danger and perplexity, the general resorted to stratagem. A French soldier belonging to his army had deserted to the enemy. Fearing the consequences of their learning his weakness, he devised a plan by which to destroy the credit of any information that the deserter might give.

With this view, he wrote a letter to the French deserter in the Spanish camp, addressing him as if he were a spy of the English. This letter he bribed a Spanish captive to de-

liver, in which he directed the deserter to state to the Spaniards, that he was in a weak and defenceless condition, and to urge them on to an attack.

Should he not be able, however, to persuade them to this, he wished him to induce them to continue three days longer at their quarters, in which time, he expected two thousand men, and six British men of war, from Carolina. The above letter, as was intended, was delivered to the Spanish general, instead of the deserter, who immediately put the latter in irons.

A council of war was called, and while deliberating upon the measures which should be taken, three supply ships, which had been voted by Carolina, appeared in sight. Imagining these to be the men of war alluded to in the letter, the Spaniards, in great haste, fired the fort, and embarked, leaving behind them several cannon, and a quantity of provisions. By this artful, but unjustifiable expedient, the country was relieved of its invaders, and Georgia, and probably a great part of South Carolina, saved from ruin.

Sec. 25. In 1752, the colony, continuing in a languishing condition, although parliament had at different times given them nearly one hundred thousand pounds, and many complaints having been made against the system of regulations adopted by the trustees, they surrendered their charter to the crown, upon which the government became regal. In 1755, a general court was established.

Sec. 26. March 29th, 1744, *Great Britain, under George II., declared war against France and Spain.* The most important event of this war, in America, was the capture of Louisburg from the French, by the New-England colonies, under command of Sir William Pepperell.

After the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the French had built Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, as a security to their navigation and fishery, and had fortified it at an expense of five millions and a half of dollars. The fortifications consisted of a rampart of stone, nearly thirty-six feet in height, and a ditch eighty feet wide. There were six bastions, and three batteries, with embrasures for one hundred

and forty-eight cannon, and six mortars. On an island, at the entrance of the harbor, was another battery of thirty cannon, carrying twenty-eight pounds shot; and at the bottom of the harbor, opposite the entrance, was situated the royal battery of twenty-eight forty-two pounders, and two eighteen pounders. The entrance of the town, on the land side, was at the west, over a draw-bridge, near which was a circular battery, mounting sixteen guns of twenty-four pounds shot. These works had been twenty-five years in building, and though not entirely completed, were of such strength, that the place was sometimes called the "Gibraltar of America."

The acquisition of this place was deemed eminently important to New-England, since, while in possession of the French, it had furnished a safe and convenient retreat to such privateers as disturbed and captured the inhabitants of the colonies employed in the fisheries.

Impressed with the necessity of measures to secure this fortress, Gov. Shirley, of Massachusetts, had solicited the assistance of the British ministry, for the acquisition of Cape Breton. Early in January, 1745, before receiving an answer to his letters to England, he communicated to the general court, under an oath of secrecy, a plan which he had formed, for an attack on Louisburg. To this plan strong objections were urged, and the proposal of the governor was at first rejected; but upon reconsideration, it was carried by a majority of a single voice. Circulars were immediately addressed to the colonies, as far south as Pennsylvania, requesting their assistance, and that an embargo might be laid on all their ports. The New-England colonies only, however, were concerned in the expedition. Of the forces raised, Massachusetts furnished three thousand two hundred and fifty; Connecticut five hundred and sixteen; Rhode Island and New-Hampshire, each three hundred. The naval force consisted of twelve ships and vessels. In two months the army was enlisted, victualled, and equipped for service.

On the twenty-third of March, an express-boat, which had been sent to Com. Warren, in the West Indies, to invite his co-operation, returned to Boston, with advices from him, that as the contemplated expedition was a colonial affair, without orders from England, he must excuse himself from any concern in the enterprise. This intelligence was pecu-

liarily unwelcome, but the governor and general concealing the tenor of the advice, the army was embarked, and the next morning the fleet sailed. On the fourth of April, the fleet and army arrived in safety at Canso, where they were joined by the troops from New-Hampshire, and soon after, by those from Connecticut.

Most unexpectedly to the general, Com. Warren, with his fleet, arrived at Canso, having, soon after his advices by the express boat to Gov. Shirley, received orders to repair to North America, and to concert measures with the governor for his majesty's service. Hearing that the fleet had sailed for Canso, he proceeded directly for that port. Great was the joy which pervaded the whole fleet and camp, on the arrival of this important auxiliary force. After a short consultation with Gen. Pepperell, Com. Warren sailed to cruise before Louisburg, and, not long after, was followed by the fleet and army, which, on the thirtieth of April, arrived in Chapearouge bay. The enemy were, until this moment, in profound ignorance that any attack was meditated against them.

The sight of the transports gave the alarm to the French, and a detachment was sent to oppose the landing of the troops. But, while the general diverted the attention of the enemy by a feint at one place, he was landing his men at another.

The next morning, four hundred of the English marched round behind the hills to the north-east harbor, setting fire to all the houses and stores, till they came within a mile of the royal battery. The conflagration of the stores, in which was a considerable quantity of tar, concealed the English troops, at the same time that it increased the alarm of the French so greatly, that they precipitately abandoned the royal battery. Upon their flight, the English took possession of it, and by means of a well directed fire from it, seriously damaged the town.

The main body of the army now commenced the siege. For fourteen nights they were occupied in drawing cannon towards the town, over a morass, in which oxen and horses could not be used. Incredible was the toil; but what could not men accomplish, who had been accustomed to draw the pines of the forests for masts? By the 20th of May, several fascine batteries had been erected, one of which mounted five forty-two pounders. On opening these batteries, they did great execution.

In the mean time, Com. Warren captured the *Vigilant*,

a French ship of seventy-four guns, and with her five hundred and sixty men, together with great quantities of military stores. This capture was of great consequence, as it not only increased the English force, and added to their military supplies, but as it seriously lessened the strength of the enemy. Shortly after this capture, the number of the English fleet was considerably augmented by the arrival of several men of war. A combined attack by sea and land was now determined on, and fixed for the 18th of June.

Previously to the arrival of this additional naval force, much had been accomplished towards the reduction of the place. The inland battery had been silenced; the western gate of the town was beaten down, and a breach effected in the wall; the circular battery of sixteen guns was nearly ruined, and the western flank of the king's bastion was nearly demolished.

Such being the injured state of the works, and perceiving preparations making for a joint assault, to sustain which little prospect remained, on the fifteenth the enemy desired a cessation of hostilities, and on the seventeenth of June, after a siege of forty-nine days, the city of Louisburg, and the island of Cape Breton, were surrendered to his Britannic majesty.

Thus successfully terminated a daring expedition, which had been undertaken without the knowledge of the mother country. The acquisition of the fortress of Louisburg was as useful and important to the colonies, and to the British empire, as its reduction was surprising to that empire and mortifying to the court of France.

Besides the stores and prizes which fell into the hands of the English, which were estimated at little less than a million sterling, security was given to the colonies in their fisheries; Nova Scotia was preserved, and the trade and fisheries of France nearly ruined.

Sec. 27. The capture of Louisburg roused the court of France to seek revenge. Under the Duke D'Anville, a nobleman of great courage, an armament was sent to America, 1746, consisting of forty ships of war, fifty-six transports, with three thousand five hundred men, and forty thousand stands of arms for the use of the French and Indians in Canada. The object of this expedition was to recover possession of Cape Breton, and to

attack the colonies. A merciful Providence, however averted the blow, and by delaying the fleet, and afterwards disabling it in a storm, blasted the hopes of the enemy.

Great was the consternation of the colonies, when the news arrived that the French fleet was near the American coast, and greatly increased, on learning that no English fleet was in quest of it.

Several ships of this formidable French fleet were damaged by storms; others were lost, and one forced to return to Brest, on account of a malignant disease among her crew. Two or three only of the ships, with a few of the transports, arrived at Chebucto, now Halifax. Here the admiral died, through mortification; or, as some say, by poison. The vice-admiral came to a similar tragical death by running himself through the body. That part of the fleet that arrived sailed with a view to attack Annapolis, but a storm scattered them, and prevented the accomplishment of this object.

Sec. 28. In April, 1748, preliminaries of peace were signed between France and England, at Aix la Chapelle, soon after which, hostilities ceased. The definitive treaty was signed in October. Prisoners on all sides were to be released without ransom, and all conquests made during the war, were to be mutually restored.

NOTES.

Sec. 29. **MANNERS OF THE COLONISTS.** The colonies were now peopled with inhabitants, by far the greater part of whom were born and educated in America. And although the first settlers were collected from most, or all, the countries of Europe, and emigrants from various nations continued to flock to America, still we may observe, during this period, a gradual assimilation of national manners and character. The peculiarities of each class became less distinct by intercourse with the others, and every succeeding generation seemed





Siege of Louisburg. P. 155.



*Surrender of the Royal Battery at Louisburg.
P. 155.*

to exhibit, less strikingly, those traits which distinguished the preceding.

Although this is true with respect to the American colonies generally, there were some exceptions. Some villages, or territories, being settled exclusively by emigrants speaking a different language from that generally spoken—as the Germans, for example—or entertaining some peculiar religious notions—as the Quakers—still preserved their own peculiar manners.

But, in attempting to ascribe some general character to the people of the colonies during this period, we might consider them, as during our second period, on the whole, exhibiting three varieties; viz. the rigid puritan English of the north—the Dutch in New-York—and the luxurious English of the south. The austerity of the north was, however, much relaxed. The elegant varieties of life, which before had been prohibited, were tolerated, and the refinements of polished society appeared among the higher classes. The strong lines of Dutch manners in New-York were slowly disappearing, under an English government, and by means of the settlement of English among them. The manners of the south were assuming an aspect of more refinement, particularly among the higher classes—but showed little other change.

Sec. 30. RELIGION. During this period, the spirit of religious bigotry and intolerance may be observed to have abated in a very considerable degree. The conduct of those sects, which had called forth those severe and unjustifiable restrictions upon the freedom of religious worship, had become less offensive and exceptionable; and at the close of this period, religious persecution had ceased in all the colonies, and the rights of conscience were generally recognized.

In 1692, the *Mennonites* were introduced into Pennsylvania, and settled at Germantown. Their increase, however, has been small.

In 1719, the *Tunkers*, or General Baptists, arrived at Philadelphia, and dispersed themselves into several parts of Pennsylvania.

In 1741, the *Moravians* were introduced into America,

by Count Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. Regularity, industry, ingenuity, and economy, are characteristic of this people. They have considerably increased, and are a respectable body of Christians.

The *German Lutherans* were first introduced into the American colonies during this period, and settled principally in Pennsylvania and New-York.

Episcopacy was considerably extended during this period. In 1693, it was introduced into New-York; into New-Jersey and Rhode Island in 1702; into South Carolina in 1703, by law; in Connecticut in 1704.

In 1708, the Saybrook Platform was formed by a Synod composed of congregational ministers, under authority of the legislature of Connecticut.

About the year 1737, a revival of religion very extensively prevailed in New-England. At this time, great numbers united themselves to the church, and testified by their conduct through life the genuineness of their profession.

The celebrated Whitfield came to America about the year 1740, and produced great religious excitement by his singular powers of pulpit eloquence. He did not found any peculiar sect in this country, although he gave rise to that of the *Calvinistic Methodists* in England.

Sec. 31. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Although the trade of the colonies began to feel the restrictions imposed upon it by the mother country, still it steadily increased during this period.

From the very commencement of the colonies, the mother country was not without her jealousies, respecting their increase in population, trade, and manufactures. Inquiries on these points were instituted, and opportunities sought to keep in check the spirit of colonial enterprise. Laws were enacted from time to time, designed and calculated not only to make the colonies depend on the mother country for her manufactures, but also to limit their trade and commerce, and keep them in safe subjection to England.

As illustrating this course of policy, we may notice several laws of parliament. In 1732, an act was passed, prohibiting "the exportation of hats out of the plantations of America, and to restrain the number of apprentices taken by hat makers." So also the act of 1750, prohibited, on penalty of two hundred pounds, "the erection of any mill for slitting, or rolling of iron, or any plating forge to work

with a tilt hammer; or any furnace for making steel, in any of the colonies." At the same time, encouragement was given to export *pig* and *bar* iron to England for her manufactories. In like manner was prohibited the exportation from one province to another by water, and even the carriage by land, on horseback, or in a cart, of all wools and woollen goods of the produce of America. The colonies were also compelled by law to procure many articles from England, which they could have purchased twenty per cent. cheaper in other markets.

But, notwithstanding these restrictions, trade and commerce gradually and steadily increased. To England, the colonies exported lumber of all sorts, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, oil, rosin, copper ore, pig and bar iron, whale fins, tobacco, rice, fish, indigo, flax seed, beeswax, raw silk, &c. They also built many vessels, which were sold in the mother country.

But the importation of goods from England, in consequence of the course pursued by the British government, was still much greater than the amount of the exports to England. In 1728, Sir William Keith stated that the colonies then consumed one sixth part of all the woollen manufactures exported from Great Britain, and more than double that value in linen and calicoes; also great quantities of English manufactured silks, small wares, household furniture, trinkets, and a very considerable value in East India goods. From 1739 to 1756. this importation of goods from England, amounted to one million of pounds sterling annually, on an average.

But, if the amount of imports from Great Britain was thus more than the colonies exported thither, they would fall in debt to England. How did they pay this balance of trade against them? It was done by gold and silver obtained chiefly from the West India settlements, to which they exported lumber, fish of an inferior quality, beef, pork, butter, horses, poultry, and other live stock, an inferior kind of tobacco, corn, cider, apples, cabbages, onions, &c. They built also many small vessels, which found a ready market.

The cod and whale fisheries were becoming considerable; they were principally carried on by New-England. The codfish were sold in Spain, France, England, the West Indies, &c.; and the money obtained for them aided the colonies in paying the balance of trade against them in England.

Sec. 32. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture, during this period, was greatly improved and extended.

Immense tracts of forests were cleared, and more enlightened modes of husbandry were introduced. The number of articles produced by agriculture was also increased.

The colonies now not only raised a sufficient supply of food for their own use, but their exports became great. Wheat and other English grain were the principal products of the middle colonies; grain, beef, pork, horses, butter, cheese, &c. were the chief products of the northern colonies; tobacco, wheat, and rice, were the principal products of the south.

In the south, also, large numbers of swine ran wild in the forests, living upon mast. These were taken, salted down, and exported to a considerable extent.

Sec. 33. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. Under the head of commerce, we have noticed the obstacles interposed by Great Britain, to the progress of arts and manufactures. Notwithstanding these, however, the coarser kinds of cutlery, some coarse cloths, both linen and woollen, hats, paper, shoes, household furniture, farming utensils, &c. were manufactured to a considerable extent; not sufficient, however, to supply the inhabitants. All these manufactories were on a small scale; cloths were made in some families, for their own consumption.

The art of printing made considerable progress during this period. A newspaper, the first in North America, called *The Boston Weekly News-Letter*, was established in 1704. Before the close of this period, ten other were established—four in New-England; two in New-York; two in Pennsylvania; one in South Carolina; and one in Maryland. The number of books published was also considerable, although they were executed in a coarse style, and were generally books of devotion, or for the purposes of education.

Sec. 34. POPULATION. At the expiration of our second period, we estimated the population of the English colonies in America at 200,000 souls. About the close of our third period,

Franklin calculated that there were then one million or upwards, and that scarce 80,000 had been brought over sea.

This estimate of the population of America very nearly accords with an estimate made in London from "authentic authorities," May, 1755, which is as follows:

New-Hampshire,	30,000	New-York,	100,000
Massachusetts Bay,	220,000	The Jerseys,	60,000
R. Island and Provi- } dence Plantations, }	35,000	Pennsylvania,	250,000
Connecticut,	100,000	Maryland,	85,000
	—————	Virginia,	85,000
New-England,	385,000	North Carolina,	45,000
Mid. and S. Colonies,	661,000	South Carolina,	30,000
	—————	Georgia,	6,000
			—————
Total,	1,046,000		661,000
	—————		—————

Sec. 35. EDUCATION. The southern colonies continued to treat the subject of education differently from the northern colonies, in this respect; in the north, one of the first objects of legislation was to provide for the education of *all classes*; in the south, the education of the higher classes only was an object of public attention.

The first public institution for the purposes of education, which succeeded in the south, was that of William and Mary College, in Virginia, established in 1692, by the sovereigns whose names it bears.

Yale College, in Connecticut, was commenced in 1700—eleven of the principal ministers in the neighboring towns, who had been appointed to adopt such measures as they should deem expedient, on the subject of a college—agreeing to found one in the colony. The next year, the legislature granted them a charter. The college was begun at Saybrook, where was held the first commencement, in 1702. In 1717, it was removed to New-Haven, where it became permanently established. It was named after the Hon. Elihu Yale, governor of the East India Company, who was its principal benefactor.

The college at Princeton, New-Jersey, called "Nassau

Hall," was first founded by charter from John Hamilton, Esq., president of the council, about the year 1738, and was enlarged by Gov. Belcher, in 1747.

REFLECTIONS.

Sec. 36. The history of this period presents the North American colonies to our view, at the same time that they were visited with cruel and desolating wars, still advancing in population, extending their commerce, forming new settlements, enlarging the boundaries of their territory, and laying wider and deeper the foundations of a future nation. And, while we look back, with admiration, upon the hardy spirit which carried our ancestors through scenes so trying, and enabled them to reap prosperity from the crimsoned fields of battle and bloodshed, let us be thankful that our lot is cast in a happier day; and that instead of sharing in the perils of feeble colonies, we enjoy the protection and privileges of a free and powerful nation.

In addition to the reflections subjoined to the account which we have given of the "Salem witchcraft," we may add another, respecting the danger of *popular delusion*. In that portion of our history, we see a kind of madness rising up, and soon stretching its influence over a whole community. And such, too, is the pervading power of the spell, that the wise and ignorant, the good and bad, are alike subject to its control, and, for the time, alike incapable of judging, or reasoning aright. Now, whenever we see a community divided into parties, and agitated by some general excitement—when we feel ourselves borne along on one side or the other, by the popular tide, let us inquire whether we are not acting under the influence of a delusion, which a few years, perhaps a few months, or days, may dispel and expose. Nor, at such a time, let us regard our sincerity, or our consciousness of integrity, or the seeming clearness and certainty of our reasonings, as furnishing an absolute assurance that, after all, we do not mistake, and that our opponents are not right.

Another reflection of some importance, and one that may serve to guard us against censuring, too severely, the wise and good, is suggested by this account of the "Salem witchcraft." It is this, that the best men are liable to err. We should not, therefore, condemn, nor should we withhold our charity from those who fall into occasional error, provided their characters are, in other respects, such as to lay claim to our good opinion.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD IV.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

Extending from the Declaration of War by England against France, 1756, to the Commencement of Hostilities by Great Britain against the American Colonies, in the Battle of Lexington, 1775.

Sec. 1. The war, which ended in the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, had been highly injurious to the general prosperity of his Majesty's Colonies in America; and the return of peace found them in a state of impoverishment and distress. Great losses had been sustained in their commerce, and many of their vessels had been seized on the coast by privateers. Bills of credit to the amount of several millions, had been issued to carry on the war, which they were now unable to redeem, and the losses of men in various expeditions against the enemy, had seriously retarded the increase of population.

The expenses of the northern colonies, including New-England and New-York, during the war, were estimated at not less than one million pounds sterling. Massachusetts alone is said to have paid half this sum, and to have expended nearly four hundred thousand pounds, in the expedition against Cape Breton. The expenses of Carolina, for the war in that quarter, were not less in proportion.

To supply the deficiency of money, bills of credit were issued to the amount of several millions. The bills issued by Massachusetts during two or three years of the war,

amounted to between two and three millions currency; while at the time of their emission, five or six hundred pounds were equal to only one hundred pounds sterling. Before the complete redemption of these bills, says Dr. Trumbull, in those colonies, where their credit was best supported, the depreciation was nearly *twenty for one*.

The losses sustained by the colonies, in the fall of many of their bravest men, during this and the last Indian war, were severely felt. From 1722 to 1749, a period of twenty-seven years, the losses of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire equalled the whole increase of their numbers; whereas, in the natural course of population, their numbers would have more than doubled.

Such, in few words, was the general state of the colonies, at the close of this war. The return of peace was hailed as the harbinger of better days, and the enterprising spirit of the people soon exerted itself to repair the losses, which had been sustained. Commerce, therefore, again flourished; population increased; settlements were extended; and the publick credit revived.

Sec. 2. Scarcely, however, had the colonies time to reap the benefits of peace, before the prospect was clouded, and the sound of approaching war filled the land with general anxiety and distress. After an interval of only about eight years, from 1748 to May 18th, 1756, Great Britain, under George II., formally declared war against France, which declaration was reciprocated on the ninth of June, by a similar declaration on the part of France, under Louis XV., against Great Britain.

The *general* cause, leading to this war, commonly called the "*French and Indian war*," was the alleged encroachments of the French, upon the frontiers of the colonies in America, belonging to the English rown.

These encroachments were made upon Nova Scotia in the east, which had been ceded to Great Britain by the

12th article of the treaty of Utrecht, but to a considerable part of which the French laid claim, and, in several places, were erecting fortifications. In the north and west, they were settling and fortifying Crown Point, and, in the west, were not only attempting to complete a line of forts from the head of the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi, but were encroaching far on Virginia.

The circumstances which served to open the war, was the alleged intrusion of the *Ohio Company* upon the territory of the French. This company consisted of a number of influential men, from London and Virginia, who had obtained a charter grant of six hundred thousand acres of land, on and near the river Ohio, for the purpose of carrying on the fur trade with the Indians, and of settling the country.

The governor of Canada had early intelligence of the transactions of this company. Fearing that their plan would deprive the French of the advantages of the fur trade, and prevent communications between Canada and Louisiana, he wrote to the governor of New-York and Pennsylvania, claiming the country east of the Ohio to the Alleghanies, and forbidding the further encroachments of the English traders.

As yet, the Pennsylvanians had principally managed the trade with the Indians. But, being now about to be deprived of it, by the Ohio Company, who were opening a road to the Potomac, they excited the fears of the Indians, lest their lands should be taken from them, and gave early intelligence to the French, of the designs and transactions of the company.

The French governor soon manifested his hostile determination, by seizing several of the English traders, and carrying them to a French port on the south of Lake Erie. —The Twightwees, a tribe of Indians in Ohio, near Miami river, among whom the English had been trading, resented the seizure, and, by way of retaliation, took several French traders, and sent them to Pennsylvania.

In the mean time, a communication was open-

ed along the French Creek and Allegany river, between Fort Presqu' Ile, on Lake Erie, and the Ohio; and French troops were stationed at convenient distances, secured by temporary fortifications.

The Ohio Company, thus threatened with the destruction of their trade, were now loud in their complaints. Dinwiddie, lieutenant governor of Virginia, to whom these complaints were addressed, laid the subject before the assembly, which ordered a messenger to be dispatched to the French commandant on the Ohio, to demand the reasons of his hostile conduct, and to summon the French to evacuate their forts in that region.

Sec. 3. The person entrusted with this service was *George Washington*, who at the early age of twenty-one, thus stepped forth in the publick cause, and began that line of services, which ended in the independence of his country.

The service to which Washington was now appointed, was both difficult and dangerous; the place of his destination being above four hundred miles distant, two hundred of which lay through a trackless desert inhabited by Indians. He arrived in safety, however, and delivered a letter from Gov. Dinwiddie to the commandant. Having received a written answer, and secretly taken the dimensions of the fort, he returned. The reply of the commandant to Gov. Dinwiddie was, that he had taken possession of the country, under the direction of the governor-general of Canada, to whom he would transmit his letter, and whose orders only he would obey.

Sec. 4. The British ministry, on being made acquainted with the claims, conduct, and determination of the French, without a formal decla-

ration of war, instructed the Virginians to resist their encroachments by force of arms. Accordingly, a regiment was raised in Virginia, which was joined by an independent company from South Carolina, and with this force Washington, who was appointed to command the expedition, and was now raised from the rank of major to that of colonel, marched early in April, 1754, towards the Great Meadows, lying within the disputed territories, for the purpose of expelling the French. The enterprize of Washington and his troops was highly creditable to them, but the French forces being considerably superior, he was obliged to capitulate, with the privilege, however, of returning with his troops to Virginia.

On his arrival at the Great Meadows, he learned that the French had dispossessed some Virginians of a fortification, which the latter were erecting for the Ohio Company, at the confluence of the Allegany and Monongahela, and were engaged in completing it, for their own use. He also learned, that a detachment from that place, then on its march towards the Great Meadows, had encamped for the night, in a low and retired situation.

Under the guidance of some friendly Indians, and under cover of a dark and rainy night, this party he surprised and captured. Having erected, at the Great Meadows, a small stockade fort, afterwards called Fort Necessity, he proceeded with his troops, reinforced by troops from New-York, and others from South Carolina, to nearly four hundred men, towards the French fort, Du Quesne, now Pittsburg, with the intention of dislodging the enemy. Hearing, however, that the enemy were approaching, he judged it prudent to retire to Fort Necessity. Here the enemy, one thousand five hundred strong, under the command of M. de Villiers, soon appeared, and commenced a furious attack on the fort. After an engagement of several hours, de Villiers demanded a parley, and offered terms of capitulation. These terms were rejected; but during the night, July 4th, articles were signed, by which Washington was permitted, upon surrendering the fort, to march with his troops, unmolested, to Virginia.

Such was the beginning of open hostilities, which were succeeded by a series of other hostilities characterized by the spirit and manner of war, although the formal declaration of war was not made until 1756, two years after, as already mentioned.

Sec. 5. The British ministry, perceiving war to be inevitable, recommended to the British colonies in America, to unite in some scheme for their common defence. Accordingly, a convention of delegates from Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, with the lieutenant governor and council of New-York, was held at Albany, this year, 1754, and a plan of union adopted, resembling, in several of its features, the present constitution of the United States.

But the plan met with the approbation, neither of the provincial assemblies, nor the king's council. By the former, it was rejected, because it gave too much power to the crown; and by the latter, because it gave too much power to the people.

According to this plan, a grand council was to be formed, of members chosen by the provincial assemblies, and sent from all the colonies; which council, with a governor general, appointed by the crown, and having a negative voice, should be empowered to make general laws, to raise money in all the colonies for their defence, to call forth troops, regulate trade, lay duties, &c. &c.

The plan, thus matured, was approved and signed, on the fourth of July, the day that Washington surrendered Fort Necessity, and twenty-two years before the declaration of Independence, by all the delegates, excepting those from Connecticut, who objected to the negative voice of the governor general.

One circumstance, in the history of this plan, deserves here to be recorded, as evincing the dawning spirit of the revolution. Although the plan was rejected by the provincial assemblies, they declared, without reserve, that if it

were adopted, they would undertake to defend themselves from the French, without any assistance from Great Britain. They required, but to be left to employ their supplies in their own way, to effect their security and predominance.

The mother country was too jealous to trust such powers with the Americans; but she proposed another plan, designed to lay a foundation for the perpetual dependence and slavery of the colonies. This plan was, that the governors, with one, or more of their council, should form a convention to concert measures for the general defence, to erect fortifications, raise men, &c. &c. with power to draw upon the British treasury, to defray all charges; which charges should be reimbursed *by taxes upon the colonies, imposed by acts of parliament.* But to allow the British government the right of taxation—to lay the colonies under the obligations of a debt to be thus liquidated—to subject themselves to the rapacity of king's collectors, we scarcely need say, was a proposal which met with universal disapprobation.

Sec. 6. Early in the spring of 1755, preparations were made, by the colonies, for vigorous exertions against the enemy. Four expeditions were planned. *One* against the French in Nova Scotia; a *second* against the French on the Ohio; a *third* against Crown Point; and a *fourth* against Niagara.

Sec. 7. The expedition against *Nova Scotia*, consisting of three thousand men, chiefly from Massachusetts, was led by Gen. Monckton and Gen. Winslow. With these troops, they sailed from Boston, May 20th, and on the 1st of June, arrived at Chignecto, on the bay of Fundy. After being joined by three hundred British troops, and a small train of artillery, they proceeded against fort Beau Sejour, which, after four days investment, surrendered. The name of the fort was now changed to that of Cumberland. From this place Gen. Monckton proceeded further into the country, took other forts in possession of the French, and disarmed the inhabitants. By this successful expedition, the English possessed them-

selves of the whole country of Nova Scotia, a part of which, as already noticed, the French claimed; its tranquillity was restored, and upon a permanent basis.

In this whole expedition, the English took but twenty men. Large quantities of provisions and military stores fell into their hands, with a number of valuable cannon.

The French force in Nova Scotia being subdued, a difficult question occurred, respecting the disposal to be made of the inhabitants. Fearing that they might join the French in Canada, whom they had before furnished with intelligence, quarters, and provisions, it was determined to disperse them among the English colonies. Under this order, one thousand nine hundred were thus dispersed.

Sec. 8. The expedition against the French, *on the Ohio*, was led by Gen. Braddock, a British officer, who commenced his march from Virginia, in June, with about two thousand men. Apprehensive that Fort du Quesne, against which he was proceeding, might be reinforced, Braddock, with one thousand two hundred selected troops, hastened his march, leaving Col. Dunbar to follow more slowly, with the other troops, and the heavy baggage.

On the 8th of July, Braddock had advanced sixty miles forward of Col. Dunbar, and within twelve or fourteen miles of Fort du Quesne. Here he was advised by his officers to proceed with caution, and was earnestly entreated by Col. Washington, his aid, to permit him to precede the army, and guard against surprise. Too haughty and self-confident to receive advice, Braddock, without any knowledge of the condition of the enemy, continued to press towards the fort. About twelve o'clock, July 9th, when within seven miles of the fort, he was suddenly attacked by a body of French and Indians. Although the enemy did not exceed five hundred, yet, after an

action of three hours, Braddock, under whom five horses had been killed, was mortally wounded, and his troops defeated. The loss of the English army was sixty-four out of eighty-five officers, and nearly half the privates.

This unfortunate defeat of Gen. Braddock is to be ascribed to his imprudence, and too daring intrepidity. Had he attended to those precautions which were recommended to him, he would not have been thus ambuscaded; or had he wisely retreated from a concealed enemy, and scoured the thicket with his cannon, the melancholy catastrophe might have been avoided. But, obstinately riveted to the spot on which he was first attacked, he vainly continued his attempt to form his men in regular order, although, by this means, a surer prey to the enemy, until being himself wounded, he could no longer be accessory to the destruction of human life.

A remarkable fact in the history of this affair remains to be told. Gen. Braddock held the *provincial* troops in great contempt. Consequently, he kept the Virginians, and other provincials, who were in the action, in the rear. Yet, although equally exposed with the rest, far from being affected with the fears that disordered the regular troops, they stood firm and unbroken, and under Colonel Washington, covered the retreat of the regulars, and saved them from total destruction.

The retreat of the army, after Braddock was wounded, was precipitate. No pause was made until the rear division was met. This division, on its junction with the other, was seized with the same spirit of flight with the retreating, and both divisions proceeded to Fort Cumberland; a distance of nearly one hundred and twenty miles from the place of action.

Had the troops, even here, recovered their spirits and returned, success might still have crowned the expedition. At least, the army might have rendered the most important service to the cause, by preventing the devastations and inhuman murders, perpetrated by the French and Indians, during the summer, on the western borders of Virginia and Pennsylvania. But, instead of adopting a course so salutary and important, Col. Dunbar, leaving the sick and wounded at Cumberland, marched with his troops to Philadelphia.

Sec. 9. The expedition against *Crown Point* was led by Gen. William Johnson, a member of the council of New York, and although it failed as to its main object, yet its results diffused exultation through the American colonies, and dispelled the gloom which followed Braddock's defeat.

The army under Johnson, arrived at the south end of Lake George, the latter part of August. While here, intelligence was received that a body of the enemy, two thousand in number, had landed at southbay, now *Whitehall*, under command of Baron Dieskau, and were marching towards Fort Edward, for the purpose of destroying the provisions and military stores there.

At a council of war held on the morning of Sept. 8th, it was resolved to detach a party to intercept the French and save the fort. This party consisted of twelve hundred men, commanded by Col. Ephraim Williams, of Deerfield, Massachusetts. Unfortunately, this detachment was surprised by Dieskau, who was lying in ambush for them. After a most signal slaughter, in which Col. Williams and Hendrick, a renowned Mohawk sachem, and many other officers fell, the detachment was obliged to retreat.

The firing was heard in the camp of Johnson, and as it seemed to approach nearer and nearer, it was naturally conjectured that the English troops were repulsed. The best preparations which the time allowed, were made to receive the advancing foe. Dieskau with his troops soon appeared, and commenced a spirited attack. They were received, however, with so much intrepidity—the cannon and musquetry did so much execution among their ranks, that the enemy retired

in great disorder, having experienced a signal defeat. The loss of the French was not less than seven hundred killed and three hundred wounded; this loss was rendered still more severe to the French by a mortal wound which Dieskau himself received, and in consequence of which he fell into the hands of the English. The loss of the English did not much exceed two hundred.

Few events of no greater magnitude, leave stronger impressions, than resulted from the battle of Lake George. Following as it did the discomfiture of Braddock, it served to restore the honour of the British arms, and the tone of the publick mind.

At the time it was meditated to send a detachment under Col. Williams, to intercept Dieskau, the number of men proposed was mentioned to Hendrick, the Mohawk chief, and his opinion asked. He replied, "If they are to fight, they are too few. If they are to be killed, they are too many." The number was accordingly increased. Gen. Johnson proposed also to divide the detachment into three parties. Upon this Hendrick took three sticks, and putting them together, said to him, "Put these together, and you cannot break them; take them one by one, and you will break them easily." The hint succeeded, and Hendrick's sticks saved many of the party, and probably the whole army from destruction.*

Early in the action, Gen. Johnson was wounded, and Gen. Lyman succeeded to the command, which he held through the day. To this gentleman's gallant exertions, the success of the day, under Providence, was chiefly to be ascribed. Yet it is remarkable, that Gen. Johnson made no mention of Gen. Lyman in his official letter, announcing the intelligence of the victory. The ambition of Johnson was too great, and his avarice too greedy, to acknowledge the merits of a rival. Gen. Johnson was created a baronet, and parliament voted him five thousand pounds sterling, in consideration of his success. The reward of Gen. Lyman was the esteem and honor of the people among whom he lived.

* Dwight's Travels.

Among the wounded of the French, as already stated, was the Baron Dieskau. He had received a ball through his leg, and being unable to follow his retreating army, was found by an English soldier, resting upon the stump of a tree, with scarcely an attendant. Dieskau, apprehensive for his safety, was feeling for his watch, in order to give it to the soldier, when the man, suspecting that he was feeling for a pistol, levelled his gun, and wounded him in the hips. He was carried to the camp, and treated with great kindness. From the camp he was taken to Albany and New-York, whence, some time after, he sailed for England, where he died. He was a superior officer, possessed of honorable feelings, and adorned with highly polished manners. One stain, however, attaches to his character. Before his engagement with Col. Williams' corps, he gave orders to his troops neither to give nor take quarter.

Sec. 10. The expedition against *Niagara* was committed to Gov. Shirley of Massachusetts, whose force amounted to two thousand five hundred men. But the season was too far advanced, before his preparations were completed, to effect any thing of importance. After proceeding to Oswego, on Lake Ontario, the army being poorly supplied with provisions, and the rainy season approaching, the expedition was abandoned, and the troops returned to Albany. Thus ended the campaign of 1755.

Sec. 11. In the spring of the ensuing year, 1756, Gov. Shirley was succeeded by Gen. Abercrombie, who was appointed to command, until the arrival of the earl of Loudon, commander in chief of all his majesty's forces in America.

The hostilities of the two preceding years had been carried on without any formal proclamation of war; but this year, June 9th, as already stated, war was declared by Great Britain against France, and soon after, by France against Great Britain, in turn.

The plan of operations for the campaign of '56

embraced the attack of *Niagara* and *Crown Point*, which were still in possession of the French. Both these places were of great importance; the former being the connecting link in the line of fortifications between Canada and Louisiana; and the latter commanding Lake Champlain, and guarding the only passage, at that time, into Canada. But important as were these posts, the reduction of neither was this year accomplished, nor even attempted, owing, chiefly, to the great delays of those who held the chief command.

Troops were raised for the expedition against Crown Point, amounting to seven thousand, the command of whom was assigned to Maj. Gen. Winslow, of Massachusetts. But his march was delayed by obstacles ascribed to the improvidence of Abercrombie.

After the mortal wound received by Dieskau, at the battle of Lake George, the Marquis de Montcalm, an able and enterprising officer, succeeded to the command of the French forces. In the month of August this officer, with eight thousand regulars, Canadians and Indians, invested the fort at Oswego, on the south side of Lake Ontario,—one of the most important posts held by the English in America,—and in a few days took it. On the receipt of this intelligence, Lord Loudon, who had arrived in Albany, and entered upon the command, dispatched orders to Gen. Winslow, on his march towards Crown Point, not to proceed.

The fall of the fort at Oswego was most unfortunate for the English, and their loss of men made prisoners, and munitions of war, peculiarly severe. By the capture of this post, the enemy obtained the entire command of the lakes Ontario and Erie, and of the whole country of the Five Nations. Sixteen hundred men were made prisoners, and one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon were taken, with

fourteen mortars, two sloops of war, and two hundred boats and batteaux.

After this disastrous event, all offensive operations were immediately relinquished, although it was then three months to the time of the usual decampment of the army. Thus through the inactivity of a man, whose leading trait was *indecision*, not one object of the campaign was gained, nor one purpose accomplished, either honourable or important.

Sec. 12. Notwithstanding the failure of the campaign of this season, the British Parliament made great preparations to prosecute the war the succeeding year, 1757. In July, an armament of eleven ships of the line and fifty transports, with more than six thousand troops, arrived at Halifax, destined for the reduction of Louisburg. —The Colonies had been raising men for an expedition against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Great was their mortification and disappointment, when they learned from the orders of Lord Loudon, that these troops were to be employed against Louisburg. Such inconstancy and fluctuation appeared beneath the dignity of the commander in chief. But they were obliged to submit, and Lord Loudon proceeded to join the armament at Halifax.

So dilatory were their measures, however, that before they were ready to sail, Louisburg was reinforced by a fleet of seventeen sail, and with troops to make it nine thousand strong. On the reception of this intelligence, it was deemed inexpedient to proceed, and the expedition was abandoned.

Sec. 13. While weakness and indecision were marking the counsels of the English, the French

continued to urge on their victories. Montcalm, still commander of the French in the north, finding the troops withdrawn from Halifax, for the reduction of Louisburg, seized the occasion to make a descent on Fort William Henry, situated on the north shore of Lake George. The garrison of the fort consisted of three thousand men. With a force of nine thousand men, Montcalm laid siege to it. After a gallant defence of six days, the garrison surrendered, thus giving to Montcalm the command of the lake, and of the western frontier.

The spirited and protracted defence of the fort, against such numbers, reflects the highest honor upon its brave commander, Col. Munroe. Six days was the enemy kept at bay, with unabated resolution, in full expectation of assistance from Gen. Webb, who lay at Fort Edward, only fifteen miles distant, with an army of four thousand men.

The character of Gen. Webb continues sullied, by his unpardonable indifference to the perilous situation of his brethren in arms, at Fort William Henry. It deserves to be known, that Sir William Johnson, after very importunate solicitations, obtained leave of General Webb to march with as many as would volunteer in the service, to the relief of Munroe.

At the beat of the drums, the provincials, almost to a man, sallied forth, and were soon ready and eager for the march. After being under arms almost all day, what were their feelings when Sir William, returning from headquarters, informed them that General Webb had forbidden them to march!

The soldiers were inexpressibly mortified and enraged, and their commander did himself no common honor in the tears he shed, as he turned from his troops, and retired to his tent.

The defence of Fort William Henry was so gallant, that Col. Munroe, with his troops, was admitted to an honorable capitulation. The capitulation, however, was most shamefully broken. While the troops were marching out at the gate of the fort, the Indians attached to Montcalm's party dragged the men from their ranks, and with all the inhumanity of savage feeling, plundered them of their baggage,

and butchered them in cold blood. Out of a New-Hampshire corps of two hundred, eighty were missing.

It is said that efforts were made by the French to restrain the barbarians, but the truth of the assertion may well be doubted, when it is considered that Montcalm's force was at least seven thousand French, and yet these barbarians were not restrained.

Sec. 14. In 1758, most fortunately for the honour of the British arms, and for the salvation of the colonies, a change took place in the ministry of England. The celebrated Pitt, Lord Chatham, now placed at the head of the administration, breathed a new soul into the British councils, and revived the energies of the colonies, weakened and exhausted by a series of ill-contrived and unfortunate expeditions. The tide of success now turned in favour of the English, who continued, with some few exceptions, to achieve one victory after another, until the whole of Canada surrendered to the British arms.

Pitt, upon coming into office, addressed a circular to the colonial governors, in which he assured them of the determination of the ministry to send a large force to America, and called upon them to raise as many troops as the number of inhabitants would allow. The colonies were prompt and liberal in furnishing the requisite supplies. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New-Hampshire, unitedly, raised fifteen thousand men, who were ready to take the field in May.

Sec. 15. Three expeditions were proposed—the *first* against Louisburg; the *second* against Ticonderoga; the *third* against Fort Du Quesne.*

Sec. 16. On the expedition against *Louisburg*, Admiral Boscawen sailed from Halifax, May 28th, with a fleet of twenty ships of the line, eighteen

* Pronounced Du Kane.

frigates, and an army of fourteen thousand men, under the command of Brig. Gen. Amherst, next to whom in command was Gen. Wolfe. On the 26th of July, after a vigorous resistance, this fortress was surrendered, and with it five thousand seven hundred and thirty-seven prisoners of war, and one hundred and twenty cannon, besides which the enemy lost five ships of the line and four frigates. At the same time, Isle Royal, St. Johns, with Cape Breton, fell into the hands of the English, who now became masters of the coast from the St. Lawrence to Nova Scotia.

The surrender of this fortress was a more signal loss to France, than any which she had sustained since the commencement of the war. It greatly obstructed her communications with Canada, and was powerfully instrumental in hastening the subjugation of that country to the British crown.

Sec. 17. The expedition against *Ticonderoga* was conducted by Gen. Abercrombie, commander in chief in America, Lord Loudon having returned to England. An army of sixteen thousand men, nine thousand of whom were provincials, followed his standard, besides a formidable train of artillery.

Having passed Lake George, the army proceeded with great difficulty towards the fortress. Unfortunately, Gen. Abercrombie trusted to others, who were incompetent to the task, to reconnoitre the ground and intrenchments of the enemy, and, without a knowledge of the strength of the places, or of the proper points of attack, issued his orders to attempt the lines without bringing up a single piece of artillery.

The army advanced to the charge with the greatest intrepidity, and for more than four hours maintained the attack with incredible obstinacy.

After the loss of nearly two thousand in killed and wounded, the troops were summoned away. The retreat was as unhappy, as the attack had been precipitate and ill advised. Not a doubt can rationally exist, that had the siege been prosecuted with prudence and vigour, the reduction of the place would have been easily accomplished, without so great a waste of human life, as the garrison amounted to but little more than three thousand men.

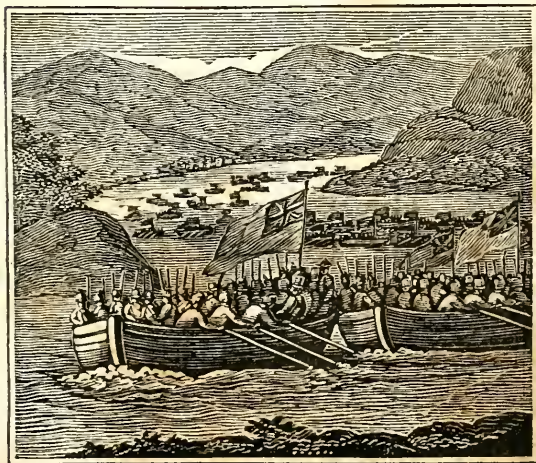
The passage of Abercrombie across Lake George, on his way with his army to Ticonderoga, was effected by means of one thousand and thirty-five boats. The splendor of the military parade on the occasion was eminently imposing, and deserves to be recorded. A late writer, Dr. Dwight, thus describes it.

“The morning was remarkably bright and beautiful; and the fleet moved with exact regularity to the sound of fine martial music. The ensigns waved and glittered in the sun-beams, and the anticipation of future triumph shone in every eye. Above, beneath, around, the scenery was that of enchantment. Rarely has the sun, since that luminary was first lighted up in the heavens, dawned on such a complication of beauty and magnificence.” How greatly did all the parade which was displayed, and all the anticipation which was indulged, add to the mortification of the defeat which followed!

After his repulse, Gen. Abercrombie retired to his former quarters on Lake George. Here, anxious in any way to repair the mischief and disgrace of defeat, he consented, at the solicitation of Col. Bradstreet, to detach him with three thousand men, against Fort Frontenac, on the north-west side of the outlet of Lake Ontario. With these troops, mostly provincial, Bradstreet sailed down the Ontario, landed within a mile of the fort, opened his batteries, and, in two days, forced this important fortress to surrender. Nine armed vessels, sixty cannon, sixteen mortars, and a vast



Battle of Oswego. P. 175.



Abercrombie's Army crossing Lake George. P. 180



quantity of ammunition, &c. &c. fell into his hands.

Sec. 18. To dispossess the French at *Fort Du Quesne*, the bulwark of their dominion over the western regions, was a third expedition contemplated this year. This enterprise was entrusted to Gen. Forbes, who left Philadelphia in July, but did not arrive at Du Quesne till late in November. The force collected for the attack amounted to eight thousand effective men. An attack, however, was needless, the fort having been deserted by the garrison the evening before the arrival of the army. On taking quiet possession of the place, Forbes, in honour of Mr. Pitt, called it *Pittsburg*.

Notwithstanding the defeat of Ticonderoga, the campaign closed with honour to the colonies, and to the nation in general. The successes of the year prepared the way for the still greater achievements of the ensuing year.

Sec. 19. Another event of this year concurred in bringing to pass the fortunate issues of the next. This was a treaty of peace and friendship with the Indian nations inhabiting between the Apalachian mountains, the Alleganies, and the lakes. This treaty was concluded at Easton, sixty miles from Philadelphia.

The managers of the treaty on the part of Great Britain, were the governors of Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, Sir William Johnson, four members of the council of Pennsylvania, six members of assembly, and two agents from New-Jersey.

The tribes represented on this occasion, and with which the treaty was made, were the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagoes, Cayugas, Senecas, Tuscaroras, Nanticoques, and Conays, the Tuteloos, Chugnuts, Delawares, Unamies, Minisinks, Mohicans, and Wappingers. The whole number

of Indians, including women and children, present, amounted to five hundred.

Sec. 20. The campaign of 1759 had for its object the entire conquest of Canada. For this purpose, it was determined, that three powerful armies should enter Canada by different routes, and attack, at nearly the same time, all the strong holds of the French in that country. These were *Ticonderoga* and *Crown Point*, *Niagara* and *Quebec*.

Sec. 21. General Amherst, who had succeeded Abercrombie as commander in chief, led one division against *Ticonderoga*, which he reached July 22d. This fortress soon surrendered, the principal part of the garrison having retired to Crown Point. Having strengthened Ticonderoga, the army next proceeded against this latter place, and took quiet possession of it, the enemy having fled before their arrival.

The French retired to the Isle aux Noix, situated at the northern extremity of Lake Champlain, where they were strongly encamped, with a force of three thousand five hundred men, and a powerful artillery. Gen. Amherst designed to follow up his successes against them in that quarter, but the want of a suitable naval armament prevented.

Sec. 22. The second division of the army, commanded by Gen. Prideaux, was destined against *Niagara*, at which place they arrived July 6th, without loss or opposition. The place was immediately invested: on the 24th of the month, a general battle took place, which decided the fate of Niagara, and placed it in the hands of the English.

Four days previous to this battle, that able and distinguished officer, General Prideaux, was killed by the bursting of a cohorn. The command devolved on Sir William Johnson, who successfully put in execution the plans of his lamented predecessor.

Sec. 23. While the English troops were achieving these important victories in Upper Canada, Gen. Wolfe was prosecuting the most important enterprise of the campaign, viz. the reduction of Quebec. Embarking at Louisburg with eight thousand men, under convoy of Admirals Saunders and Holmes, he landed with his troops in June, on the island of Orleans, a little below Quebec.

After several attempts to reduce the place, which proved unsuccessful, Wolfe conceived the project of ascending with his troops, a precipice of from 150 to 200 feet, by which he would reach the plains of Abraham, lying south and west of the city, and thus gain access to the enemy, in a less fortified spot.

This ascent he effected with his army, and ere Montcalm, the French general, was aware of it, the army had formed on the heights of Abraham, and were prepared for battle.

Here, on the morning of the 13th of September, Wolfe met the French army under Montcalm, and after a severe and bloody contest, in which both these brave commanders fell, victory decided in favour of the English. A thousand prisoners were taken, and a thousand of the enemy were killed. The loss of the English, in killed and wounded, did not exceed six hundred. Five days after, the city capitulated; the inhabitants were to enjoy their civil and religious rights, and remain neutral during the war. The city was garrisoned under the command of Gen. Murray.

Determined from the first to take the place, impregnable as it was accounted, the measures of Gen. Wolfe were singularly bold, and apparently repugnant to all the maxims of war. His attention was first drawn to Point Levi, on the southern bank of the St. Lawrence, upon which, after

taking possession of it, he erected batteries. By means of these, he destroyed many houses, but from this point it was soon apparent that little impression could be made upon the fortifications of the town.

Finding it impracticable thus to accomplish his purpose, Wolfe next decided on more daring measures. For the purpose of drawing Montcalm to a general battle, Wolfe, with his troops, crossed the river Montmorenci, and attacked the enemy in their entrenchments. Owing, however, to the grounding of some of the boats which conveyed the troops, a part of the detachment did not land so soon as the others. The corps that first landed, without waiting to form, rushed forward, impetuously, towards the enemy's entrenchments. But their courage proved their ruin. A close and well directed fire from the enemy cut them down in great numbers.

Montcalm's party had now landed, and were drawn up on the beach in order. But it was near night, a thunder storm was approaching, and the tide was rapidly setting in. Fearing the consequences of delay, Wolfe ordered a retreat across the Montmorenci, and returned to his quarters on the Isle of Orleans. In this rencounter, his loss amounted to near six hundred of the flower of his army.

The difficulties of effecting the conquest of Quebec now pressed upon Wolfe with all their force. But he knew the importance of taking this strongest hold—he knew the expectations of his countrymen—he well knew that no military conduct could shine that was not gilded with success.

Disappointed thus far, and worn down with fatigue and watching, General Wolfe fell violently sick. Scarcely had he recovered, before he proceeded to put in execution a plan which had been matured on his sick bed. This was to proceed up the river—gain the heights of Abraham, and draw Montcalm to a general engagement.

Accordingly, the troops were transported up the river about nine miles. On the 12th of Sept., one hour after midnight, Wolfe and his troops left the ships, and in boats silently dropped down the current, intending to land a league above Cape Diamond, and there ascend the bank leading to the station he wished to gain. Owing, however, to the rapidity of the river, they fell below the intended place, and landed a mile, or a mile and a half, above the city.

The operation was a critical one, as they had to navigate, in silence, down a rapid stream, and to find a right place





Army under Gen. Wolfe ascending to the Plains of Abraham. P. 185.



Death of Gen. Wolfe. P. 186.

for landing, which, amidst surrounding darkness, might be easily mistaken. Besides this, the shore was shelving, and the bank so steep and lofty, as scarcely to be ascended even without opposition from an enemy. Indeed, the attempt was in the greatest danger of being defeated by an occurrence peculiarly interesting, as marking the very great delicacy of the transaction.

One of the French sentinels, posted along the shore, as the English boats were descending, challenged them in the customary military language of the French. "*Qui vit?*" "who goes there?" to which a captain in Frazier's regiment, who had served in Holland, and was familiar with the French language and customs, promptly replied, "*la France.*" The next question was still more embarrassing, for the sentinel demanded, "*a quel regiment?*" "to what regiment." The captain, who happened to know the name of a regiment which was up the river, with Bougainville, promptly rejoined, "*de la Reine,*" "the Queen's." The soldier immediately replied, "*passé,*" for he concluded at once, that this was a French convoy of provision, which, as the English had learned from some deserters, was expected to pass down the river to Quebec. The other sentinels were deceived in a similar manner; but one, less credulous than the rest, running down to the water's edge, called out, "*Pourquoi est ce que vous ne parlez plus haut?*" "Why don't you speak louder?" The same captain, with perfect self-command, replied, "*Tais toi, nous serons entendues!*" "Hush, we shall be overheard and discovered!" The sentry, satisfied with this caution, retired, and the boats passed in safety.*

About an hour before day, the army began to ascend the precipice, the distance of one hundred and fifty or two hundred feet, almost perpendicular ascent, above which spread the plains of Abraham. By day-light, Sept. 13th, this almost incredible enterprise had been effected—the desired station was attained, the army was formed, and ready to meet the enemy.

To Montcalm, the intelligence that the English were occupying the heights of Abraham, was most surprising. The impossibility of ascending the precipice he considered certain, and therefore had taken no measures to fortify its line. But no sooner was he informed of the position of the English army, than perceiving a battle no longer to be avoided,

* Silliman's Tour, from Smollet.

he prepared to fight. Between nine and ten o'clock, the two armies, about equal in numbers, met face to face.

The battle now commenced. Inattentive to the fire of a body of Canadians and Indians, one thousand five hundred of whom Montcalm had stationed in the cornfields and bushes, Wolfe directed his troops to reserve their fire for the main body of the French, now rapidly advancing. On their approach within forty yards, the English opened their fire, and the destruction became immense.

The French fought bravely, but their ranks became disordered, and, notwithstanding the repeated efforts of their officers to form them, and to renew the attack, they were so successfully pushed by the British bayonet, and hewn down by the Highland broadsword, that their discomfiture was complete.

During the action, Montcalm was on the French left, and Wolfe on the English right, and here they both fell in the critical moment that decided the victory. Early in the battle, Wolfe received a ball in his wrist, but binding his handkerchief around it, he continued to encourage his men. Shortly after, another ball penetrated his groin; but this wound, although much more severe, he concealed, and continued to urge on the contest, till a third bullet pierced his breast. He was now obliged, though reluctantly, to be carried to the rear of the line.

Gen. Monckton succeeded to the command, but was immediately wounded, and conveyed away. In this critical state of the action, the command devolved on Gen. Townshend. Gen. Montcalm, fighting in front of his battalion, received a mortal wound about the same time, and Gen. Jennezergus, his second in command, fell near his side.

Wolfe died in the field, before the battle was ended; but he lived long enough to know that the victory was his. While leaning on the shoulder of a lieutenant, who kneeled to support him, he was seized with the agonies of death: at this moment was heard the distant sound, "They fly—they fly." The hero raised his drooping head, and eagerly asked, "Who fly?" Being told that it was the French—"Then," he replied, "I die happy," and expired.

"This death," says Professor Silliman, "has furnished a grand and pathetic subject for the painter, the poet, and the historian, and, undoubtedly, considered as a specimen of *mere* military glory, it is one of the most sublime that the annals of war afford."

Montcalm was every way worthy of being the competitor

of Wolfe. In talents, in military skill, in personal courage, he was not his inferior. Nor was his death much less sublime. He lived to be carried to the city, where his last moments were employed in writing, with his own hand, a letter to the English general, recommending the French prisoners to his care and humanity. When informed that his wound was mortal, he replied, "I shall not then live to see the surrender of Quebec."

The following interesting particulars relating to the dangers and sufferings of two officers of the English army, during the battle, we shall be excused for inserting, notwithstanding their length.

"Captain Ochterlony and Ensign Peyton, belonged to the regiment of Brigadier-General Monckton. They were nearly of an age, which did not exceed thirty; the first was a North-Briton, the other a native of Ireland. Both were agreeable in person, and were connected together by the ties of mutual friendship and esteem. On the day that preceded the battle, Captain Ochterlony had fought a duel with a German officer, in which, though he wounded and disarmed his antagonist, yet he himself received a dangerous hurt under the right arm, in consequence of which his friends insisted on his remaining in camp during the action of next day; but his spirit was too great to comply with this remonstrance. He declared that it should never be said that a scratch, received in a private rencounter, had prevented him from doing his duty, when his country required his service; and he took the field with a fusil in his hand, though he was hardly able to carry his arms. In leading up his men to the enemy's entrenchment, he was shot through the lungs with a musket ball, an accident which obliged him to part with his fusil, but he still continued advancing, until, by loss of blood, he became too weak to proceed farther. About the same time, Mr. Peyton was lamed by a shot, which shattered the small bone of his left leg. The soldiers, in their retreat, earnestly begged, with tears in their eyes, that Captain Ochterlony would allow them to carry him and the ensign off the field. But he was so bigotted to a severe point of honor, that he would not quit the ground, though he desired they would take care of his ensign. Mr. Peyton, with a generous disdain, rejected their good offices, declaring that he would not leave his captain in such a situation; and, in a little time, they remained sole survivors on that part of the field.

"Captain Ochterlony sat down by his friend, and as they

expected nothing but immediate death, they took leave of each other; yet they were not altogether abandoned by the hope of being protected as prisoners; for the captain, seeing a French soldier, with two Indians, approach, started up, and accosting them in the French language, which he spoke perfectly well, expressed his expectation that they would treat him and his companion as officers, prisoners, and gentlemen. The two Indians seemed to be entirely under the conduct of the Frenchman, who, coming up to Mr. Peyton, as he sat on the ground, snatched his laced hat from his head, and robbed the captain of his watch and money. This outrage was a signal to the Indians for murder and pillage. One of them, clubbing his firelock, struck at him behind, with a view to knock him down, but the blow missing his head, took place upon his shoulder. At the same instant, the other Indian poured his shot into the breast of this unfortunate young gentleman, who cried out, 'O Peyton! the villain has shot me.' Not yet satiated with cruelty, the barbarian sprung upon him, and stabbed him in the belly with his scalping knife. The captain having parted with his fusil, had no weapon for his defence, as none of the officers wore swords in the action. The three ruffians, finding him still alive, endeavored to strangle him with his own sash; and he was now upon his knees, struggling against them with surprising exertion. Mr. Peyton, at this juncture, having a double-barrelled musket in his hand, and seeing the distress of his friend, fired at one of the Indians, who dropped dead on the spot. The other, thinking the ensign would be an easy prey, advanced towards him, and Mr. Peyton, having taken good aim, at the distance of four yards, discharged his piece the second time, but it seemed to take no effect. The savage fired in his turn, and wounded the ensign in the shoulder; then rushing upon him, thrust his bayonet through his body; he repeated the blow, which Mr. Peyton, attempting to parry, received another wound in his left hand; nevertheless, he seized the Indian's musket with the same hand, pulled him forwards, and with his right, drawing a dagger which hung by his side, plunged it in the barbarian's side. A violent struggle ensued; but at length Mr. Peyton was uppermost, and, with repeated strokes of his dagger, killed his antagonist outright. Here he was seized with an unaccountable emotion of curiosity, to know whether or not his shot had taken effect on the body of the Indian; he accordingly turned him up, and stripping off his blanket, perceived that the ball had penetrated quite

through the cavity of the breast. Having thus obtained a dear bought victory, he started up on one leg, and saw Captain Ochterlony standing at the distance of sixty yards, close by the enemy's breast-work, with the French soldier attending him. Mr. Peyton then called aloud, 'Captain Ochterlony, I am glad to see you have at last got under protection. Beware of that villain, who is more barbarous than the savages. God bless you, my dear captain. I see a party of Indians coming this way, and expect to be murdered immediately.'

"A number of these barbarians had for some time been employed on the left, in scalping and pillaging the dying and the dead that were left upon the field of battle; and above thirty of them were in full march to destroy Mr. Peyton. This gentleman knew he had no mercy to expect; for, should his life be spared for the present, they would have afterwards insisted upon sacrificing him to the manes of their brethren whom he had slain; and in that case he would have been put to death by the most excruciating tortures. Full of this idea, he snatched up his musket, and, notwithstanding his broken leg, ran above forty yards, without halting; and feeling himself now totally disabled, and incapable of proceeding one step further, he loaded his piece, and presented it to the two foremost Indians, who stood aloof waiting to be joined by their fellows; while the French, from their breast-works, kept up a continual fire of cannon and small arms upon this poor, solitary, maimed gentleman. In this uncomfortable situation he stood, when he discerned at a distance a Highland officer, with a party of his men, skirting the plain towards the field of battle. He forthwith waved his hand in signal of distress, and being perceived by the officer, he detached three of his men to his assistance. These brave fellows hastened to him through the midst of a terrible fire, and one of them bore him off on his shoulders. The Highland officer was Captain Macdonald, of Colonel Frazier's battalion, who, understanding that a young gentleman, his kinsman, had dropped on the field of battle, had put himself at the head of this party, with which he penetrated to the middle of the field, drove a considerable number of the French and Indians before him, and finding his relation still unscalped, carried him off in triumph. Poor Capt. Ochterlony was conveyed to Quebec, where, in a few days, he died of his wounds. After the reduction of that place the French surgeons who attended him, declared, that in all probability, he would have recovered of the two shots he

had received in his breast, had he not been mortally wounded in the belly by the Indian's scalping knife.

"As this very remarkable scene was acted in sight of both armies, General Townshend, in the sequel, expostulated with the French officers upon the inhumanity of keeping up such a severe fire against two wounded gentlemen, who were disabled, and destitute of all hope of escaping. They answered, that the fire was not made by the regulars, but by the Canadians and savages, whom it was not in the power of discipline to restrain."⁷⁷*

Sec. 24. The capture of Quebec, which soon followed, important as it was, did not immediately terminate the war. The French in Canada had still a powerful army, and some naval force, above the city.

Sec. 25. In the ensuing spring, 1760, Monsieur Levi approached Quebec, from Montreal, assisted by six frigates, for the purpose of recovering it from the English. Gen. Murray, who commanded the English garrison, marched to meet him, with only three thousand men, and, on the 28th of April, after a bloody battle, fought at Sillsery, three miles above the city, the English army was defeated, with the loss of one thousand men, the French having lost more than double that number.

The English retreated to Quebec, to which the French now laid siege. About the middle of May, an English squadron arrived with reinforcements, soon after which, the French fleet was taken and destroyed, and the siege was raised.

Sec. 26. The attention of the English commander in chief, Gen. Amherst, was now directed to the reduction of Montreal, the last fortress of consequence in the possession of the French. To effect this, he detached Col. Haviland, with a well disciplined army, to proceed to Lake George, Crown Point, and Lake Champlain; Gen. Mur-

* Silliman's Tour, from Smollet.

ray was ordered from Quebec, with such forces as could be spared from the garrison, while Gen. Amherst himself proceeded with ten thousand men, by Lake Ontario, down the river St. Lawrence.

Generals Amherst and Murray arrived at Montreal the same day, Sept. 6th, and were joined by Haviland, on the day succeeding. While preparing to lay siege to the place, the commander of Montreal, M. de Vaudreuil, perceiving that resistance would be ineffectual, demanded a capitulation. On the 8th, Montreal, Detroit, Michilimackinac, and all the other places within the government of Canada, were surrendered to his Britannic Majesty.

Sec. 27. Thus ended a war which, from the first hostilities, had continued six years, and during which much distress had been experienced, and many thousand valuable lives lost. Great and universal was the joy that spread through the colonies, at the successful termination of a contest, so long and severe, and public thanksgivings were generally appointed, to ascribe due honour to HIM who had preserved to the colonies their existence and liberties.

Sec. 28. While the troops were employed in the conquest of Canada, the colonies of Virginia and South Carolina suffered invasion and outrage from the Cherokees, a powerful tribe of savages on the West. But in 1761, they were signally defeated by Col. Grant, and compelled to sue for peace.

Intelligence being communicated to Gen. Amherst of the danger of these colonies, he despatched Gen. Montgomery, with one thousand two hundred men, for their protection and relief.

Being joined by the forces of the province of Carolina on his arrival, he immediately proceeded into the country

of the Cherokees, plundering and destroying their villages and magazines of corn. In revenge, the savages besieged Fort Loudon, on the confines of Virginia, which was obliged, by reason of famine, to capitulate. The capitulation was, however, broken, and the troops, while on their march to Virginia, were assaulted, numbers of them killed, and the rest taken captive.

The next year, 1761, Gen. Montgomery being obliged to return, Col. Grant was sent to continue the war. With an army of near two thousand six hundred men, he began his march towards the enemies country. On the fourth day the army fell in with a body of savages, and after a strongly contested battle, put them to flight. Following up this victory, Col. Grant proceeded to destroy their magazines, burn their corn fields, and consume their settlements, until, having effectually routed them, he returned with his troops. Soon after this, the Cherokee chiefs came in, and a peace was concluded.

Sec. 29. The conquest of Canada having been achieved in 1763, a definitive treaty, the preliminaries of which had been settled the year before, was signed at Paris, and soon after ratified by the kings of England and France; by which all Nova Scotia, Canada, the Isle of Cape Breton, and all other islands in the gulf and river St. Lawrence, were ceded to the British crown.

NOTES.

Sec. 30. **MANNERS OF THE COLONISTS.** The change in respect to manners in the colonies, during this period, consisted chiefly in a gradual wearing away of national distinctions and peculiarities, and a tendency to a still greater unity and assimilation of character. The rapid increase of wealth, and the frequency of intercourse with Europe, began to introduce among the colonies the tastes, and fashions, and luxuries of European countries. But the introduction of them produced little enervation of character among the people of America. Such an effect was counteracted

by the bloody but successful war with the French and Indians, and the boundless prosperity which seemed to open to the country, and call forth its energies. Instead, therefore, of a growing weakness in the colonies, we perceive a more vigorous spirit of commercial enterprise pervading the country; a consciousness of political importance becoming confirmed; and a deep and ardent love of civil liberty breathing over the land.

Sec. 31. RELIGION. The only religious sect introduced into America, during this period, was that of the *Shakers*, or *Shaking Quakers*, who arrived from England in 1774, and settled at Niskayuna, near Albany.

Although the spirit of religious intolerance had disappeared from the colonies, and the puritanical severity of the north had become much softened, yet, until the commencement of the French and Indian war, the religious character of the colonies had remained essentially the same. But during this war, *infidelity* was extensively introduced into the army, by means of the foreign English officers and soldiers who were sent into the country. From the army, it spread itself into society, and produced a considerable relaxation of morals, and a looser adherence to correct principle.

Sec. 32. TRADE AND COMMERCE. During this period, trade and commerce made great advances; the annual amount of imports from Great Britain was about two and a half millions of pounds sterling, from 1756 to 1771; from 1771 to 1773, it was three millions and a half annually, on an average. The annual amount of exports of the colonies to Great Britain and elsewhere, was about four million pounds sterling, at the close of this period. The articles of export, and the nature of the trade of the colonies, were essentially the same as stated in the notes to Period III.

In 1769, the number of ships employed by Great Britain and the colonies, in the trade with the colonies, was one thou-

sand and seventy-eight, manned by twenty-eight thousand nine hundred and ten seamen.

The whale and other fisheries in the colonies had become of great importance. In 1775, there were employed in the fishery generally, and in carrying the fish to market from New-England, one thousand four hundred and fifty vessels of all descriptions, of one hundred thousand tons burthen, and eleven thousand fishermen and seamen.

Sec. 33. AGRICULTURE. During this period, a gradual progress was made in agriculture, but it does not need any specific notice.

Sec. 34. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. Great Britain still continued to oppose the progress of arts and manufactures in the colonies, and, therefore, there was but a moderate advance of these interests, during this period.

Sec. 35. POPULATION. At the close of this period, the white and black population of the colonies did not vary greatly from three millions.

Sec. 36. EDUCATION. In the year 1769, the college at Hanover, New-Hampshire, was founded, and called *Dartmouth College*, in honour of the Earl of Dartmouth, who was one of its principal benefactors.

In 1770, the University in Rhode Island, called *Brown University*, was established at Providence. It was incorporated in 1764, and first located at Warren. At this place the first commencement was held, 1769.

REFLECTIONS.

Sec. 37. The preceding short period of our history presents several interesting subjects of reflection. The American colonies became the theatre of a bloody conflict, attended by all the appalling features of savage war. Although feebly supported by England, and embarrassed by the want of political union, they surmounted every obstacle, and compelled the French, their enemies, to depart from their shores for ever.

But no sooner was this conflict ended, than they began

to feel, with added weight, the hand of British oppression. Not humbled, however, by injustice, nor crushed by severities, they vigorously put forth their strength in commerce, trade, and agriculture. They spread innumerable sails upon the ocean; they converted forests into meadows and wheat fields; established seminaries of learning; founded cities; and built churches to God.

Nay, more—we see that those very steps, which were taken by the mother country to cripple the American colonies, were so ordered as to add to their strength. By leaving them to bear the war of 1756 almost alone, she showed them that they could not expect defence from her; she taught them the necessity of relying upon their own energies; gave them an opportunity to learn the art of war, and to ascertain their own strength.

The long line of British acts, designed to crush the colonies, and to keep them in humble subjection, passed, as they were, in wilful ignorance of the feelings and power of America, awakened the spirit of the revolution, and laid the foundation of a great nation.

What a lesson may tyranny gather from this! And how thankful should *we* be, that a just Providence is above, who regards the affairs of men—who turns aside the trampling heel of oppression, and causes the blood wrung out by tyranny to cry from the ground, and to call forth the spirit of liberty!

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD V.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.

Extending from the commencement of hostilities by Great Britain, against the American colonies, in the battle of Lexington, 1775, to the disbanding of the American army, at West Point, 1783.

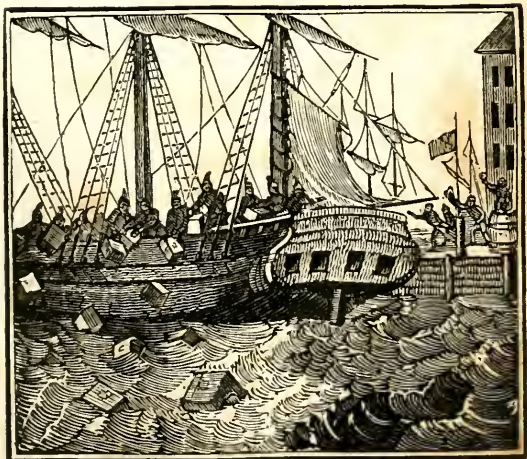
Sec. 1. On the 19th of April, 1775, was shed at Lexington, Massachusetts, the first blood in the war of the revolution—a war, which terminated in the separation of the American colonies from Great Britain, and in their change from this humble character and condition, to that of free and independent States.

Sec. 2. The *causes*, which led the colonies to take up arms against the mother country, deserve a distinct recital in this portion of our history, as they will clearly show the justice, the wisdom, and the necessity of those acts of resistance, to which, at that trying period, resort was had.

“The independence of America,” it has been observed, “was found by those, who sought it not.” When the Fathers of this country left Great Britain, they had no intention of establishing a government independent of that of England. On the contrary, they came out as colonists, and expected still to acknowledge allegiance to



Battle of Lexington. P. 196.



Destruction of Tea in Boston Harbor. P. 213.



the mother country. For many years, when they spoke, or wrote, or thought of England, it was under the filial and affectionate idea of "*home*." "And even at the commencement of the controversy with Great Britain," if we credit those who lived at that time, "there existed no *desire*, nor *intention*, of becoming independent."

Testimony with respect to the filial disposition of the colonies towards the mother country abounds. "I profess," said Pownal, who had been governor and commander-in-chief of Massachusetts Bay—governor of South Carolina, &c. &c.

"I profess," said he, in 1765, "an affection for the colonies, because, having lived among their people, in a private, as well as public character, I know them—I know that in their private social relations, there is not a more friendly, and in their political one, a more zealously loyal people in all his majesty's dominions. They would sacrifice their dearest interest for the honor of their mother country. I have a right to say this, because experience has given me a practical knowledge, and this impression of them. They have no other idea of this country than as their home; they have no other word by which to express it, and till of late, it has been constantly expressed by the name of home."

To the same effect is the testimony of Dr. Franklin. "Scotland," said he, in 1768, "has had its rebellions; Ireland has had its rebellions; England its plots against the reigning family; but *America* is free from this reproach;"—"No people were ever known more truly loyal: the protestant succession in the house of Hanover was their idol."

Sec. 3. For these feelings of affection for the mother country, the colonies deserve the highest encomium. Causes existed, which might have justified a less degree of attachment, and were calculated to produce it. These were the oppression and losses which they endured; the shackles imposed upon them; the restraints upon their commerce; the parsimony with which aid was administered by the mother country; the maleadmi-

nistration—the peculation and arbitrary conduct of the royal governors—these things were sufficient, and more than sufficient, to stifle every feeling of affection, and shake the last remains of their allegiance.

Yet through all this oppressive subordination—through the calamities of war—through the attempt to wrest from them their charters, and their dearest rights—they could say, and did say, “England, with all thy faults, I love thee still.”

Nor is it probable that these friendly dispositions of the colonies would at this time have been withdrawn, had not Great Britain interrupted them by a grievous change of policy towards the inhabitants touching the subject of revenue and taxation.

Sec. 4. Before the peace of '63, this subject had been wisely let alone. The colonies had been permitted to tax themselves, without the interference of the parliament. Till this period, it had sufficed for the mother country so to control their commerce, as to monopolize its benefits to herself. But from and after this period, the ancient system was set aside, and a different and oppressive policy adopted. The first act, the avowed purpose of which was a revenue from the colonies, passed the parliament, Sept. 29th, 1764, the preamble to which began thus—“Whereas, it is *just* and necessary that a *revenue* be raised in America, for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the same, we the commons,” &c. The act then proceeds to lay a duty on “clayed sugar, indigo, coffee, &c. &c. being the produce of a colony not under the dominion of his majesty.”

Sec. 5. This act the colonies could not approve. They could not approve of it, because it recognized the existence of a right to tax them—a right

not founded in justice, and which since their existence, nearly one hundred and fifty years, had, until now, seldom been named. But the colonies could submit to it, although unpleasant and unjust, nor would this act alone have led to permanent disaffection, had it not been followed by other acts, still more unjust and oppressive.

On the subject of the right of the British parliament to tax the colonies, it was asserted in the mother country, "to be essential to the unity, and of course to the prosperity, of the empire, that the British parliament should have a right of taxation over every part of the royal dominions." In the colonies, it was contended, "that *taxation and representation* were inseparable, and that they could not be safe, if their property might be taken from them, without their consent." This claim of the right of taxation on the one side, and the denial of it on the other, was *the very hinge on which the revolution turned.*

Sec. 6. In accordance with the policy to be observed towards America, the next year, 1765, the famous *stamp act* passed both houses of parliament. This ordained that instruments of writing, such as deeds, bonds, notes, &c. among the colonies, should be null and void, unless executed on *stamped* paper, for which a duty should be paid to the crown.

When this bill was brought in, the ministers, and particularly Charles Townshend, exclaimed:

"These Americans, our own children, planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence, protected by our arms, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence; will they now turn their backs upon us, and grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load which overwhelms us?"

Col. Barre caught the words, and, with a vehemence becoming a soldier, rose and said:

"*Planted by your care!* No! your oppression planted them in America; they fled from your tyranny into a then uncultivated land, where they were exposed to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable, and among others, to the savage cruelty of the enemy of the country,

a people, the most subtle, and, I take upon me to say, the most truly terrible of any people that ever inhabited any part of God's earth; and yet actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all these hardships with pleasure, compared with those they suffered in their own country, from the hands of those that should have been their friends.

"They nourished by your indulgence! They grew by your neglect; as soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule over them, in one department and another, who were, perhaps, the deputies of the deputies of some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberty, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them: men, whose behaviour, on many occasions, has caused the blood of these sons of liberty to recoil within them: men, promoted to the highest seats of justice, some of whom, to my knowledge, were glad, by going to foreign countries, to escape the vengeance of the laws in their own.

"They protected by your arms! They have nobly taken up arms in your defence, have exerted their valor amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontiers, while drenched in blood, its interior parts have yielded for your enlargement the little savings of their frugality and the fruits of their toils. And believe me, remember, I this day told you so, that the same spirit which actuated that people at first, will continue with them still."

The night after this act passed, Doctor Franklin, who was then in London, wrote to Charles Thompson, afterwards secretary of the Continental Congress, "*The sun of liberty is set; the Americans must light the lamps of industry and economy.*" To which Mr. Thompson answered, "*Be assured we shall light torches quite of another sort*"—thus predicting the convulsions which were about to follow.

Sec. 7. On the arrival of the news of the stamp act in America, a general indignation spread through the country, and resolutions were passed against the act, by most of the colonial assemblies.

The assembly of Virginia was the first public body that met, after the news of the act reached America. Towards the close of the session, the following resolutions were introduced into the house of burgesses, by Patrick Henry.

a lawyer, at that time a young man, but highly distinguished for the strength of his intellect, and the power of his eloquence.

Resolved, that the first adventurers and settlers of this his majesty's colony and dominions of Virginia, brought with them, and transmitted to their posterity, and all others his majesty's subjects, since inhabiting in this his majesty's colony, all the privileges and immunities that have at any time been held, enjoyed, and possessed, by the people of Great Britain.

Resolved, that by the two royal charters, granted by King James I., the colonists aforesaid are entitled to all privileges of faithful, liege, and natural born subjects, to all intents and purposes, as if they had been abiding and born within the realms of England.

Resolved, that his majesty's most liege people of this his most ancient colony, have enjoyed the right of being thus governed by their own authority, in the article of taxes and internal police, and that the same have never been forfeited, nor any other way yielded up, but have been constantly recognized by the king and people of Great Britain.

Resolved, therefore, that the general assembly of this colony, together with his majesty, or his substitutes, have, in their respective capacity, the only exclusive right and power to lay taxes and impositions upon the inhabitants of the colony; and that any attempts to vest such power in any person or persons whatever, other than the general assembly aforesaid, is *illegal, unconstitutional, and unjust*; and has a manifest tendency to destroy British as well as American freedom.

The debate on these resolutions was animated, and even violent. Nothing like them had ever transpired in America. They evinced a settled purpose of resistance; and conveyed to the ministry of Great Britain a lesson, which had they read with unprejudiced minds, might have saved them the fruitless struggle of a seven years war. There were those, in the house of burgesses, who strongly opposed the resolutions; but the bold and powerful eloquence of Henry bore them down, and carried the resolutions through. In the heat of the debate, he boldly *asserted*, that the king had acted the part of a *tyrant*; and alluding to the fate of other tyrants, he exclaimed, "Cæsar had his *Brutus*, Charles I. his *Cromwell*, and George III."—here pausing a moment till the cry of "treason, treason," resounding from several parts of the house, had ended—he added—"may

profit by *their example*; if this be treason, make the most of it."

No sooner had the above resolutions passed, than copies of them were forwarded to the other provinces. They were received with enthusiasm by a justly indignant people, among whom they served to raise still higher the feelings of opposition, which pervaded the country.

Sec. 8. In June, Massachusetts recommended a colonial congress, to consult for the general safety. The recommendation was well received by most of the colonies, and in October, twenty-eight members assembled in New-York, where they remonstrated against the stamp act, and petitioned its repeal. At the same time, also, they drew up a declaration of rights, in which taxation and representation were declared to be inseparable.

This patriotic movement, on the part of the colony of Massachusetts, was made prior to any intelligence of the proceedings of Virginia, and was in accordance with the spirit of liberty, which early manifested itself in that province.

Three commissioners were appointed by Massachusetts to attend the proposed congress, and a circular was addressed to each of the colonies, to appoint commissioners, for the same purpose. To this proposal, eight colonies acceded, viz. Rhode-Island, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and South Carolina—commissioners from each of which met those from Massachusetts at New-York, on the first Tuesday of October, 1765. This was the first general meeting of the colonies. Timothy Ruggles, a commissioner from Massachusetts, was chosen president.

In their declaration, they acknowledged their allegiance to his majesty, and their willingness to render due honor to the rightful authority of parliament; but they claimed that they had *interests, rights, and liberties*, as the natural born subjects of his majesty, and that, as they could not be represented in parliament, that body had no right to impose taxes on them, without their consent. They declared the stamp act, and other acts of parliament, to have a manifest tendency to subvert the rights and liberties of the colonists.

This congress adjourned on the 25th of October, and their proceedings were approved by all the members, except Mr.

Ruggles of Massachusetts, and Mr. Ogden of New-Jersey, both of whom left New-York without signing the address and petitions. The petitioners from South Carolina and Connecticut were limited by their instructions to make report to their respective legislatures, and the committee of New-York, who had been admitted as members, had no authority to apply to the king or parliament. The address and petition were, therefore signed by commissioners from six of the colonies only. The proceedings of the congress were, however, afterwards sanctioned not only by the assemblies of South Carolina, Connecticut, and New-York, but of the colonies not therein represented.*

Sec. 9. The stamp act came into operation on the first day of November. But on that day, not a single sheet of all the bales of stamps, which had been sent from England, could have been found in the colonies of New-England, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the two Carolinas. They had either been committed to the flames, had been reshipped to England, or were safely guarded by the opposition, into whose hands they had fallen. A general suspension, or rather, a total cessation of all business, which required stamped paper, was the consequence. The printers of newspapers only, observes an historian, continued their occupation; alleging for excuse, that if they had done otherwise, the people would have given them such an admonition, as they little coveted. None would receive the gazettes coming from Canada, as they were printed on stamped paper. The courts of justice were shut; even marriages were no longer celebrated; and, in a word, an absolute stagnation in all the relations of social life was established.

It would scarcely be possible, by means of language, to convey an adequate idea of the strong feelings of opposition to this most odious act, which pervaded the friends of

* Pitkins' Political and Civil History of the United States.

liberty in America. As might be expected, these feelings were manifested in various riotous proceedings, which scarcely admit of a full justification.

As early as the middle of August, on the morning of one day, there were discovered two effigies hanging on the branch of an old elm, in the southern part of Boston, one of which was designed to represent a stamp officer—the other a jack-boot, out of which rose a horned head, which appeared to look around.

The novelty of the spectacle soon attracted a multitude to the spot, which continued to increase all day. Towards evening, the effigies were taken down, placed on a bier, and carried in funeral procession through several streets—a host following, and shouting, “liberty and property forever!—no stamps!” At length, arriving in front of a house, owned by one Oliver, which they supposed intended for a stamp office, they demolished it to its very foundations.

From this, they proceeded to his dwelling, and finding Oliver had fled, they destroyed his fences, broke open the doors of his dwelling, and greatly injured his furniture. On the following day, apprehensive of a second visit from this lawless multitude, Oliver gave public notice, that he had forwarded to England his resignation as a stamp officer. This becoming known to the populace, which had assembled to renew the last night’s assault, they gave three cheers to Oliver, and departed without doing farther damage.

The opposition of people in other places, was manifested by out-breakings of a similar kind.

At Portsmouth, in New-Hampshire, public notice was given to the friends of *liberty* to attend *her funeral*. A coffin was prepared, upon which the word Liberty was inscribed in large letters. This was carried to the grave with funeral ceremony—minute guns were fired during the march of the procession. At the place of interment, an oration was pronounced, in which, it being hinted that Liberty, thus entombed, might yet *revive*, the coffin was taken up, and the word *revived* added to the word Liberty. This done, the tone of the bells was instantly changed to a merry peal.

Sec. 10. About this time associations were formed in all the colonies, under the title of *Sons of Liberty*, the object of which was, by every practicable means, to oppose the unjust and arbitrary

measures of the British government. Added to this, societies were formed, including females as well as males, the members of which resolved to forego all the luxuries of life, rather than be indebted to the commerce of England.

These societies denied themselves, observes an historian,* the use of any foreign articles of clothing; carding, spinning and weaving became the daily employment of women of fashion; sheep were forbidden to be used as food, lest there should not be found a sufficient supply of wool; and to be dressed in a suit of home-spun was to possess the surest means of popular distinction. And so true were these societies to their mutual compact, that the British merchants and manufacturers soon began to feel the necessity of uniting with the colonies, in petitioning parliament for a repeal of the obnoxious law. Artificers and manufacturers in England were left without employment, and thrown upon the charities of the public; for even at that early day, this class of people were in a great measure dependent on the colonial consumption for their support. The warehouses of the merchants were, for the same reason, filled with unsaleable goods; and the table of the minister was soon loaded with petitions and remonstrances from all the large towns in the kingdom.

Sec. 11. Fortunately for the interests both of the colonies and of Great Britain, a change took place about this time in the administration of England, by which several of the friends of America came into power. The Marquis of Rockingham was appointed first Lord of the Treasury, in the room of Lord Grenville, and the Duke of Grafton and Gen. Conway Secretaries of State. To this new ministry, it was obvious, that measures must be taken either to repeal the odious statute, or to make America submit by force of arms. It was deemed the wiser course to repeal the statute; and accordingly a motion was made in parliament to that effect. The debate on the ques-

* Allen's American Revolution.

tion of repeal was long and angry. It was, at length, however, carried; but only by accompanying the repealing act by one called the *declaratory* act, the language of which was, that parliament have, and of right ought to have, *power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever.*

On the meeting of parliament, Jan. 7th, 1766, his majesty in his speech spoke of the above opposition of the colonies to the stamp act, in pointed terms of reprehension. On the motion for an address to the king, Mr. Pitt, the independent and invariable friend of liberty and equal rights, was the first to offer his sentiments on the state of affairs. "It is a long time, Mr. Speaker," said he, "since I have attended in parliament; when the resolution was taken in this house to tax America, I was ill in bed. If I could have endured to have been carried in my bed, so great was the agitation of my mind for the consequences, I would have solicited some kind hand to have laid me down on this floor to have borne my testimony against it. *It is my opinion that this kingdom has NO RIGHT to lay a tax upon the colonies.*"

Upon concluding his speech, a silence of some minutes succeeded. No one appeared inclined to take the part of the late minister, or to rouse the lion, which lay basking in the eye of the great commoner who had just sat down. At length, Mr. Grenville rose to reply. After declaring the tumult in America to border upon *rebellion*, and insisting upon the constitutional right of parliament to tax the colonies, he concluded as follows: "*Ungrateful people of America!* The nation has run itself into an immense debt to give them protection; bounties have been extended to them; in their favor the act of navigation, that palladium of the British commerce, has been relaxed: and now that they are called upon to contribute a small share towards the public expense, they renounce your authority, insult your officers, and break out, I might almost say, into open rebellion."

Mr. Grenville had scarcely taken his seat, when Mr. Pitt rose to reply—but the rules of the house forbidding him to speak twice on the same motion, he was called to order, and in obedience to the call, was resuming his seat, when the loud and repeated cry of "Go on," induced him once more to take the floor. In the course of his speech, he said, "We are told America is *obstinate*—America is

in open rebellion. Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted; three millions of people so dead to all the feelings of liberty, as voluntarily to submit to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of all the rest. I am no courtier of America. I maintain that parliament has a right to bind, to restrain America. Our legislative power over the colonies is sovereign and supreme. 'When,' asks the honorable gentleman 'were the colonies emancipated?' At what time, say I in answer, were they made slaves? I speak from accurate knowledge when I say that the profits to Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, is two millions per annum. This is the fund which carried you triumphantly through the war; this is the price America pays you for her protection; and shall a miserable financier come with a boast that he can fetch a pepper-corn into the exchequer, at the loss of millions to the nation?

"I know the valor of your troops—I know the skill of your officers—I know the force of this country; but in such a cause your success would be hazardous. America, if she fell, would fall like the strong man: she would embrace the pillars of the state, and pull down the constitution with her. Is this your boasted peace? not to sheathe the sword in the scabbard, but to sheathe it in the bowels of your countrymen? The Americans have been wronged—they have been driven to madness by injustice! Will you punish them for the madness you have occasioned? No. let this country be the first to resume its prudence and temper; I will pledge myself for the colonies, that on their part, animosity and resentment will cease. Upon the whole, I will beg leave to tell the house in few words what is really my opinion: It is, that the stamp act be repealed, *absolutely, totally, and immediately.*"

On the 22d of February, General Conway introduced a motion to repeal this act. The debate lasted until three o'clock in the morning, and never was there a debate which excited more warmth of interest, or more vehemence of opposition. The lobbies of the house were crowded with the manufacturers and traders of the kingdom, whose anxious countenances plainly showed that their fates hung upon the issue. A division at length being called for, two hundred and seventy-five rose in support of the motion, and one hundred and sixty-seven against it.

On learning this vote, the transports of the people were ungovernable. Impressed with the conviction that they

owed their deliverance to Mr. Pitt, their gratitude knew no bounds: when he appeared at the door, in the language of Burke, "they jumped upon him, like children on a long absent father. They clung to him as captives about their redeemer. All *England* joined in his applause." In the house of peers, the opposition to the motion was still more obstinate. Some of the dukes, and the whole *bench of bishops*, were for forcing the Americans to submit, with *fire and sword*. Opposition, however, was, at length, wearied out, and the motion to repeal was carried by a majority of thirty-four, a compromise having been made by introducing the above *declaratory act*.

Sec. 12. The satisfaction of the colonies on the repeal of the stamp act was sincere and universal. Elevated with the idea of having removed an odious and oppressive burden, and believing, notwithstanding the declaratory act of parliament, that the right of taxing the colonies was at length surrendered, better feelings were indulged; commercial intercourse was revived, and larger importations of goods were made than ever.

On the meeting of the house of representatives of Massachusetts, a vote of gratitude to the king, and of thanks to Mr. Pitt, the Duke of Grafton, and others, was passed by that body. By the house of burgesses in Virginia, it was resolved to erect a statue in honor of the king, and an obelisk in honor of all those, whether of the house of peers or of the commons, who had distinguished themselves in favor of the rights of the colonies.

Sec. 13. In July, 1766, the administration of the Marquis of Rockingham was dissolved, and a new one formed, under the direction of Mr. Pitt. at this time created Earl of Chatham. Unfortunately, it was composed of men of different political principles, and attached to different parties. Among the members of the new cabinet, hostile to America, was Charles Townshend, Chancellor of the Exchequer. Influenced by Lord Grenville, this latter minister, in the year 1767, introduced

into parliament a second plan for taxing America, viz. by imposing duties on glass, paper, paste-board, painter's colors, and *tea*.

Sec. 14. During the discussion of this bill, Mr. Pitt was confined by indisposition, and hence, unable to raise his voice against it. Without much opposition, it passed both houses; and on the 29th of June, received the royal assent. At the same time, were passed two other acts;—the one establishing a new board of custom-house officers in America; and the other restraining the legislature of the province of New-York from *passing any act whatever*, until they should furnish the king's troops with several required articles.

Sec. 15. These three acts reached America at the same time, and again excited universal alarm. The first and second were particularly odious. The new duties, it was perceived, were only a new mode of drawing money from the colonies, and the same strong opposition to the measure was exhibited, which had prevailed against the stamp act. Several of the colonies, through their colonial assemblies, expressed their just abhorrence of these enactments, and their determination never to submit to them.

Soon after the establishment of the new board of custom-house officers, at Boston, under the above act, a fit occasion presented itself, for an expression of the public indignation. This was the arrival at that port, in May, 1668, of the sloop *Liberty*, belonging to Mr. Hancock, and laden with wines from Madeira.

During the night, most of her cargo was unladen, and put into stores; on the following day, the sloop was entered at the custom-house, with a few pipes only. A discovery being made of these facts, by the custom-house officers, the vessel was seized, and by their order removed along side of the *Romney*, a ship of war, then in harbor. The conduct

of the custom-house officers, in this transaction, roused the indignant feelings of the Bostonians, who unwarrantably attacked the houses of the officers, and even assaulted their persons. No prosecutions, however, could be sustained, from the excited state of public feeling. Finding themselves no longer safe in the town, the officers prudently sought protection on board the *Romney*, and subsequently retired to Castle William.

Sec. 16. The public excitement was soon after increased by the arrival in the harbor of two regiments of troops, under the command of Colonel Dalrymple. These were designed to assist the civil magistrates in the preservation of peace, and the custom-house officers in the execution of their functions.

On the day after its arrival, the fleet was brought to anchor near Castle William. Having taken a station, which commanded the town, the troops, under cover of the cannon of the ships, landed without molestation, and to the number of upwards of 700 men, marched with muskets charged, bayonets fixed, martial music, and the usual military parade, on to the common. In the evening, the select men of Boston were required to quarter the two regiments in the town, but they absolutely refused. A temporary shelter, however, in Fanueil Hall, was permitted to one regiment, that was without its camp equipage. The next day, the state house, by order of the governor, was opened for the reception of the soldiers; and after the quarters were settled, two field pieces, with the main guard, were stationed just in its front. Every thing was calculated to excite the indignation of the inhabitants. The lower floor of the state house, which had been used by gentlemen and merchants as an exchange, the representatives' chamber, the court-house, Fanueil-Hall—places with which were intimately associated ideas of justice and freedom, as well as of convenience and utility—were now filled with regular soldiers. Guards were placed at the doors of the state house, through which the council must pass, in going to their own chamber. The common was covered with tents. Soldiers were constantly marching and counter marching to relieve the guards. The sentinels challenged the inhabitants as they passed. The Lord's day was profaned, and the devotion of the sanctuary disturbed

by the sound of drums and other military music. There was every appearance of a garrisoned town.*

Sec. 17. In Feb., 1769, both houses of parliament went a step beyond all that had preceded, in an address to the king, requesting him to give orders to the governor of Massachusetts—the spirited conduct of which province was particularly obnoxious to the ministry—to take notice of such as might be guilty of treason, that they might be sent to *England* and *tried there*.

A measure more odious to the people of America, or more hostile to the British constitution, could not be named, than for a man to be torn from his country, to be tried by a jury of strangers.

The house of burgesses of Virginia met soon after the official accounts of this address were received, and, in a few days, passed several spirited resolutions, expressing “their exclusive right to tax their constituents, and denying the right of his majesty to remove an offender out of the country for trial.” The next day, the royal governor of that colony sent for the house of burgesses, and addressed them laconically as follows: “Mr. Speaker, and gentlemen of the house of burgesses, I have heard of your resolves, and augur ill of their effects. You have made it my duty to dissolve you, and you are accordingly dissolved!” The assembly of North Carolina passed similar resolutions, and were dissolved by their governor, in a similar manner.

In May following, the assembly of Massachusetts convened, but refused to transact any business, while the state house was surrounded by an armed force. This force, however, the governor would not remove, but adjourned the assembly to Cambridge. At this place, the assembly passed resolutions expressing their belief, that the maintenance of a standing army in the colony, in time of peace, was an infringement of the natural rights of the people. They refused to make any of the appropriations of money desired by the governor, in consequence of which he prorogued them. In August, the governor (Bernard) was recalled, and the government devolved upon Lieutenant Governor Hutchinson.

* Holmes' American Annals.

Sec. 18. During the session of parliament in 1770, the Duke of Grafton, first lord of the treasury, resigned, and was succeeded in that office by the afterwards celebrated Lord North. In March, this latter gentleman introduced a bill, abolishing all duties imposed by the act of 1767, on all the articles, except *tea*. This partial suspension of the duties served to soften the feeling of the Americans in a degree; but the exception in relation to tea, it was quite apparent, was designed as a salvo to the national honor, and an evidence which the British ministry were unwilling to relinquish of the right of parliament to tax the colonies.

Sec. 19. While affairs were thus situated, an event occurred, which produced great excitement in America, particularly in Massachusetts. This was an affray, on the evening of the fifth of March, 1770, between some of the citizens of Boston, and a number of his majesty's soldiers, who had been sent from Halifax, and were now stationed at the custom house. Several of the inhabitants were killed, and others severely wounded.

The quarrel commenced on the 2d of March, at Gray's rope walk, between a soldier, and a man employed at the rope walk. The provocation was given by the citizen, and a scuffle ensued, in which the soldier was beaten. On the 5th of the month, the soldiers, while under arms, were pressed upon and insulted, and dared to fire. One of them, who had received a blow, fired at the aggressor, and a single discharge from six others succeeded. Three of the citizens were killed, and five dangerously wounded. The town was instantly thrown into the greatest commotion, the bells were rung, and the general cry was "to arms." In a short time, several thousands of the citizens had assembled, and a dreadful scene of blood must have ensued, but for the promise of Governor Hutchinson, that the affair should be settled to their satisfaction in the morning. Capt. Preston, who commanded the soldiers, was committed with

them to prison. Upon their trial, the captain and six soldiers were acquitted; two were convicted of manslaughter. For several subsequent years, the evening of the day on which this outrage was committed was commemorated by the citizens of Boston, and the event gave occasion to addresses the most warm and patriotic, which served to waken up and increase the spirit of the revolution.

Sec. 20. During the summer of 1772, another event occurred, which presented a fresh obstacle to a reconciliation between America and the mother country. This was the destruction by the people of Rhode Island of a British armed schooner called *Gaspee*, which had been stationed in that colony to assist the board of custom in the execution of the revenue and trade laws.

The destruction of this vessel grew out of an odious requisition of her commander, upon the masters of packets, navigating the bay, to lower their colors, on passing the schooner.

On the 9th of June, as the Providence packet was sailing into the harbor of Newport, her captain was ordered to lower his colors. He refused, and a shot was fired at him from the schooner, which immediately made sail in chase. By a dexterous management, on the part of the master of the packet, he led the schooner on a shoal, where she grounded, and remained fast. At night, it was determined by a number of fishermen, and others, headed by several respectable merchants of Providence, that so good an opportunity of revenge should not be lost; and they accordingly manned a number of whale boats, in which they proceeded to the schooner, made themselves masters of her, and then set her on fire. When the knowledge of this event came to the governor, a reward of *five hundred pounds* was offered by proclamation, for the discovery of the offenders, and the royal pardon to those who would confess their guilt. Commissioners were appointed also to investigate the offence, and bring the perpetrators to justice. But the commissioners, after remaining some time in session, reported that they could obtain no *evidence*, and thus the affair terminated.

Sec. 21. In 1773, an important measure was

adopted by most of the colonies, viz. the appointment of *committees of correspondence and inquiry*, in various parts of their respective territories, by means of which a confidential and invaluable interchange of opinions was kept up between the colonies, and great unity of sentiment was promoted.

This measure had its origin in Massachusetts, in which colony meetings were called to express their views of the oppressive acts of the British parliament, and especially of an act, by which a salary was voted to the royal governor of Massachusetts by parliament, and the people of that colony required to pay it. In these meetings, the town of Boston took the lead. A committee was appointed to address the several towns in the colony, and to urge upon them the importance of an unanimous expression of their feelings, with regard to the conduct of the British ministry.

The proceedings of the assembly, and of the towns in Massachusetts, were communicated to the house of burgesses in Virginia, in March, 1773, upon which that body passed the following resolution :

Resolved, that a standing committee of correspondence and inquiry be appointed, to consist of eleven persons, to wit: the honorable Peyton Randolph, Esq., Robert Carter Nicholas, Richard Bland, Richard Henry Lee, Benjamin Harrison, Edmund Pendleton, Patrick Henry, Dudley Diggs, Dabney Carr, Archibald Cary, and Thomas Jefferson, Esqrs., any six of whom to be a committee, whose business it shall be to obtain the most early and authentic intelligence of such acts and resolutions of the British parliament, or proceedings of administration, as may relate to or affect the British colonies; and to keep up and maintain a correspondence and communication with our sister colonies, respecting these important considerations, and the result of their proceedings from time to time to lay before the house.

Upon the recommendation of Virginia, similar committees of correspondence and inquiry were appointed by the different colonial assemblies, and a confidential interchange of opinions was thus kept up between the colonies.

Sec. 22. During these transactions in America, a plan was devised by the British ministry to in

introduce *tea* into the colonies. For some time, little of that article had been imported into the country, from a determination of the people not to submit to the payment of the duty upon it. In consequence of this, the teas of the East India company had greatly accumulated in their warehouses. To enable them to export their teas to America, the British minister introduced a bill into parliament, allowing the company to export their teas into America with a drawback of all the duties paid in England. As this would make the tea cheaper in America than in Great Britain, it was presumed that the Americans would pay the small duty upon it, which was only three pence. In this, however, the parliament mistook. Not a single penny by way of duty was paid upon it, nor a single pound of it consumed.

On the passage of this bill, the company made a shipment of large quantities of tea to Charleston, Philadelphia, New-York, and Boston. Before its arrival, the resolution had been formed by the inhabitants of those places, that if possible it should not even be landed. The cargo destined for Charleston was indeed landed and stored; but was not permitted to be offered for sale. The vessels, which brought tea to Philadelphia, and New-York, were compelled to return to England, without even having made an entry at the custom-house.

It was designed by the leading patriots of Boston to make a similar disposition of the cargoes, which were expected at that place; but, on their arrival, the consignees were found to be the relations, or friends of the governor, and they could not be induced to resign their trust. Several town meetings were held on the subject, and spirited resolutions passed, that no considerations would induce the inhabitants to permit the landing of the tea. Orders were at the same time given to the captains to obtain clearances at the custom-house, without the usual entries; but this the collector pertinaciously refused.

It was in this state of things that the citizens of Boston again assembled to determine what measures to adopt.

While the discussions were going on, a captain of a vessel was dispatched to the governor to request a passport. At length, he returned, to say that the governor refused. The meeting was immediately dissolved. A secret plan had been formed to mingle the tea with the waters of the ocean. Three different parties soon after sallied out, in the costume of Mohawk Indians, and precipitately made their way to the wharves. At the same time, the citizens were seen in crowds directing their course to the same place, to become spectators of a scene, as novel, as the enterprise was bold. Without noise, without the tumult usual on similar occasions, the tea was taken from the vessel by the conspirators, and expeditiously offered as an oblation "to the watery god."

Sec. 23. Intelligence of these proceedings was, on the 7th of March, 1774, communicated, in a message from the throne, to both houses of parliament. The excitement was peculiarly strong. In the spirit of revenge against Massachusetts, and particularly against Boston, which was considered as the chief seat of rebellion, a bill was brought forward, called the "*Boston port bill*," by which the port of Boston was precluded from the privilege of landing or discharging, or of loading and shipping goods, wares, and merchandise.

A second bill, which passed at this time, essentially altered the charter of the province, making the appointment of the council, justices, judges, &c. dependent upon the crown, or its agent. A third soon followed, authorizing and directing the governor to send any person indicted for murder, or any other capital offence, to another colony, or to Great Britain, for trial.

Sec. 24. On the arrival of these acts, the town of Boston passed the following vote: "That it is the opinion of this town, that, if the other colonies come into a joint resolution to stop all importation from Great Britain and the West Indies,

till the act for blocking up this harbour be repealed, the same will prove the salvation of North America and her liberties." Copies of this vote were transmitted to each of the colonies.

As an expression of their sympathy with the people of Boston in their distress, the house of burgesses in Virginia ordered that the day, on which the Boston port bill was to take effect, should be observed as a day of fasting and prayer.

Obs. The words *Whigs and Tories* were, about this time, introduced as the distinguishing names of parties. By the former, was meant those who favored the cause of Boston, and were zealous in supporting the colonies against the parliament; by the latter, was meant the favorers of Great Britain.

Sec. 25. During these transactions in Massachusetts, measures had been taken to convene a Continental Congress. On the 4th of Sept., 1774, deputies from eleven colonies met at Philadelphia, and elected Peyton Randolph, the then late speaker of the Virginia Assembly, president, and Charles Thompson, Secretary. After considerable debate, it was agreed that each colony should have one equal vote.

Having settled the manner of voting, the congress proceeded to the discharge of the high trust committed to them. They agreed upon a declaration of their rights, recommended the non-importation of British goods into the country, and the non-exportation of American produce to Great Britain, so long as their grievances were unredressed—voted an address to his Majesty—and likewise one to the people of Great Britain, and another to the French inhabitants of Canada.

This congress, having finished their business in less than eight weeks, dissolved themselves, after recommending another congress to be con-

vened on the 10th of May ensuing, unless the redress of their grievances should be previously obtained.

Although the power of this congress was only advisory, their resolutions were approved, not only by the people, but also by the authorities, whether established, or provisional, and exerted a commanding influence in consummating that union among the colonies, which had been increasing with their grievances.

The following are the names of members composing the congress of 1774.

New-Hampshire.

John Sullivan,
Nathaniel Fulson.

Massachusetts.

James Bowdoin,
Thomas Cushing,
Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert T. Paine.

Rhode-Island

Stephen Hopkins,
Samuel Ward.

Connecticut.

Eliphalet Dyer,
Roger Sherman,
Silas Deane.

New-York.

James Duane,
Henry Wisner,
John Jay,
Philip Livingston,
Isaac Low,
John Alsop,
William Floyd.

New-Jersey.

James Kinsey,
William Livingston,
John De Hart,
Stephen Crane,
Richard Smith.

Pennsylvania.

Joseph Galloway,
Charles Humphreys,
Samuel Rhoads,
George Ross,
John Morton,
Thomas Mifflin,
Edward Biddle,
John Dickenson.

Delaware.

Cæsar Rodney,
Thomas M'Kean,
George Read.

Maryland.

Robert Goldsborough,
Thomas Jefferson,
William Paca,
Samuel Chase,
Matthew Tilghman

Virginia.

Peyton Randolph,
Richard Henry Lee
George Washington.
Patrick Henry,
Richard Bland,
Benjamin Harrison,
Edmund Pendleton.

North-Carolina

William Hooper,
Joseph Hughes,

Richard Caswell,
South-Carolina.
 Henry Middleton,
 John Rutledge,

Thomas Lynch,
 Christopher Gadsden,
 Edward Rutledge.

The congress which thus terminated its session, has justly been celebrated, from that time to the present, and its celebrity will continue, while wisdom finds admirers, and patriotism is regarded with veneration. The tone and temper of their various resolutions, the style of their addresses, and the composition of the several public papers, contributed, in every particular, to excite the admiration of the world. Born and educated in the wilds of a new world, unpractised in the arts of polity, most of them inexperienced in the arduous duties of legislation, differing in religion, manners, customs, and habits, as they did in their views of the nature of their connexion with Great Britain; that such an assembly, so constituted, should display so much wisdom, sagacity, foresight, and knowledge of the world; such skill in argument; such force of reasoning; such firmness and soundness of judgment; so profound an acquaintance with the rights of men; such genuine patriotism; and above all, such unexampled union of opinion, was indeed a political phenomenon to which history has furnished no parallel.* Both at home and abroad they were spoken of in terms of the highest admiration. *Abroad*, the Earl of Chatham, in one of his brilliant speeches, remarked of them:—"History, my lords, has been my favorite study, and in the celebrated writings of antiquity, have I often admired the patriotism of Greece and Rome; but, my lords, I must declare, and avow, that in the master states of the world, I know not the people, or senate, who, in such a complication of difficult circumstances, can stand in preference to the delegates of America assembled in general congress at Philadelphia." *At home*, they were celebrated by a native and popular bard,† in an equally elevated strain:

Now meet the fathers of this western clime;
 Nor names more noble graced the rolls of fame,
 When Spartan firmness braved the wrecks of time,
 Or Latian virtue fann'd the heroic flame.

Not deeper thought the immortal sage inspired,
 On Solon's lips when Grecian senates hung;
 Not manlier eloquence the bosom fired,
 When genius thundered from the Athenian tongue.

* Allen.

† M'Fingal.

Sec. 26. An assembly was ordered by Gov. Gage, of Massachusetts, to convene Oct. 5th ; but before that period arrived, judging their meeting inexpedient, he counteracted the writs of convocation, by a proclamation. The assembly, however, to the number of ninety, met at Salem, where the governor not attending, they adjourned to Concord. Here they chose John Hancock president, and, after adjourning to Cambridge, drew up a plan for the immediate defence of the province, by enlisting men, appointing general officers, &c.

In November, this provincial congress met again, and resolved to get in readiness twelve thousand men to act in any emergency ; and that one fourth part of the militia should be enlisted as minute-men. At the same time, a request was forwarded to Connecticut, New-Hampshire, and Rhode Island, jointly to increase this army to twenty thousand men.

Sec. 27. Early the next year, Jan. 7th, 1775, Lord Chatham, Mr. Pitt, after a long retirement, resumed his seat in the house of lords, and introduced *a conciliatory bill*, the object of which was, to settle the troubles in America. But the efforts of this venerable and peace-making man wholly failed, the bill being rejected by a majority of sixty-four to thirty-two, without even the compliment of lying on the table.

The rejection of this bill was followed the next day by the introduction of a bill, which finally passed, to restrain the trade of the New-England provinces, and to forbid their fishing on the banks of Newfoundland. Soon after, restrictions were imposed upon the middle and southern colonies, with the exception of New-York, Delaware, and North Carolina. This bill, designed to promote disunion among the colonies, happily failed of its object.

Thus we have given a succinct account of the system of measures adopted by the ministry of

England toward the American colonies after the peace of '63—measures most unfeeling and unjust; but which no petitions, however respectful, and no remonstrances, however loud, could change. Satisfied of this, justice permitted the people, and self-respect and self-preservation loudly summoned them, to *resist by force*.

Sec. 28. The crisis, therefore, had now arrived, the signal of war was given, and the blood shed at *Lexington* opened the scene.

Gen. Gage, the king's governor of Massachusetts, learning that a large quantity of military stores had been deposited by the provincials, at Concord, detached Lieut. Col. Smith, and Major Pitcairn, with eight hundred grenadiers, to destroy them. On their arrival at Lexington, on the morning of the 19th of April, 1775, seventy of the militia, who had hastily assembled upon an alarm, were under arms, on the parade. Eight of these were, without provocation, killed, and several wounded.

The greatest precaution was taken by Governor Gage, to prevent the intelligence of this expedition from reaching the country. Officers were dispersed along the road to intercept expresses, who might be sent from Boston. But the precaution proved ineffectual. The alarm was given, and was rapidly spread by means of church bells, guns, and volleys.

The slaughter of the militia at Lexington was extremely wanton. Major Pitcairn, the British commander, on seeing them on the parade, rode up to them, and, with a loud voice, cried out, "disperse, disperse, you rebels; throw down your arms and disperse." The sturdy yeomanry not immediately obeying his orders, he approached nearer, discharged his pistol, and ordered his soldiers to fire.

From Lexington, the detachment proceeded to Concord, and destroyed the stores. After killing several of the militia, who came forth to oppose them, they retreated to Lexington with some loss, the Americans firing upon them from behind walls, hedges, and buildings.

Fortunately for the British, here Lord Percy met them, with a reinforcement of nine hundred men, some marines, and two field-pieces. Still annoyed by the provincials, they continued their retreat to Bunker's Hill, in Charlestown, and the day following crossed over to Boston. The British lost, in killed and wounded, during their absence, two hundred and seventy-three. The loss of the Americans amounted to eighty-eight killed, wounded, and missing.

Sec. 29. Such was the affair at Lexington, the first action that opened the war of the revolution. The issue of it filled the English officers with indignation: they could not endure that an undisciplined multitude, that "*a flock of Yankees,*" as they contemptuously named the Americans, should have forced them to turn their backs. On the other hand, the result of the day immeasurably increased the courage of the Americans. The tidings spread; the voice of war rung through the land, and the preparations were every where commenced to carry it forward.

The provincial congress of Massachusetts, being in session at this time, dispatched a minute account of the affair at Lexington to Great Britain, with depositions to prove that the British troops were the aggressors. In conclusion, they used this emphatic language: "*Appealing to Heaven for the justice of our cause, we determine to die, or be free.*"

The congress, at the same time, resolved that a levy should be made in the province of thirteen thousand six hundred men. This force being raised, was soon after joined by troops from New-Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, and an army of thirty thousand men assembled in the environs of Boston.

Sec. 30. As the war had now begun, and was likely to proceed, it was deemed important to se-

cure the fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Accordingly, a number of volunteers from Connecticut and Vermont, under command of Col. Ethan Allen, and Col. Benedict Arnold, marched against Ticonderoga, and on the 10th of May, took it by surprise, the garrison being asleep. The fortress of Crown Point surrendered shortly after.

On the arrival of Allen at Ticonderoga, he demanded the fort. "By what authority?" asked the commander. "I demand it," said Allen, "in the name of the Great Jehovah, and of the Continental Congress." The summons was instantly obeyed, and the fort was, with its valuable stores, surrendered.

Sec. 31. The taking of Ticonderoga and Crown Point was soon followed by the memorable *Battle of Buuker's Hill*, as it is usually called, or of Breed's Hill, a high eminence in Charlestown, within cannon-shot of Boston, where the battle was actually fought, June 17th.

The evening preceding, a detachment of one thousand Americans were ordered to make an intrenchment on Bunker's Hill; but, by some mistake, they proceeded to *Breed's Hill*, and by the dawn of day, had thrown up a redoubt eight rods square, and four feet high.

On discovering this redoubt in the morning, the British commenced a severe cannonade upon it, from several ships and floating batteries, and from a fortification on Copp's Hill, in Boston, which was continued until afternoon. The Americans, however, never intermitted their work for a moment, and during the forenoon, lost but a single man.

Between twelve and one o'clock, three thousand British, under command of Major Gen. Howe, and Brigadier Gen. Pigot, crossed Charles River, with an intention to dislodge the Americans.

As they advanced, the British commenced firing at some distance from the redoubt; but the Americans reserved their fire, until the enemy were within twelve rods. They then opened, and the carnage was terrible. The British retreated in precipitate confusion. They were, however, rallied by their officers, being, in some instances, pushed

on by their swords, and were again led to the attack. The Americans now suffered them to approach within six rods, when their fire mowed them down in heaps, and again they fled. Unfortunately for the Americans, their ammunition here failed; and, on the third charge of the British, they were obliged to retire, after having obstinately resisted even longer than prudence admitted. The British lost in this engagement two hundred and twenty-six killed, among whom was Major Pitcairn, who first lighted the torch of war at Lexington, and eight hundred and twenty-eight wounded. The Americans lost one hundred and thirty-nine killed, and of wounded and missing there were three hundred and fourteen. Among the killed was the lamented Gen. Warren.

The horrors of this scene were greatly increased by the conflagration of Charlestown, effected, during the heat of the battle, by the orders of Gen. Gage. By this wanton act of barbarity, two thousand people were deprived of their habitations, and property to the amount of one hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling, perished in the flames. "Wanton, however, as the burning of Charlestown was, it wonderfully enhanced the dreadful magnificence of the day. To the volleys of musketry and the roar of cannon; to the shouts of the fighting and the groans of the dying; to the dark and awful atmosphere of smoke, enveloping the whole peninsula, and illumined in every quarter by the streams of fire from the various instruments of death; the conflagration of six hundred buildings added a gloomy and amazing grandeur. In the midst of this waving lake of flame, the lofty steeple, converted into a blazing pyramid, towered and trembled over the vast pyre, and finished the scene of desolation."

To the Americans, the consequences of this battle were those of a decided victory. They learned that their enemies were not invulnerable. At the same time, they learned the importance of stricter discipline, and greater preparations. As the result of the battle spread, the national pulse beat still higher, and the arm of opposition was braced still more firmly.

Sec. 32. The second continental congress met at Philadelphia, on the 10th of May. As military opposition to Great Britain was now resolved upon by the colonies, and had actually commenced, it became necessary to fix upon a proper person





*Col. Allen, demanding the Surrender of
Ticonderoga. P. 223.*



Battle of Bunker Hill. P. 223

to conduct that opposition. The person unanimously selected by congress was *George Washington*, a member of their body, from Virginia.

The honor of having suggested and advocated the choice of this illustrious man, is justly ascribed to the elder President Adams, at that time a member of the continental congress. The army was at this time at Cambridge, Massachusetts, under Gen. Ward. As yet, it had not been adopted by the country; but this measure was deemed eminently important, since, until it was adopted, it could be considered in no other light, than a band of armed rebels. The attention of not a few in congress had been turned towards this interesting subject, and upon the decision, as to a commander in chief, it was perceived the success of the American people, in their struggle for liberty, might depend. The southern and middle states, warm and rapid in their zeal, for the most part, were jealous of New-England, because they felt that the real physical force was *here*. What, then, was to be done? All New-England adored Gen. Ward; he had been in the French war, and had come out laden with laurels. He was a scholar and a gentleman. All the qualifications seemed to cluster in him; and it was confidently believed the army could not receive any commander over him. What, then, was to be done? Difficulties thickened at every step. The struggle was to be long and bloody. Without union, all was lost. Union was strength. The country, and the whole country, must come in. One pulsation must break through all hearts. The cause was one, and the arm must be one. The members had talked, debated, considered, and guessed, and yet the decisive step had not been taken. At length, Mr. Adams came to his conclusion, and the manner of developing it was nearly as follows: He was walking one morning before congress hall, apparently in deep thought, when his cousin, Samuel Adams, came up to him, and said, "What is the topic with you this morning, cousin?" "Oh, the army, the army," he replied. "I am determined what to do about the army at Cambridge," he continued; "I am determined to go into the hall this morning, and enter on a full detail of the state of the colonies, in order to show the absolute need of taking some decisive steps. My whole aim will be to induce congress to appoint a day for adopting the army, as the legal army of these United Colonies of North America; and then to hint at my election of a commander in chief." "Well," said

Samuel Adams, "I like that, cousin John; but on whom have you fixed as this commander?" "I'll tell you, George Washington, of Virginia, a member of this house." "Oh," replied Samuel Adams, quickly, "that will never do, never, never." "It *must* do, it *shall* do," said John Adams, "and for these reasons: the southern and middle states are loth to enter heartily into the cause, and their arguments are potent; they see that New-England holds the physical power in her hands, and they fear the result. A New-England army, a New-England commander, with New-England perseverance, all united, appal them. For this cause they hang back. Now, the only way is, to allay their fears, and give them nothing to complain of; and this can be done in no other way but by appointing a southern chief over this force. *Then* all will feel secure; then all will rush to the standard. This policy will blend us in one mass, and that mass will be resistless." At this, Samuel Adams seemed greatly moved. They talked over the preliminary circumstances, and John asked his cousin to second his motion.

Mr. Adams went in, took the floor, and put forth all his strength in the delineations he had prepared, all aiming at the adoption of the army. *He* was ready to own the army, appoint a commander, vote supplies, and proceed to business. After his speech, some doubted, some objected, and some feared. His warmth mounted with the occasion, and to all these doubts and hesitations he replied, "Gentlemen, if this congress will not adopt this army, before ten moons have set, New-England will have a congress of her own, which *will* adopt it, and she, *she* will undertake the struggle *alone*; yes, with a strong arm and a clear conscience, will front the foe alone." This had the desired effect. They saw New-England was not playing, and was not to be played with; they agreed to appoint a day.

The day was fixed. It came. Mr. Adams went in, took the floor, urged the measure, and, after debate, it passed. The next thing was to get a lawful commander for this lawful army, with supplies, &c. All looked to Mr. Adams, on this occasion; and he was ready. He took the floor, and went into a minute delineation of the character of General Ward, bestowing on him the epithets which, then, belonged to no one else. At the end of this eulogy, he said, "but this is not the man I have chosen." He then went into a delineation of the character of a commander in chief, such as was required by the peculiar situation of the colonies at that juncture; and after he had presented the qualifications

in his strongest language, and given the reasons for the nomination he was about to make, he said, "Gentlemen, I know these qualifications are high, but we all know they are needful at this crisis, in this chief. Does any one say that they are not to be obtained in the country? I reply, they are, they reside in one of our own body, and he is the person whom I now nominate, GEORGE WASHINGTON, of Virginia."

Washington, who sat on Mr. Adams' right hand, was looking him intently in the face, to watch the name he was about to announce; and not expecting it would be his own, he sprung from his seat the moment he heard it, and rushed into an adjoining room, as quickly as though moved by a shock of electricity.

Mr. Adams had asked his cousin Samuel to move for an adjournment as soon as the nomination was made, in order to give the members time to deliberate in private. They did deliberate, and the result is before the world.

General Washington, in his reply to the president of congress, who announced to him his appointment, after consenting to enter upon the momentous duty assigned him, added: "But lest some unlucky event should happen unfavorable to my reputation, I beg it may be remembered, by every gentleman in the room, that I this day declare, with the utmost sincerity, I do not think myself equal to the command I am honored with.

"As to pay, sir, I beg leave to assure the congress, that as no pecuniary consideration could have tempted me to accept this arduous employment, at the expense of my domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses. Those, I doubt not, they will discharge, and that is all I desire."*

A special commission was drawn up and presented to him, as commander in chief of the American forces; on presenting it, congress unanimously adopted this resolution: "that they would maintain and assist him, and adhere to him with their lives and fortunes, in the cause of American liberty."

* The whole sum which, in the course of the war, passed through his hands, amounted only to fourteen thousand four hundred and seventy-nine pounds sterling. After Gen. Washington's elevation to the presidency, he continued to send to the comptrollers of the treasury an annual account of his expenses, which, in some years, amounted to thirty-one thousand dollars. As the salary fixed by law for that office was no more than twenty-five thousand dollars, the excess he paid out of his private funds.

Following the appointment of Gen. Washington, was the appointment of four major generals, Artemas Ward, Charles Lee, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam; and eight brigadier generals, Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathaniel Greene.

Sec. 33. Gen. Washington, on his arrival at Cambridge, on the second of July, was received with joyful acclamations by the American army. He found it, consisting of 14,000 men, stretched from Roxbury to Cambridge, and thence to Mystic river, a distance of twelve miles. The British forces occupied Bunker and Breed's hill, and Boston Neck.

The attention of the commander in chief was immediately directed to the strength and situation of the enemy, and to the introduction of system and union into the army, the want of which pervaded every department. This was a delicate and difficult attempt, but the wisdom and firmness of Washington removed every obstacle, and at length brought even independent freemen, in a good degree, to the control of military discipline.

Sec. 34. While Washington was employed in organizing his army, and preparing for future operations, an important expedition was planned against Canada, the charge of which was assigned to Gens. Schuyler and Montgomery. On the 10th of September, one thousand American troops landed at St. Johns, the first British post in Canada, (one hundred and fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga,) but found it advisable to retire to the Isle aux Noix, twelve miles south of St. Johns. Here the health of Gen. Schuyler obliging him to return to Ticonderoga, the command devolved on Gen. Montgomery. This enterprising officer, in a few days, returned to the investment of St. Johns, and on the 3d of November, received the surrender of this important post.



Burning of Charlestown. P. 221.



Arnold's March. P. 229.



On the surrender of St. Johns, five hundred regulars and one hundred Canadians became prisoners to the provincials. There were also taken thirty-nine pieces of cannon, seven mortars, and five hundred stands of arms.

Gen. Montgomery next proceeded against Montreal, which, without resistance, capitulated. From Montreal he rapidly proceeded towards Quebec.

Before his arrival, however, Col. Arnold, who had been dispatched by Gen. Washington with one thousand American troops from Cambridge, had reached Quebec, by the way of Kennebeck, a river of Maine,—had ascended the heights of Abraham, where the brave Wolfe ascended before him; but had found it necessary to retire to a place twenty miles above Quebec, where he was waiting for the arrival of Montgomery.

Seldom was there an expedition attempted during the American war, in which more hardship was endured, or more untiring perseverance manifested, than in this of Arnold's. In ascending the Kennebeck, his troops were constantly obliged to work against an impetuous current, and often to haul their batteaux up rapid currents and over dangerous falls. Nor was their march through the country, by an unexplored route of three hundred miles, less difficult or dangerous. They had swamps and woods, mountains and precipices, alternately to surpass. Added to their other trials, their provisions failed, and, to support life, they were obliged to eat their dogs, cartouch boxes, clothes, and shoes. While at the distance of one hundred miles from human habitations, they divided their whole store, about four pints of flour to a man. At thirty miles distance, they had baked and eaten their last pitiful morsel. Yet the courage and fortitude of these men continued unshaken. They were suffering in their country's cause, were toiling for wives and children, were contending for the rights and blessings of freedom. After thirty-one days of incessant toil through a hideous wilderness, they reached the habitations of men.

Sec. 35. Montgomery, having effected a junction with Arnold, commenced the siege of Quebec.

On the 5th of December, after continuing the siege nearly a month to little purpose, the bold plan was adopted of attempting the place by scaling the walls. Two attacks were made, at the same time, in different quarters of the town, by Montgomery and Arnold. The attempt, however, proved unsuccessful, and, to the great loss and grief of America, fatal to the brave Montgomery. He fell while attempting to force a barrier, and with him fell two distinguished officers, Capt. M'Pherson, his aid, and Capt. Cheeseman.

After this repulse, Arnold retired about three miles from Quebec, where he continued encamped through a rigorous winter. On the return of spring, 1776, finding his forces inadequate to the reduction of Quebec, and not being reinforced, he retired. By the 18th of June, the Americans, having been compelled to relinquish one post after another, had wholly evacuated Canada.

The garrison of Quebec consisted, at the time of the above attack, of about one thousand five hundred men; the American forces were near eight hundred. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was about one hundred, and three hundred were taken prisoners.

The death of General Montgomery was deeply lamented both in Europe and America. "The most powerful speakers in the British parliament displayed their eloquence, in praising his virtues and lamenting his fall." Congress directed a monument to be erected to his memory, expressive of their sense of his high patriotism and heroic conduct.

Sec. 36. During this year, 1775, Virginia, through the indiscretion of Lord Dunmore, the royal governor, was involved in difficulties little short of those to which the inhabitants of Massachusetts were subjected. From the earliest stages of the controversy with Great Britain, the Virginians had been in the foremost rank of opposition; and,

in common with other provinces, had taken measures for defence.

These measures for defence, the royal governor, regarding with an eye of suspicion, attempted to thwart, by the removal of guns and ammunition, which had been stored by the people in a magazine. The conduct of the governor roused the inhabitants, and occasioned intemperate expressions of resentment. Apprehending personal danger, Lord Dunmore retired on board the *Fowey* man of war, from which he issued his proclamations, instituting martial law, and proffering freedom to such slaves, as would leave their masters, and repair to the royal standard. Here, also, by degrees, he equipped and armed a number of vessels, and, upon being refused provisions by the provincials, from on shore, he proceeded to reduce the town of Norfolk to ashes. The loss was estimated at three hundred thousand pounds sterling. Nearly six thousand persons were deprived of their habitations.

In like manner, the royal governors of North and South Carolina thought it prudent to retire, and seek safety on board men of war. Royal government generally terminated this year throughout the country, the king's governors, for the most part, abdicating their governments, and taking refuge on board the English shipping.

Sec. 37. Early in the spring of 1776, Gen. Washington contemplated the expulsion of the British army from Boston, by direct assault. In a council of war, it was deemed expedient, however, rather to take possession of, and fortify Dorchester Heights, which commanded the harbor and British shipping. The night of the 4th of March was selected for the attempt. Accordingly, in the evening a covering party of eight hundred, followed by a working party of twelve hundred.

with intrenching tools, took possession of the Heights, unobserved by the enemy.

Here betaking themselves to work with so much activity, by morning they had constructed fortifications, which completely sheltered them. The surprise of the British cannot easily be conceived. The English admiral, after examining the works, declared that, if the Americans were not dislodged from their position, his vessels could no longer remain in safety in the harbor. It was determined, therefore, by the British, to evacuate Boston, which they now did; and on the 17th, the British troops, under command of Lord William Howe, successor of Gen. Gage, sailed for Halifax. General Washington, to the great joy of the inhabitants, army, and nation, immediately marched into the town.

The rear guard of the British was scarcely out of the town, when Washington entered it on the other side, with colors displayed, drums beating, and all the forms of victory and triumph. He was received by the inhabitants, with demonstrations of joy and gratitude. Sixteen months had the people suffered the distresses of hunger,* and the outrages of an insolent soldiery.

The town presented a melancholy spectacle, at the time the army of Washington entered. One thousand five hundred loyalists, with their families, had just departed on board the British fleet, tearing themselves from home and friends, for the love of the royal cause. Churches were stripped of pews and benches for fuel, shops were opened and rifled of goods to clothe the army, and houses had been pillaged by an unfeeling soldiery.

Sec. 38. While affairs were proceeding thus in the north, an attempt was made, in June and

* Provisions had been so scarce in Boston, that a pound of fresh fish was twelve pence sterling, a goose eight shillings and four pence, a turkey twelve shillings and six pence, a duck eight shillings and two pence, hens two shillings and one penny per pound. A sheep cost thirty-five shillings sterling, apples thirty-three shillings and four pence per bushel. Fire wood forty-one shillings and eight pence per cord, and finally was not to be procured at any price.

July, to destroy the fort on Sullivan's Island, near Charleston, S. C., by Gen. Clinton and Sir Peter Parker. After an action of upwards of ten hours, the British were obliged to retire, having their ships greatly injured, and with the loss of two hundred killed and wounded. The loss of the Americans was but ten killed, and twenty-two wounded.

The fort was commanded by Col. Moultrie, whose garrison consisted of but three hundred and seventy-five regular troops, and a few militia. On the fort was mounted twenty-six cannon of eighteen and nine pounders. The British force consisted of two fifty gun ships, and four frigates, each of twenty-eight guns, besides several smaller vessels, with three thousand troops on board. By this repulse of the British, the southern states obtained a respite from the calamities of war for two years and a half.

Among the American troops who resisted the British, in their attack on Fort Moultrie, was a Sergeant Jasper, whose name has been given to one of the counties in Georgia, in commemoration of his gallant deeds, and who deserves an honorable notice in every history of his country. In the warmest part of the contest, the flag staff was severed by a cannon ball, and the flag fell to the bottom of the ditch, on the outside of the works. This accident was considered, by the anxious inhabitants in Charleston, as putting an end to the contest, by striking the American flag to the enemy. The moment Jasper made the discovery, that the flag had fallen, he jumped from one of the embrasures, and took up the flag, which he tied to a post, and replaced it on the parapet, where he supported it until another flag staff was procured.

The subsequent activity and enterprise of this patriot induced Col. Moultrie to give him a sort of roving commission, to go and come at pleasure, confident that he was always usefully employed. He was privileged to select such men from the regiment as he should choose, to accompany him in his enterprises. His parties consisted generally of five or six, and he often returned with prisoners, before Moultrie was apprised of his absence. Jasper was distinguished for his humane treatment, when an enemy fell into his power. His ambition appears to have been limited to the characteristics of bravery, humanity, and usefulness to

the cause in which he was engaged. By his cunning and enterprise, he often succeeded in the capture of those who were lying in ambush for him. He entered the British lines, and remained several days in Savannah, in disguise, and, after informing himself of their strength and intentions, returned to the American camp, with useful information to his commanding officer.

In one of these excursions, an instance of bravery and humanity is recorded, by the biographer of General Marion, which could not be credited, if it was not well attested. While he was examining the British camp at Ebenezer, all the sympathy of his heart was awakened by the distresses of a Mrs. Jones, whose husband, an American by birth, had taken the king's protection, and been confined in irons for deserting the royal cause, after he had taken the oath of allegiance. Her well founded belief was, that nothing short of the life of her husband would atone for the offence with which he was charged. Anticipating the awful scene of a beloved husband expiring on the gibbet, had excited inexpressible emotions of grief and distraction. Jasper secretly consulted with his companion, Serjeant Newton, whose feelings for the distressed female and her child were equally excited with his own, upon the practicability of releasing Jones from his impending fate. Though they were unable to suggest a plan of operation, they were determined to watch for the most favorable opportunity, and make the effort.

The departure of Jones and several others, all in irons, to Savannah, for trial, under a guard, consisting of a serjeant, corporal, and eight men, was ordered upon the succeeding morning. Within two miles of Savannah, about thirty yards from the main road, is a spring of fine water, surrounded by a deep and thick underwood, where travellers often halt to refresh themselves with a cool draught from this pure fountain. Jasper and his companion selected this spot as the most favorable for their enterprise. They accordingly passed the guard, and concealed themselves near the spring.

When the enemy came up, they halted, and two of the guard only remained with the prisoners, while the others leaned their guns against trees in a careless manner, and went to the spring. Jasper and Newton sprung from their place of concealment, seized two of the muskets, and shot the sentinels. The possession of all the arms placed the enemy in their power, and compelled them to surrender.

The irons were taken off from the prisoners, and arms put into their hands. The whole party arrived at Perrysburg, the next morning, and joined the American camp. There are but few instances upon record where personal exertions, even for self-preservation from certain prospects of death, would have induced a resort to an act so desperate of execution; how much more laudable was this, where the spring to action was roused by the lamentations of a female unknown to the adventurers!

Subsequently to the gallant defence at Sullivan's Island, Col. Moultrie's regiment was presented with a stand of colors by Mrs. Elliot, which she had richly embroidered with her own hands; and, as a reward of Jasper's particular merits, Governor Rutledge presented him with a very handsome sword. During the assault against Savannah, two officers had been killed and one wounded, endeavoring to plant these colors upon the enemy's parapet of the Spring-hill redoubt. Just before the retreat was ordered, Jasper endeavored to replace them upon the works, and while he was in the act, received a mortal wound and fell into the ditch. When a retreat was ordered, he recollected the honorable condition upon which the donor presented the colors to his regiment, and among the last acts of his life, succeeded in bringing them off.

Major Horry called to see him soon after the retreat, to whom, it is said, he made the following communication. "I have got my furlough. That sword was presented to me by Governor Rutledge, for my services in the defence of Fort Moultrie. Give it to my father, and tell him I have worn it with honor. If he should weep, tell him his son died in the hope of a better life. Tell Mrs. Elliot that I lost my life, supporting the colors which she presented to our regiment. If you should ever see Jones, his wife and son, tell them that Jasper is gone, but that the remembrance of the battle, which he fought for them, brought a secret joy to his heart when it was about to stop its motion forever." He expired a few minutes after closing this sentence.*

Sec. 39. During these transactions in the south, the continental congress was in session, intently observing the aspect of things, and deeply revolving the probable issue of the present important

* M'Call's Georgia, Vol. II.

contest. The idea of independence had now been broached among the people, and the way was, in a measure, prepared to bring the subject before congress.

Accordingly, on the 8th of June, Richard Henry Lee, one of the deputies from Virginia, rose and made a motion to declare America free and independent.

Mr. Lee addressed the house on this motion, and concluded as follows: "Why then do we longer delay, why still deliberate? Let this most happy day give birth to the American republic. Let her arise, not to devastate and conquer, but to re-establish the reign of peace and of the laws. The eyes of Europe are fixed upon us; she demands of us a living example of freedom, that may contrast, by the felicity of the citizens, with the ever increasing tyranny which desolates her polluted shores. She invites us to prepare an asylum, where the unhappy may find solace, and the persecuted repose. She entreats us to cultivate a propitious soil, where that generous plant, which first sprang up and grew in England, but is now withered by the poisonous blasts of Scottish tyranny, may revive and flourish, sheltering under its salubrious and interminable shade, all the unfortunate of the human race.

"This is the end presaged by so many omens, by our first victories, by the present ardor and union, by the flight of Howe,* and the pestilence which broke out amongst Dunmore's people,† by the very winds which baffled the enemy's fleets and transports, and that terrible tempest which engulfed seven hundred vessels upon the coast of Newfoundland. If we are not this day wanting in our duty to our country, the names of the American legislators will be placed, by posterity, at the side of those of Theseus, of Lycurgus, of Romulus, of Numa, of the three Williams of Nassau, and of all those whose memory has been, and will be, for ever dear to virtuous men and good citizens."

* Alluding to the evacuation of Boston by the British, under Howe, page 232.

† Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of Virginia, retired to the Fowey man of war, as noticed page 231, on board of which, and the other vessels of his squadron, a pestilential malady broke out, which carried off great numbers of the crowd, both white and black, which had thronged the vessels.

Sec. 40. The resolution of Mr. Lee, so eloquently supported by him, was still further discussed on the 11th of June. On this last day it was postponed for further consideration to the first day of July; and at the same time it was voted that a committee be appointed to propose a DECLARATION to the effect of the resolution. This committee was elected by ballot on the following day, and consisted of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston.

It is usual, when committees are elected by ballot, that their numbers are arranged in order, according to the number of votes which each has received. Mr. Jefferson, therefore, probably received the highest, and Mr. Adams the next highest number of votes. The difference is said to have been but a single vote.

Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Adams, standing thus at the head of the committee, were requested by the other members, to act as a sub-committee to prepare the draft; and Mr. Jefferson drew up the paper. The original draft as brought by him from his study, with interlineations in the handwriting of Dr. Franklin, and others in that of Mr. Adams, was in Mr. Jefferson's possession at the time of his death. The merit of this paper is Mr. Jefferson's; some changes were made in it on the suggestion of other members of the committee, and others by congress, while it was under discussion. But none of them altered the tone, the frame, the arrangement, or the general character of the instrument. As a composition, the declaration is Mr. Jefferson's. It is the production of his mind, and the high honor of it belongs to him clearly and absolutely.

While Mr. Jefferson was the author of the declaration itself, Mr. Adams was its great supporter on the floor of congress. This was the unequivocal testimony of Mr. Jefferson. "John Adams," said he, on one occasion, "was our Colossus on the floor; not graceful, not elegant, not always fluent in his public addresses, he yet came out with a power, both of thought and of expression, that moved us from our seats." And at another time he said, "John Adams was the pillar of its support on the floor of con-

gress; its ablest advocate and defender against the multifarious assaults which were made against it.”

Sec. 41. On the arrival of the day assigned, the subject was resumed, and on the *4th of July, 1776*, upon the report of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Philip Livingston, the thirteen confederate colonies dissolved their allegiance to the British crown, and declared themselves *Free and Independent*, under the name of the *Thirteen United States of America*.

After specifically enumerating the wrongs received, and declaring these to be sufficient grounds for a separation, they solemnly and deliberately proceeded to the act of separation, in the words following:

“We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.”

This declaration was directed to be engrossed, and on the 2d of August, 1776, was signed by all the members then present, and by some who were not members on the 4th of July. The following are the members who signed this memorable instrument:*

* A signature to the declaration of independence, without reference to general views, was, to each individual, a personal consideration of the most momentous import. It would be regarded in England as *treason*, and expose any man to the halter or the block. The signers well knew the responsibility of their station; they well knew the fate, which awaited themselves, should their experiment fail. They came, therefore, to the question of a declaration of independence, like men who had counted the cost; prepared to rejoice, without any unholy triumph, should God

John Hancock, *President*, from Massachusetts.

New-Hampshire.

Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts.

Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode-Island.

Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

Connecticut.

Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

New-York.

William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

New-Jersey.

Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

Pennsylvania.

Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,

James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

Delaware.

Cæsar Rodney,
George Read.

Maryland.

Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

Virginia.

George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jun.
Thomas Lighfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

North Carolina.

William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

South Carolina.

Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Hayward, Jun.
Thomas Lynch, Jun.
Arthur Middleton.

Georgia.

Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.*

upon the transaction; prepared also, if defeat should follow, to lead in the way to martyrdom. The only signature, on the original document, which exhibits indications of a trembling hand, is that of Stephen Hopkins, who had been afflicted with the palsy. In this work of treason, *John Hancock* led the way, as president of the congress, and by the force with which he wrote, he seems to have determined that his name should never be erased. The pen, with which these signatures were made, has been preserved, and is now in the cabinet of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

* The *longevity* of these signers of the declaration of independence is worthy of notice. They were fifty-six in number; and the average length of their lives was about sixty-five years. Four of the number attained to

This declaration was received by the people with transports of joy. Public rejoicings took place in various parts of the union. In New-York, the statue of George III. was taken down, and the lead, of which it was composed was converted into musket balls. In Boston, the garrison was drawn up in King's street, which from that moment, took the name of *State street*, and thirteen salutes, by thirteen detachments, into which the troops were formed, were fired; the bells of the town were rung, in token of felicitation, and the evening concluded with the tearing in pieces, and burning, the ensigns of royalty—lions, sceptres, and crowns.

In Virginia, the exultation exceeded description. On

the age of ninety years and upwards; fourteen exceeded eighty years; and twenty-three, as one in two and a half, reached threescore years and ten. The longevity of the New-England delegation was still more remarkable. Their number was fourteen, the average of whose lives was seventy-five years. Who will affirm that the unusual age to which the signers, as a body, attained, was not a reward bestowed upon them, for their fidelity to their country, and the trust which they in general reposed in the overruling providence of God. Who can doubt the kindness of that Providence to the American people, in thus prolonging the lives of these men, till the principles for which they had contended, through a long series of years, had been acknowledged, and a government been founded upon them?

Of this venerable body, but a single one survives, (Charles Carroll of Carrollton, 1832.) The others now are no more. "They are no more, as in 1776, bold and fearless advocates of independence. They are dead. But how little is there of the great and good which can die. To their country they yet live, and live forever. They live in all that perpetuates the remembrance of men on earth; in the recorded proofs of their own great actions, in the offspring of their own great interest, in the deep engraved lines of public gratitude, and in the respect and homage of mankind. They live in their example; and they live emphatically, and will live, in the influence which their lives and efforts, their principles and opinions, now exercise and will continue to exercise on the affairs of men, not only in our own country, but throughout the civilized world."

"It remains to us to cherish their memory, and emulate their virtues, by perpetuating and extending the blessings which they have bequeathed. So long as we preserve our country, this fame cannot die, for it is reflected from the surface of every thing that is beautiful and valuable in our land. We cannot recur too often, nor dwell too long, upon the lives and characters of such men; for our own will take something of their form and impression from those on which they rest. If we inhale the moral atmosphere in which they moved, we must feel its purifying and invigorating influence. If we raise our thoughts to their elevation, our minds will be expanded and ennobled, in beholding the immeasurable distance beneath and around us. Can we breathe the pure mountain air, and not be refreshed? can we walk abroad amidst the beautiful and the grand works of creation, and feel no kindling of devotion?"

(*Preface to Author's Lives of the Signers to the Declaration of Independence.*)

learning the measures of congress, the Virginia convention immediately decreed, that the name of the king should be suppressed in all public prayers. They ordained that the great seal of the commonwealth should represent Virtue as the tutelary genius of the province, robed in drapery of an Amazon, resting one hand upon her lance, and holding with the other a sword, trampling upon tyranny, under the figure of a prostrate man, having near him a crown, fallen from his head, and bearing in one hand a broken chain, and in the other a scourge. At the foot was charactered the word Virginia, and round the effigy of Virtue was inscribed:—*Sic semper tyrannis*. The reverse represented a group of figures; in the middle stood Liberty, with her wand and cap; on one side was Ceres, with a horn of plenty in the right hand, and a sheaf of wheat in the left; upon the other appeared Eternity, with the globe and the phœnix. At the foot were found these words—*Deus nobis hæc otia fecit*.

Sec. 42. Soon after the evacuation of Boston by the British troops, Washington, believing that the possession of New-York would be with them a favourite object, determined to make it the head quarters of his army, and thereby prevent their occupation of it, if such a step had been contemplated. Accordingly, he soon removed to that city with the principal part of his troops.

Sec. 43. On the 10th of June, Gen. William Howe, with the army which had evacuated Boston, arrived from Halifax, off Sandy Hook. Here he was soon after joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, from England, with a reinforcement. Their combined forces amounted to twenty-four thousand. On the 2d of August, they landed near the Narrows, nine miles from the city.

Sec. 44. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, Admiral and Gen. Howe communicated to Washington, that they were commissioned to settle all difficulties, between Great Britain and the colonies. But, not addressing Washington

by the title due to his rank, he thought proper to decline receiving their communication. It appeared, however, that the power of these commissioners extended little farther than, in the language of their instructions, "to grant pardons to such as deserve mercy."

Sec. 45. The American army, in and near New-York, amounted to seventeen thousand two hundred and twenty-five men, a part of whom were encamped near Brooklyn, on Long-Island. On the 27th of August, this body of the Americans, under command of Brigadier Gen. Sullivan, were attacked by the British, under Sir Henry Clinton, Percy, and Cornwallis, and were defeated, with the loss of upwards of a thousand men,* while the loss of the British amounted to less than four hundred. Gen. Sullivan, and Brigadier Generals Lord Stirling and Woodhull, fell into the hands of the British as prisoners.

In the heat of the engagement, Gen. Washington had crossed over to Brooklyn from New-York, and on seeing some of his best troops slaughtered, or taken, he uttered, it is said, an exclamation of anguish. But deep as his anguish was, and much as he wished to succor his troops, prudence forbad the calling in of his forces from New-York as they would by no means have sufficed to render his army equal to that of the English.

Sec. 46. After the repulse at Brooklyn, perceiving the occupation of his position on Long Island to be of no probable importance, Washington withdrew his troops to New-York, and soon after evacuated the city, upon which, on the 15th of September, the British entered it.

Seldom, if ever, was a retreat conducted with more abi

* Authorities differ as to the loss of the Americans in the battle. Gen. Washington did not admit that the loss exceeded 1000 men; but it is thought that in the estimate he included only regular troops. Some make the loss a little short of 2000.

lity and prudence, or under more favorable auspices, than that of the American troops from Long Island. The necessary preparations having been made, on the 29th of August, at eight in the evening, the troops began to move in the greatest silence. But they were not on board their vessels before eleven. A violent northeast wind, and the ebb tide, which rendered the current very rapid, prevented the passage. The time pressed, however. Fortunately, the wind suddenly veered to the northwest. They immediately made sail, and landed in New-York. Providence appeared to have watched over the Americans. About two o'clock in the morning, a thick fog, and at this season of the year extraordinary, covered all Long-Island, whereas the air was perfectly clear on the side of New-York. Notwithstanding the entreaties of his officers, Washington remained the last upon the shore. It was not till the next morning, when the sun was already high, and the fog dispelled, that the English perceived the Americans had abandoned their camp, and were sheltered from pursuit.

Sec. 47. Shortly after the disasters on Long Island, the British general, Lord Howe, indulging the hope that the Americans were now sufficiently humbled to accept of conditions from England, made overtures to congress for this purpose, and desired that a committee from that body might be appointed to meet him, at Staten Island. In a spirit of amity, congress proceeded to the appointment of commissioners, who met Lord Howe accordingly; but the interview was soon closed—the British general not receiving the commissioners in the only character in which they would treat with him—*viz.* as the *representatives of independent states.*

When the subject of appointing commissioners came before congress, the proposition was debated for several days, and was strongly opposed by several of the most distinguished members. It was at length, however, acceded to, and John Adams, Dr. Franklin, and Mr. Rutledge, were appointed. Lord Howe sent as a hostage, one of his principal officers; but the three commissioners, to show their confidence in themselves and their cause, waived the secu-

city to be derived from such a pledge, and took him with them. They repaired to the British head quarters on Staten Island, opposite Amboy, and were conducted to the commander through an army of twenty thousand men, arranged on purpose to make the most imposing show, so as to impress the minds of the commissioners with a notion of the immense power of the nation with which they were waging war. They were, however, too well aware of the design with which this display was made, to indulge their enemies by showing any sign of amazement or uneasiness.

Lord Howe received them with great courtesy; and after compliments of civility, he told them that though he could not treat with them, as a committee of congress, yet as his powers enabled him to confer and consult with any private gentlemen of influence in the colonies on the means of restoring peace, he was glad of this opportunity of conferring with them, on this subject, if they thought themselves at liberty to confer with him in that character. The committee observed, that as they came to hear, he might consider them in what light he pleased, and communicate any proposition he might be authorized to make, but that they could consider themselves in no other character except that in which they were placed by order of congress. "You may view me in any light you please," said Mr. Adams, "except in that of a British subject."

Lord Howe then entered into a discourse of considerable length, in which the commissioners could perceive no explicit proposition, except one, viz. that the colonies should return to their allegiance and obedience to the government of Great Britain. The committee gave it as their opinion that a return to the dominion of Great Britain was not now to be expected, and added their reasons at large; on which Lord Howe put an end to the conference.

Sec. 48. On retiring from New-York, Gen. Washington, with his army, occupied for a short time the heights of Harlem, and several stations in that neighborhood.

On the 16th of September, the day after the British took possession of New-York, a considerable body of the enemy appearing in the plains between the two camps, the general ordered Colonel Knowlton, with a corps of rangers, and Major Leitch, with three companies of a Virginia regiment, to get in their rear, while he amused them by

making apparent dispositions to attack their front. The plan succeeded. A skirmish ensued, in which the Americans charged the enemy with great intrepidity, and gained considerable advantage; but the principal benefit of this action was its influence in reviving the depressed spirits of the whole army. Major Leitch, who very gallantly led on the detachment, was soon brought off the ground, mortally wounded; and not long afterward, Colonel Knowlton fell, bravely fighting at the head of his troops. The Americans in this conflict engaged a battalion of light infantry, another of Highlanders, and three companies of Hessian riflemen; and lost about fifty men killed and wounded. The loss of the enemy was more than double that number.*

Sec. 49. Finding his position at Harlem and its vicinity untenable, Washington broke up his camp, and retired with a part of his forces to White Plains. Here, on the 28th of October, he was attacked by the British and Hessians, under Generals Howe, Clinton, Knyphausen, and De Heister. A partial engagement ensued, and several hundreds fell on both sides; but neither party could claim any decided advantage.

Shortly after, a strong British reinforcement arriving, under Lord Percy, Washington, deeming his position unsafe, left it on the night of the 30th, and retired with his forces to North Castle, about five miles from White Plains. Leaving about 7500, under command of Gen. Lee, Washington crossed the North river, and took post in the neighborhood of fort Lee.

Sec. 50. The British general failing to draw Washington to a general engagement, next turned his attention to the reduction of forts Washington and Lee, which had been garrisoned for the purpose of preserving the command of the Hudson river. On the 16th of November, the former of these forts was attacked by the British. The

* Holmes' Annals.

defence of the fort by the brave Colonel Magaw was spirited, but at length he was obliged to capitulate and with the fort to surrender his whole force, consisting of between 2000 and 3000 men. On the 18th, the British army crossing the Hudson, proceeded to the attack of fort Lee. The garrison in this fort, at first, determined to defend it, but ascertaining that the contest would be entirely unequal, they evacuated the fort, and under the guidance of Gen. Greene, joined Washington, who had at this time taken post at Newark, on the south side of the Passaic.

Sec. 51. Finding Newark too near his triumphant foe, Washington retreated to Brunswick, on the Raritan, and Lord Cornwallis on the same day entered Newark. The retreat was still continued from Brunswick to Princeton; from Princeton to Trenton; and from Trenton to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware. The pursuit was urged with so much rapidity, that the rear of the American army pulling down bridges, was often within sight and shot of the van of the other building them up.

This retreat through New-Jersey was made under circumstances of the deepest depression. The Americans had just lost the two forts Washington and Lee, and with the former more than 2000 men. Numbers of the militia were daily claiming to be discharged, and precipitately retired to their habitations; and even the regular troops, as if struck with despair, also filed off, and deserted in bodies. This left the army of Washington so reduced, that it scarcely amounted to three thousand men, and even these were poorly fed, and were exposed in an open country, without instruments to entrench themselves, without tents to shelter them from the inclemency of the season, and in the midst of a population little zealous, or rather hostile, to the republic. Added to this, numbers of the leading characters both in New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, who had been friendly

to the American cause, were changing sides, and making peace with the enemy. This example became pernicious, and the most prejudicial effects were to be apprehended from it. Every day ushered in some new calamity; the cause of America seemed hastening to irretrievable ruin. The most discreet no longer dissembled that the term of the war was at hand; and that the hour was come, in which the colonies were about to resume the yoke. But Washington, in the midst of so much adversity, did not despair of the public safety. His constancy was an object of admiration. Far from betraying any symptoms of hesitation or fear, he showed himself to his dejected soldiers with a serene countenance, and radiant, as it were, with a certain hope of a better future. Adverse fortune had not been able to vanquish, nay, not even to shake his invincible spirit. Firmly resolved to pursue their object, through every fortune, the congress manifested a similar constancy. It appeared as if the spirit of these great minds had increased with adversity.*

Sec. 51. Notwithstanding the general aspect of affairs, on the part of America, was thus forbidding, the continental congress, so far from betraying symptoms of despair, manifested more confidence than ever; and, as if success must eventually crown their enterprises, calmly occupied themselves in drawing up various *articles of confederation* and perpetual union between the states.

Such articles were obviously necessary, that the line of distinction between the powers of the respective states, and of congress, should be exactly defined. In this way, only, would collisions be avoided, and the peace and harmony of the union be preserved.

Accordingly, such articles were now digested, and at the sitting of congress, Oct. 4th, 1776, were signed by all the members, and copies immediately sent to the respective assemblies of

* Botta.

each state for approbation. The principal articles of confederation were the following :

“ They all and each obligate themselves to contribute for the common defence, and for the maintenance of their liberties.

“ Each particular state preserved the exclusive right of regulating its internal government, and of framing laws in all matters, not included in the articles of confederation, and which would not be prejudicial to it.

“ No particular state was either to send, or to receive ambassadors, enter into negotiations, contract engagements, form alliances, or make war, except in the case of sudden attack, with any king, prince, or power whatsoever, without the consent of the United States.

“ No individual, holding any magistracy, office, or commission, whatsoever, from the United States, or from any of them, was allowed to accept of any presents, or any office or title of any kind whatsoever, from any foreign king, prince, or potentate.

“ No assembly was to confer titles of nobility.

“ No state was to make alliances or treaties of what kind soever, with another, without the consent of all.

“ Each particular state had authority to maintain, in peace as well as war, the number of armed ships and of land troops, judged necessary, by the general assembly of all the states, and no more.

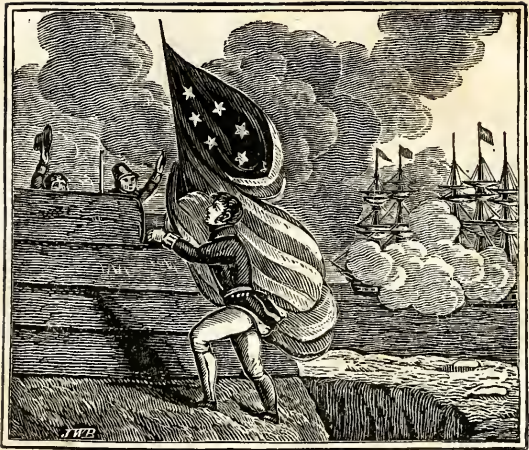
“ There shall be a public treasury for the service of the confederation, to be replenished by the particular contributions of each state; the same to be proportioned according to the number of inhabitants, of every age, sex, or condition, with the exception of Indians.

“ A general congress was to be convoked every year, on the first Monday of November, to be composed of deputies from all the states; it was invested with all the powers that belonged to the sovereigns of other nations.” These powers were exactly enumerated.

“ Every individual holding any office, and either wages, salary, or emolument whatsoever, was thereby excluded from congress.

“ There was to be a council of state composed of one deputy from each province, nominated annually by his colleagues, of the same state, and in case these should not agree, by the general congress.” Each state was to have but one vote.





Bravery of Sergeant Jasper. P. 233.



Washington crossing the Delaware. P. 249.

“ During the session, as well as the recess of the general congress, the council of state was to be charged with the management of the public affairs of the confederation, always restricting itself, however, within the limits prescribed by the laws, and particularly by the articles of the confederation itself.”

Sec. 52. Fortunately for Washington, about this time he received reinforcements of militia and regular troops, which, together with his previous forces, gave him an army of about 7000 effective men. But this number being soon to be reduced by the retirement of a large body of militia, whose period of enlistment would close with the year, Washington formed the bold resolution of recrossing the Delaware, and of attacking the British at Trenton. This plan was carried into effect on the night of the 25th of December, and on the following day Hessian prisoners to the amount of one thousand were taken by the Americans, with the loss of scarcely a man on their side. This was a brilliant achievement, and served to arouse the desponding hopes of America.

The American troops detached for this service arrived, in the dusk of the evening, at the bank of the river. The passage of the river by the troops and the artillery, it was expected, would be effected before midnight. But this was found to be impracticable. The cold was so intense, and the river so obstructed with floating ice, that the landing of the artillery was not accomplished until four in the morning. An immediate and precipitate march was made towards Trenton, with the hope of reaching it before day. But a thick fog setting in, and a mist, mingled with sleet, so retarded their march, that they did not reach Trenton until eight o'clock, yet, at this late hour, the Hessians had no suspicion of the approach of the enemy.

Sec. 53. Justly elated with the success at Trenton, Washington soon after proceeded to Princeton, where, on the first of January, he attacked

a party of British, of whom upwards of one hundred were killed, and the remainder, amounting to about three hundred, were made prisoners. The loss of the Americans was less than that of the British; but in that number were several valuable officers, and among them the brave General Mercer.

Sec. 54. Soon after the above victories, Washington retired (January 6th, 1777) to winter quarters, at Morristown, where his army were nearly all inoculated with the small pox, that disease having appeared among the troops, and rendering such a measure necessary. The disease proved mortal but in few instances, nor was there a day in which the soldiers could not, if called upon, have fought the enemy

Sec. 55. On the opening of the campaign of 1777, the army of Washington, although congress had offered to recruits bounties in land, and greater wages, amounted to little more than seven thousand men. Towards the latter end of May, Washington quitted his winter encampment at Morristown, and, about the same time, the royal army moved from Brunswick, which they had occupied during the winter. Much shifting of the armies followed, but no definite plan of operation had apparently been settled by either.

Previous to this, however, General Howe sent a detachment of two thousand men, under command of Gen. Tryon, Gen. Agnew, and Sir William Erskine, to destroy some stores and provisions deposited at Danbury, in Connecticut. Meeting with no resistance, they reached Danbury on the 26th of April, and destroyed one thousand eight hundred barrels of beef and pork, and eight hundred of flour, two thousand bushels of grain, clothing for a regiment, one hundred hogsheads of rum, and one thousand seven hundred and ninety tents. Besides the destruction of these articles, the enemy wantonly burned eighteen houses with

their furniture, murdered three unoffending inhabitants, and threw them into the flames.

Generals Sullivan, Wooster, and Arnold, happening to be in the neighborhood, hastily collected about six hundred militia, with whom they marched in pursuit, in a heavy rain, as far as Bethel, about two miles from Danbury. On the morning of the 27th of April, the troops were divided, Gen. Wooster, with about three hundred men, falling in the rear of the enemy, while Arnold took post in front, at Ridgefield.

Gen. Wooster proceeded to attack the enemy, in which engagement he was mortally wounded, and from which his troops were compelled to retire. At Ridgefield, Arnold warmly received the enemy on their retreat, and although repulsed, returned to the attack the next day on their march to the Sound. Finding themselves continually annoyed by the resolute and courageous yeomanry of the country through which they passed, they hastened to embark on board their ships, in which they sailed for New-York. Their killed, wounded, and missing, amounted to about one hundred and seventy; the loss of the Americans was not admitted to exceed one hundred. Gen. Wooster, now in his seventieth year, lingered with his wounds until the 2d of May. Congress resolved that a monument should be erected to his memory. To Gen. Arnold they presented a horse, properly caparisoned, as a reward for his gallantry on the occasion.

Sec. 56. At length the British General Howe, leaving New-Jersey, embarked at Sandy Hook, with sixteen thousand men, and sailed for the Chesapeake. On the 14th of August, he landed his troops, at the head of Elk river, in Maryland.

It being now obvious that his design was the occupation of Philadelphia, Washington immediately put the American army in motion, towards that place, to prevent, if possible, its falling into the hands of the enemy.

The two armies met at Brandywine, Delaware, on the 11th of September, and after an engagement, which continued nearly all day, the Americans were compelled to retire.

The loss of the Americans in this action was estimated at three hundred killed, and six hundred wounded. Between three and four hundred, principally the wounded, were made prisoners. The loss of the British was stated at less than one hundred killed, and four hundred wounded.

In this battle several foreign officers greatly distinguished themselves. Among these was the heroic Lafayette, who unfortunately, while endeavoring to rally some fugitives, was wounded in the leg.

On the night following the battle, the Americans retired to Chester, and the next day to Philadelphia. Not considering the battle of Brandywine as decisive, congress, which was setting in Philadelphia, recommended to the commander-in-chief to risk another engagement; preparations for which were accordingly made. Washington passed the Schuylkill, and met the enemy at Goshen, Sept. 16th. But a violent shower of rain occurring, as the advanced guards began to skirmish, the powder in the cartridge boxes of the Americans became wet, and the commander was compelled to withdraw his troops.

Sec. 57. An easy access to Philadelphia was now presented to the enemy, and on the 26th, Howe entered the place without molestation. The principal part of the British army was stationed at Germantown, six miles from Philadelphia. Congress adjourned to Lancaster, and Washington encamped at eighteen miles distance from Germantown.

Sec. 58. Immediately after the occupation of Philadelphia, the attention of Gen. Howe was drawn to the reduction of some forts on the Delaware, which rendered the navigation of that river unsafe to the British. Accordingly, a part of the royal army was detached for that purpose. Washington seized the opportunity to attack the remainder at Germantown.

This attack was made Oct. 4th, but after a severe action, the Americans were repulsed with a loss of double that of the British. The loss of the Americans was two hundred killed, six hun-

dred wounded, and four hundred prisoners; that of the British was about one hundred killed and five hundred wounded.

After this action, the British removed to Philadelphia, where they continued long inactive. Washington retreated to Skippack creek, eleven miles from Germantown, and there encamped.

Great was the chagrin of Washington, on account of the repulse at Germantown, which was much increased by the auspicious commencement of the battle, and the flattering prospect of a speedy and complete victory. The ultimate failure of the Americans was attributed to the inexperience of a part of the troops, and to embarrassments arising from a fog which increased the darkness of the night. Congress, however, expressed their approbation of Washington's plan of attack, and highly applauded the courage and firmness of the troops.

Sec. 59. While such was the progress of military operations in the *middle states*, important events were taking place in the north. It has already been noticed, (*Sec. 34, 35,*) that in May, 1775, Ticonderoga and Crown Point had been taken by surprise, by Colonels Allen and Arnold; that in the ensuing fall, Gen. Montgomery had reduced the fort of St. John's, captured Montreal, and made an ineffectual, though desperate assault upon Quebec.

On the return of spring, the American army gradually retired up the St. Lawrence, and after a loss of one post and another, in June, 1776, entirely evacuated Canada.

In the spring of 1777, it was settled in England that an invasion of the states should be attempted from the north, and a communication formed between Canada and New-York. Could such a plan have been executed, it would obviously have precluded intercourse between New-England and the more southern states.

The execution of the plan was committed to Gen. Burgoyne, who left Canada with seven thousand troops, besides a powerful train of artillery, and several tribes of Indians.*

Sec. 60. On the 1st of July, Burgoyne landed and invested Ticonderoga. The American garrison here amounted to three thousand men, under command of Gen. St. Clair, an officer of high standing.

Deeming this force inadequate to maintain the post, especially as Burgoyne had taken possession of Mount Defiance, which commanded Ticonderoga, and not having provisions to sustain the army for more than twenty days, St. Clair perceived no safety for the garrison but in a precipitate flight. Accordingly, on the night of the 5th, Ticonderoga was abandoned. By a circuitous march, St. Clair continued to retreat, first into Vermont, although closely pursued, and thence to Hudson river, where, after having lost one hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, with a quantity of military stores, he joined General Schuyler, commanding the main army of the north. After this junction, the whole army continued to retire to Saratoga and Stillwater, and at length took post on Van Shaick's Island in the mouth of the Mohawk, on the 18th of August.

After the taking of Ticonderoga, Gen. Burgoyne, with the great body of his troops, proceeded up the lake, and destroyed the American flotilla, and a considerable quantity of baggage and stores, which had been deposited at Skeensbo

* The number of Indian warriors, employed by the British in the revolutionary war, has been estimated at about twelve thousand. See Mass. Hist. Col. vol. 10, p. 123, where the several tribes are specified, with the number of warriors each tribe furnished.

rough. Having halted at this place for nearly three weeks, he proceeded to Fort Edward, on the Hudson, where he did not arrive until July 30th, his way having been obstructed by Schuyler's army, which felled a great number of trees across the road, and demolished the bridges, while on their retreat.

Sec. 61. While Gen. Burgoyne lay at Fort Edward, a detachment of his army, consisting of five hundred English and one hundred Indians, under Col. Baum, who had been sent to seize a magazine of stores at Bennington, in Vermont, was totally defeated, and Col. Baum slain, by a party of Vermont troops called Green Mountain Boys, and a detachment of New-Hampshire militia, under command of Gen. Stark.

Baum, on his arrival near Bennington, learning that the Americans were strongly entrenched at that place, halted, and despatched a messenger to Gen. Burgoyne, for a reinforcement.

Gen. Stark, now on his march with a body of New-Hampshire militia, to join Gen. Schuyler, receiving intelligence of Baum's approach, altered his movement, and collected his force at Bennington.

Before the expected reinforcement could arrive, General Stark, having added to his New-Hampshire corps a body of Vermont militia, determined to attack Baum in his entrenchments. Accordingly, on the 16th of August, an attack was made, which resulted in the flight of Baum's detachment, at the moment in which the reinforcement of troops, despatched by Gen. Burgoyne, arrived. With the assistance of these, the battle was now renewed, but ended in the discomfiture of the British forces, and with a loss, on their part, of about seven hundred in killed and wounded. The loss of the Americans was about one hundred.

Sec. 62. The battle at Bennington greatly revived the courage of the Americans, and as greatly disappointed the hopes of Gen. Burgoyne, as it served materially to embarrass and retard his movements.

The situation of this general, at this time, was seriously perplexing, being greatly in want of provisions, and the course of wisdom and prudence being not a little difficult to determine. To retreat was to abandon the object of his expedition ; to advance seemed replete with difficulty and danger. This latter step, however, at length, appeared the most judicious.

Accordingly, on the 13th and 14th of September, he passed the Hudson, and advanced upon Saratoga and Stillwater. On the 17th, his army came nearly in contact with that of the American, now commanded by Gen. Gates, who had succeeded Schuyler, August 21 ; some skirmishing ensued, without bringing on a general battle.

Two days after, the two armies met, and a most obstinate, though indecisive engagement, ensued, in which the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, between three and four hundred, and the British about six hundred.

On the 7th of October, the battle was renewed, by a movement of Gen. Burgoyne towards the left of the Americans, by which he hoped to effect his retreat to the lakes. The battle was extremely severe ; and darkness only put an end to the effusion of blood.

During the night which succeeded, an attempt was made by the royal army to retreat to Fort Edward.—While preparing to march, intelligence was received that this fort was already in possession of the Americans. No avenue to escape now appeared open. Worn down with constant toil and watching, and having ascertained that he had but three days' provisions, a council of war was called, which unanimously

resolved to capitulate to Gen. Gates. Preliminaries were soon after settled, and the army, consisting of five thousand seven hundred effective men, surrendered prisoners of war on the 17th of October.

Gen. Gates, immediately after the victory, despatched Col. Wilkinson, to carry the happy tidings to Congress. On being introduced into the hall of congress, he said, "The whole British army has laid down arms at Saratoga: our sons, full of vigor and courage, expect your orders: it is for your wisdom to decide where the country may still have need of their services."

Among the romantic incidents of real life, few surpass the adventures of the Baroness de Reidesel and Lady Harriet Ackland, two ladies who had followed the fortunes of their husbands, the Baron de Reidesel and Major Ackland, officers in the army of Gen. Burgoyne, the latter of whom was wounded in the battle of the 9th of October.

On the 7th of October, says the Baroness de Reidesel, our misfortunes began. I was at breakfast with my husband, and heard that something was intended. On the same day, I expected Generals Burgoyne, Phillips, and Fraser, to dine with us. I saw a great movement among the troops; my husband told me it was merely a reconnoissance, which gave me no concern, as it often happened. I walked out of the house, and met several Indians in their war dresses, with guns in their hands. When I asked where they were going, they cried out, War! War! meaning that they were going to battle. This filled me with apprehension; and I had scarcely got home, before I heard the reports of cannon and musketry, which grew louder by degrees, till at last the noise became excessive.

About four o'clock in the afternoon, instead of the guests whom I expected, Gen. Fraser was brought on a litter, mortally wounded. The table, which was already set, was removed, and a bed placed in its stead, for the wounded general. I sat trembling in a corner; the noise grew louder, and the alarm increased; the thought that my husband might be brought in wounded, in the same manner, was terrible to me, and distressed me exceedingly. General

Fraser said to the surgeon, "Tell me if my wound is mortal; do not flatter me." The ball had passed through his body, and, unhappily for the general, he had eaten a very hearty breakfast, by which the stomach was distended, and the ball, as the surgeon said, had passed through it.

I heard him often exclaim, with a sigh, "OH FATAL AMBITION! POOR GENERAL BURGOYNE! OH MY POOR WIFE!" He was asked if he had any request to make, to which he replied: "IF GENERAL BURGOYNE WOULD PERMIT IT, HE SHOULD LIKE TO BE BURIED AT SIX O'CLOCK IN THE EVENING, ON THE TOP OF A MOUNTAIN, IN A REDOUBT, WHICH HAD BEEN BUILT THERE." I did not know which way to turn; all the other rooms were full of sick. Towards evening, I saw my husband coming; then I forgot all my sorrows, and thanked God that he was spared to me. He and his aid-de-camp ate, in great haste, with me, behind the house. We had been told, that we had the advantage of the enemy; but the sorrowful faces I beheld told a different tale; and, before my husband went away, he took me one side, and said every thing was going very bad; that I must keep myself in readiness to leave the place, but not to mention it to any one. I made the pretence that I would move, the next morning, into my new house, and had every thing packed up ready.

Lady H. Ackland had a tent, not far from our house, in which she slept, and the rest of the day she was in the camp. All of a sudden, a man came to tell her, that her husband was mortally wounded, and taken prisoner; on hearing this, she became very miserable; we comforted her, by telling her, that the wound was only slight, and, at the same time, advised her to go over to her husband, to do which she would certainly obtain permission, and then she could attend him herself. She was a charming woman, and very fond of him. I spent much of the night in comforting her, and then went again to my children, whom I had put to bed. I could not go to sleep, as I had General Fraser, and all the other wounded gentlemen, in my room; and I was sadly afraid my children would awake, and by their crying, disturb the dying man, in his last moments, who often addressed me, and apologized "*for the trouble he gave me.*"

About three o'clock in the morning, I was told that he could not hold out much longer; I had desired to be informed of the near approach of this sad crisis, and I then wrapped up my children in their clothes, and went with

them into the room below. About eight o'clock in the morning, *he died*. After he was laid out, and his corpse wrapped up in a sheet, we came again into the room, and had this sorrowful sight before us the whole day; and, to add to the melancholy scene, almost every moment, some officer of my acquaintance was brought in wounded. The cannonade commenced again; a retreat was spoken of, but not the smallest motion was made towards it. About four o'clock in the afternoon, I saw the house, which had just been built for me, in flames, and the enemy not far off. We knew that General Burgoyne would not refuse the last request of General Fraser, though, by his acceding to it, an unnecessary delay was occasioned, by which the inconvenience of the army was increased.

At six o'clock the corpse was brought out, and we saw all the generals attend it to the mountain; the chaplain, Mr. Brudenell, performed the funeral service, rendered unusually solemn and awful, from its being accompanied by constant peals from the enemy's artillery. Many cannon balls flew close by me, but I had my eyes directed towards the mountain, where my husband was standing, amidst the fire of the enemy, and, of course, I could not think of my own danger.

General Gates afterwards said, that if he had known it had been a funeral, he would not have permitted it to be fired on.

As soon as the funeral service was finished, and the grave of General Fraser was closed, an order was issued that the army should retreat. My calash was prepared, but I would not consent to go before the troops. Major Harnage, although suffering from his wounds, crept from his bed, as he did not wish to remain in the hospital, which was left with a flag of truce. When Gen. Reidesel saw me in the midst of danger, he ordered my women and children to be brought into the calash, and intimated to me to depart, without delay. I still prayed to remain; but my husband, knowing my weak side, said, "well, then, your children must go, that, at least, they may be safe from danger." I then agreed to enter the calash with them, and we set off at eight o'clock. The retreat was ordered to be conducted with the greatest silence. Many fires were lighted, and several tents left standing. We travelled continually during the night.

At six o'clock in the morning, we halted, which excited the surprise of all. General Burgoyne had the cannon ranged and prepared for battle. The delay seemed to dis-

please every body ; for, if we could only have made another good march, we should have been in safety. My husband, quite exhausted with fatigue, came into my calash, and slept for three hours. During that time, Captain Wilde brought me a bag full of bank notes, and Captain Geisman his elegant watch, a ring, and a purse full of money, which they requested me to take care of, and which I promised to do to the utmost of my power. We again marched, but had scarcely proceeded an hour before we halted, as the enemy was in sight. It proved to be only a reconnoitering party of two hundred men, who might easily have been made prisoners, if Gen. Burgoyne had given proper orders on the occasion.

About evening we arrived at Saratoga ; my dress was wet through and through with rain, and, in that state, I had to remain the whole night, having no place to change it ; I however got close to a large fire, and at last lay down on some straw. At this moment, Gen. Phillips came to me, and I asked him why we had not continued our retreat, as my husband had promised to cover it, and bring the army through ? " Poor dear woman," said he, " I wonder how, drenched as you are, you have still the courage to persevere, and venture farther in this kind of weather. I wish," continued he, " you was our commanding general. General Burgoyne is tired, and means to halt here to-night, and give us our supper."

On the morning of the 9th, at ten o'clock, Gen. Burgoyne ordered the retreat to be continued, and caused the handsome houses and mills of Gen. Schuyler to be burnt ; we marched, however, but a short distance, and then halted. The greatest misery at this time prevailed in the army, and more than thirty officers came to me, for whom tea and coffee were prepared, and with whom I shared all my provisions, with which my calash was in general well supplied ; for I had a cook who was an excellent caterer, and who often, in the night, crossed small rivers, and foraged on the inhabitants, bringing in with him sheep, small pigs, and poultry, for which he often forgot to pay, though he received good pay from me, as long as I had any, and he was, ultimately, handsomely rewarded. Our provisions now failed us, for want of proper conduct in the commissary's department, and I began to despair.

About two o'clock in the afternoon, we again heard a firing of cannon and small arms ; instantly all was in alarm, and every thing in motion. My husband told me to go to

a house not far off. I immediately seated myself in my calash, with my children, and drove off; but, scarcely had we reached it, before I discovered five or six armed men, on the other side of the Hudson. Instinctively I threw my children down in the calash, and concealed myself with them. At that moment the fellows fired, and wounded an already wounded English soldier, who was behind me. Poor fellow! I pitied him exceedingly, but, at that moment, had no power or means to relieve him. A terrible cannonade was commenced by the enemy, which was directed against the house in which I sought to obtain shelter for myself and children, under the mistaken idea that all the generals were in it. Alas! it contained none but wounded and women; we were at last obliged to resort to the cellar for refuge, and, in one corner of this, I remained the whole day, my children sleeping on the earth, with their heads in my lap; and in the same situation I passed a sleepless night. Eleven cannon balls passed through the house, and we could distinctly hear them roll away. One poor soldier, who was lying on a table, for the purpose of having his leg amputated, was struck by a shot, which carried away his other leg. His comrades had left him, and, when we went to his assistance, we found him in a corner of the room, into which he had crept, more dead than alive, scarcely breathing. My reflections on the danger to which my husband was exposed, now agonized me exceedingly, and the thoughts of my children, and the necessity of struggling for their preservation, alone sustained me.

I now occupied myself through the day in attending to the wounded; I made them tea and coffee, and often shared my dinner with them, for which they offered me a thousand expressions of gratitude. One day a Canadian officer came to our cellar, who had hardly the power of holding himself upright, and we concluded he was dying for want of nourishment. I was happy in offering him my dinner, which strengthened him, and procured me his friendship. I now undertook the care of Major Bloomfield, another aid-de-camp of General Phillips, who had received a musket ball through both cheeks, which, in its course, had knocked out several of his teeth, and cut his tongue. He could hold nothing in his mouth; the matter which ran from his wound almost choked him, and he was not able to take any nourishment, except a little soup or something liquid. We had some Rhenish wine; and, in the hope that the acidity of it would cleanse the wound, I gave him a bottle of it; he

took a little now and then, and with such effect, that his cure soon followed; and thus I added another to my stock of friends, and derived a satisfaction, which, in the midst of sufferings, served to tranquillize me, and diminish their acuteness.

One day, Gen. Phillips accompanied my husband, at the risk of their lives, on a visit to us, who, after having witnessed our situation, said to him, "I would not, for ten thousand guineas, come again to this place; my heart is almost broken."

In this horrid situation we remained six days. A cessation of hostilities was now spoken of, and eventually took place; a convention was afterwards agreed upon; but one day a message was sent to my husband, who had visited me, and was reposing in my bed, to attend a council of war, where it was proposed to break the convention, but, to my great joy, the majority were for adhering to it. On the 16th, however, my husband had to repair to his post, and I to my cellar. This day fresh beef was served out to the officers, who, until now, had only had salt provisions, which was very bad for their wounds.

On the 17th of October, the convention was completed; General Burgoyne and the other generals waited on General Gates, the American commander. The troops laid down their arms, and gave themselves up prisoners of war; and now, the good woman, who had supplied us with water, at the hazard of her life, received the reward of her services; each of us threw a handful of money into her apron, and she got altogether about twenty guineas. At such a moment as this, how susceptible is the heart of feelings of gratitude!

My husband sent a message to me, to come over to him with my children. I seated myself once more in my dear calash, and then rode through the American camp. As I passed on, I observed (and this was a great consolation to me) that no one eyed me with looks of resentment; but that they all greeted us, and even showed compassion in their countenances, at the sight of a woman with small children. I was, I confess, afraid to go over to the enemy, as it was quite a new situation to me. When I drew near the tents, a handsome man approached and met me, *took my children from the calash, and hugged and kissed them, which affected me almost to tears.* "You tremble," said he, addressing himself to me; "be not afraid." "No," I answered, "you seem so kind and tender to my children, it inspires me with

courage." He now led me to the tent of Gen. Gates, where I found Generals Burgoyne and Phillips, who were on a friendly footing with the former. Burgoyne said to me, "Never mind, your sorrows have now an end." I answered him, that I should be reprehensible to have any cares, as he had none, and I was pleased to see him on such a friendly footing with General Gates. All the generals remained to dine with General Gates.

The same gentleman who received me so kindly, now came and said to me, "You will be very much embarrassed to eat with all these gentlemen; *come with your children to my tent; there I will prepare for you a frugal dinner, and give it with a free will.*" I said, "YOU ARE CERTAINLY A HUSBAND AND A FATHER, *you have shown me so much kindness.*" I now found that he was GENERAL SCHUYLER. He treated me with excellent smoked tongue, beef steaks, potatoes, and good bread and butter. Never could I have wished to eat a better dinner. I was content. I saw all around me were so likewise; and, what was better than all, my husband was out of danger.

When we had dined, he told me his residence was at Albany, and that Gen. Burgoyne intended to honor him as his guest, and invited myself and children to do likewise. I asked my husband how I should act; he told me to accept the invitation. As it was two days' journey there, he advised me to go to a place, which was about three hours' ride distant. Gen. Schuyler had the politeness to send with me a French officer, a very agreeable man, who commanded the reconnoitering party of which I have before spoken; and when he had escorted me to the house, where I was to remain, he turned back again. In the house I found a French surgeon, who had under his care a Brunswick officer, who was mortally wounded, and died some days afterwards.

The Frenchman boasted much of the care he took of his patient, and perhaps was skilful enough as a surgeon, but otherwise was a mere simpleton. He was rejoiced when he found I could speak his language, and he began to address many empty and impertinent speeches to me; he said, among other things, he could not believe that I was a general's wife, as he was certain a woman of such rank would not follow her husband. He wished me to remain with him, as he said it was better to be with the conquerors than the conquered. I was shocked at his impudence, but dared not show the contempt I felt for him, because it would deprive

me of a place of safety. Towards evening, he begged me to take a part of his chamber. I told him I was determined to remain in the room with the wounded officers; whereupon he attempted to pay me some stupid compliments. *At this moment the door opened, and my husband, with his aide-de-camp, entered.* I then said, "Here, sir, is my husband;" and at the same time eyed him with scorn, whereupon he retired abashed; nevertheless, he was *so polite* as to offer his chamber to us.

Some days after this we arrived at Albany, where we so often wished ourselves, but we did not enter it as we expected we should, victors! We were received *by the good Gen. Schuyler, his wife, and daughters, not as enemies, but kind friends*; and they treated us with the most marked attention and politeness, as they did General Burgoyne, who had caused General Schuyler's beautifully finished house to be burnt. In fact, they behaved like persons of exalted minds, who determined to bury all recollection of *their own* injuries, in the contemplation of *our* misfortunes. Gen. Burgoyne was struck with Gen. Schuyler's generosity, and said to him, "*You show me great kindness, although I have done you much injury.*" "*That was the fate of war,*" replied the brave man; "*let us say no more about it.*"*

The fortunes of Lady Harriet Ackland were not less interesting than those of the Baroness de Reidesel, just recited. This lady, says Gen. Burgoyne, in his "State of the Expedition from Canada," had accompanied her husband to Canada, in the beginning of the year 1776. In the course of that campaign, she traversed a vast space of country, in different extremities of the season, and with difficulties, of which an European traveller cannot easily conceive.

In the opening of the campaign, in 1777, she was restrained from offering herself to a share of the fatigue and hazard expected before Ticonderoga, by the positive injunctions of her husband. The day after the conquest of the place he was badly wounded, and she crossed Lake Champlain to join him.

As soon as he recovered, Lady Harriet proceeded to follow his fortunes through the campaign; and at Fort Edward, or at the next camp, she acquired a two wheel tumbril, which had been constructed by the artificers of the artillery, something similar to the carriage used for the mail, upon the great roads in England. Major Ackland commanded

* Wilkinson's Memoirs, from the Memoirs of the Baroness de Reidesel.

the British grenadiers, which were attached to Gen. Fraser's corps; and consequently were always the most advanced part of the army. They were often so much on the alert, that no person slept out of his clothes. One of their temporary encampments, a tent in which the Major and Lady Harriet were asleep, suddenly took fire. An orderly sergeant of grenadiers, with great hazard of suffocation, dragged out the first person he caught hold of. It proved to be the major. It happened that, in the same instant, she had, unknowing what she did, and perhaps not perfectly awaked, providentially made her escape, by creeping under the walls of the tent. The first object she saw, upon the recovery of her senses, was the major on the other side, and in the same instant, again in the fire in search of her. The sergeant again saved him, but not without the major's being very severely burnt in his face, and different parts of his body. Every thing they had with them in the tent was consumed.

This accident happened a little time before the army crossed the Hudson, 13th Sept. It neither altered the resolution or cheerfulness of Lady Harriet; and she continued her progress, a partaker of the fatigues of the advanced corps.

The next call upon her fortitude was of a different nature, and more distressing, as of longer suspense. On the morning of the 19th of September, the grenadiers being liable to action at every step, she had been directed by the major to follow the route of the artillery and baggage, which were not exposed. At the time the action began, she found herself near an uninhabited hut, where she alighted. When it was found the action was becoming general, the surgeon of the hospital took possession of the same place, as the most convenient for the first care of the wounded. Thus was this lady in the hearing of one continued fire of cannon and musketry for four hours together, with the presumption, from the post of her husband, at the head of the grenadiers, that he was in the most exposed part of the action. She had three female companions, the Baroness of Reidesel, and the wives of two British officers, Major Hanage and Lieutenant Reynell; but, in the event, their presence served but little for comfort. Major Hanage was soon brought to the surgeon very badly wounded; and a little time after, came intelligence that Lieut. Reynell was shot dead. Imagination will want no help to figure the state of the whole group.

From the date of that action to the 7th of October, Lady Harriet, with her usual serenity, stood prepared for new trials; and it was her lot that their severity increased with their number. She was again exposed to the hearing of the whole action, and, at last, received the word of her individual misfortune, mixed with the intelligence of the general calamity; the troops were defeated, and Major Ackland, desperately wounded, was a prisoner.

The day of the 8th was passed by Lady Harriet and her companions in uncommon anxiety; not a tent nor a shed being standing, except what belonged to the hospital, their refuge was among the wounded and the dying.

“When the army was upon the point of moving, I received a message from Lady Harriet, submitting to my decision a proposal, and expressing an earnest solicitude to execute it, if not interfering with my design, of passing to the camp of the enemy, and requesting General Gates’ permission to attend her husband.

“Though I was ready to believe, for I had experienced, that patience and fortitude in a supreme degree, were to be found, as well as every other virtue, under the most tender forms, I was astonished at the proposal. After so long an agitation, exhausted not only for want of rest, but absolutely want of food, drenched in rain for twelve hours together, that a woman should be capable of such an undertaking, as delivering herself to the enemy, probably in the night, and uncertain of what hands she might first fall into, appeared an effort above human nature. The assurance I was enabled to give was small indeed. I had not even a cup of wine to offer; but I was told she found from some kind and fortunate hand, a little rum and dirty water. All I could furnish to her was an open boat, and a few lines, written upon dirty and wet paper, to General Gates, recommending her to his protection.”

This letter was as follows :

SIR,—Lady Harriet Ackland, a lady of the first distinction by family, rank, and personal virtues, is under such concern on account of Major Ackland, her husband, wounded and a prisoner in your hands, that I cannot refuse her request to commit her to your protection.

Whatever general impropriety there may be in persons, acting in your situation and mine, to solicit favors, I cannot see the uncommon pre-eminence in every female grace and

exaltation of character in this lady, and her very hard fortune, without testifying that your attention to her will lay me under obligations.

Oct. 9, 1777.
M. G. Gates.

I am, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
J. BURGOYNE.

With this letter did this woman, who was of the most tender and delicate frame, habituated to all the soft elegancies and refined enjoyments, that attend high birth and fortune, and far advanced in a state in which the tenderest cares, always due to the sex, become indispensably necessary, in an open boat leave the camp of Burgoyne with a flag of truce for that of the enemy. The night was advanced before the boat reached the shore. Lady Harriet was immediately conveyed into the apartment of Major Henry Dearborn, since major general, who commanded the guard at that place, and every attention was paid her which her rank and situation demanded, and which circumstances permitted. Early in the morning, she was permitted to proceed in the boat to the camp, where Gen. Gates, whose gallantry will not be denied, stood ready to receive her, with due respect and courtesy. Having ascertained that Major Ackland had set out for Albany, Lady Harriet proceeded, by permission, to join him. Some time after, Major Ackland effected his exchange, and returned to England. The catastrophe of this tale is affecting. Ackland, after his return to England, procured a regiment, and at a dinner of military men, where the courage of the Americans was made a question, took the negative side with his usual decision. He was opposed, warmth ensued, and he gave the lie direct to a Lieutenant Lloyd, fought him, and was shot through the head. Lady Harriet lost her senses, and continued deranged two years; after which she married Mr. Brudenell, who accompanied her from Gen. Burgoyne's camp, when she sought her wounded husband on Hudson river.

Sec. 63. It would be difficult to describe the transports of joy, which the news of the surrender of Burgoyne excited among the Americans. They now began to look forward to the future with sanguine hopes, and eagerly expected the acknowledgment of their country's independence

by France and other European powers. The capitulation of Gen. Burgoyne, at Saratoga, was soon followed by an acknowledgment of the independence of America at the court of France,* and the conclusion of a formal treaty of alliance and commerce between the two countries—an event highly auspicious to the interests of America. The treaty was signed Feb. 6th—“neither of the contracting powers to make war or peace, without the formal consent of the other.”

For more than a year, commissioners from congress, at the head of whom was Dr. Franklin, had resided at the court of France, urging the above important measure. But the success of the American struggle was yet too doubtful, for that country to embroil herself in a war with Great Britain. The capture of the British army at Saratoga seemed to increase the probability that the American arms would finally triumph, and decided France to espouse her cause.

Sec. 64. Upon the conclusion of the campaign of 1777, the British army retired to winter quarters in Philadelphia, and the American army at Valley Forge, on the Schuylkill, fifteen miles from Philadelphia.

Scarcely were the American troops established in their encampment, which consisted of huts, before they were in danger of a famine. The adjacent country was nearly exhausted, and that which it might have spared, the inhabitants concealed in the woods. At this time, also, bills of credit had fallen to one fourth of their nominal value, so that one hundred dollars, in paper, would command no more than twenty-five dollars, in specie. In addition to these scenes of perplexity and suffering, the army was nearly destitute of comfortable clothing. Many, for want of shoes, walked barefoot on the frozen ground; few, if any, had blankets for the night. Great numbers sickened. Near three thousand at a time were incapable of bearing arms. While the defenders of the country were thus suffering and

* Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States in 1782; Sweden in February, 1783; Denmark in the same month; Spain in March; Russia in July.

perishing, the royal army was enjoying all the conveniences which an opulent city afforded.

Sec. 65. On the alliance of America with France, it was resolved in Great Britain immediately to evacuate Philadelphia, and to concentrate the royal force in the city of New-York. In pursuance of this resolution, the royal army, on the 18th of June, passed the Delaware into New-Jersey, and continued their retreat to New-York.

General Washington, penetrating their design, had already sent forward a detachment to aid the New-Jersey militia, in impeding the progress of the enemy. With the main body of his army, he now crossed the Delaware in pursuit. June 28th, the two armies were engaged at Monmouth, sixty-four miles from Philadelphia, and after a severe contest, in which the Americans, upon the whole, obtained the advantage, were separated only by night. Gen. Washington and his army reposed on the field of battle, intending to renew the attack in the morning. But the British general, during the night, made good his retreat towards New-York.

The sufferings of both armies during this engagement, from the heat of the day, were unparalleled in the history of the revolutionary war. No less than fifty-nine British soldiers perished from heat, and several of the Americans died through the same cause. The tongues of many of the soldiers were so swollen, that it was impossible to retain them in the mouth. The loss of the Americans was eight officers, and sixty-one privates killed, and about one hundred and sixty wounded, that of the British, in killed, wounded, and missing, was three hundred and fifty-eight men, including officers. One hundred were taken prisoners, and one thousand deserted during the march.

Sec. 66. On the 1st of July, Count D'Estaing arrived at Newport, R. I., from France, with twelve ships of the line and six frigates, to act in concert with the Americans in an attempt on Rhode Island, which had been in possession of the British since December, 1776.

Hearing of this expedition, Admiral Howe followed D'Estaing, and arrived in sight of Rhode Island, the day after the French fleet had entered the harbor of Newport. On the appearance of Howe, the French admiral, instead of co-operating with the Americans, sailed out to give him battle. A storm, however, arising, separated the fleets. D'Estaing entered Boston to repair. Howe, after the storm, returned to Rhode Island, and landed Sir Henry Clinton, with four thousand troops; but, fortunately, the Americans had raised the siege of Newport the day before, and left the island.—Sir Henry Clinton soon after sailed again for New-York.

Sec. 67. Hitherto the conquest of the states had been attempted, by proceeding from north to south; but that order, towards the close of this year, began to be inverted, and the southern states became the principal theatre on which the British conducted their offensive operations.

Georgia, being one of the weakest of the southern states, was marked out as the first object of attack, in that quarter of the union.

In November, Col. Campbell was despatched from New-York by Gov. Clinton, with a force of two thousand men, against Savannah, the capital of that state. This expedition proved successful, and Savannah, and with it the state of Georgia itself, fell into the power of the English.

On the arrival of Campbell and his troops at Savannah, he was opposed by Gen. Howe, the American officer, to whom was intrusted the defence of Georgia. His force, consisting of only 600 continentals, and a few hundred militia, was inadequate, however, to resist the enemy. After an engagement, in which the Americans killed upwards of one hundred, and took about four hundred and fifty prisoners, with several cannon, and large quantities of military stores, the capital surrendered.

In the succeeding year, 1779, Count D'Estaing, who, after repairing his fleet at Boston, had sailed for the West Indies, returned with a design to co-operate with the Americans against the common enemy. In Sept. he arrived

upon the coast of Georgia so unexpectedly, that the Experiment, a man of war of fifty guns, and three frigates, fell into his hands. As soon as his arrival was known, Gen. Lincoln marched with the army under his command, and some militia of South Carolina and Georgia, to co-operate with him in the reduction of Savannah. Before Lincoln arrived, D'Estaing demanded the surrender of the town. This demand, General Prevost, the English commander, requested a day to consider, which was incautiously granted. Before the day expired, a reinforcement of eight hundred men joined the standard of Prevost from Beaufort, whereupon he bid defiance to D'Estaing. On the arrival of Lincoln, it was determined to lay siege to the place. Much time was spent in preparation, but in an assault under D'Estaing and Lincoln, the Americans suffered so severely, both as to their number, and in their works, that it was deemed expedient to abandon the project. Count D'Estaing re-embarked his troops, and left the continent.

While the siege of Savannah was pending, one of the most extraordinary enterprises ever related in history, one, indeed, which nothing, but the respectability of the testimony, could have prevented our considering as marvellous, occurred. It was an enterprise conceived and executed by Colonel John White, of the Georgia line. A Captain French, of Delancey's first battalion, was posted with one hundred men, British regulars, on the Ogeechee river, about twenty-five miles from Savannah. There lay also at the same place five armed vessels, the largest mounting fourteen guns, and having on board altogether forty-one men. Col. White, with Captain Etholm, three soldiers, and his own servant, approached this post, on the evening of the 30th of September, kindled a number of fires, arranging them in the manner of a large camp, and summoned French to surrender, he and his comrades in the mean time riding about in various directions, and giving orders in a loud voice, as if performing the duties of the staff, to a large army. French, not doubting the reality of what he saw, and anxious to spare the effusion of blood, which a contest with a force so superior would produce, surrendered the whole detachment, together with the crews of the five vessels, amounting in all to one hundred and forty-one men, and one hundred and thirty stands of arms!

Col. White had still, however, a very difficult game to play; it was necessary to keep up the delusion of Captain French, until the prisoners should be secured; and with

this view, he pretended that the animosity of his troops was so ungovernable, that a little stratagem would be necessary to save the prisoners from their fury, and that he should therefore commit them to the care of three guides, with orders to conduct them to a place of safety. With many thanks for the colonel's humanity, French accepted the proposition, and marched off at a quick pace, under the direction of three guides, fearful, at every step, that the rage of White's troops would burst upon them, in defiance of his humane attempts to restrain them. White, as soon as they were out of sight, employed himself in collecting the militia of the neighbourhood, with whom he overtook his prisoners, and they were conducted in safety for twenty-five miles, to an American fort.*

Sec. 68. The campaign of 1779 was distinguished for nothing splendid, or decisive, on the part either of America or England.

The British seemed to have aimed at little more than to distress, plunder, and consume, it having been, early in the year, adopted as a principle upon which to proceed, "to render the colonies of as little avail as possible to their new connections."

Actuated by these motives, an expedition was fitted out from New-York for Virginia, which, in a predatory incursion, took possession of large naval stores, magazines of provisions, and great quantities of tobacco. After enriching themselves with various kinds of booty, and burning several places, they returned to New-York.

Soon after this expedition to Virginia, a similar one, under the command of the infamous Gov. Tryon, was projected against the maritime parts of Connecticut. During this expedition, New-Haven was plundered; East-Haven, Fairfield, Norwalk, and Green's Farms, were wantonly burnt.

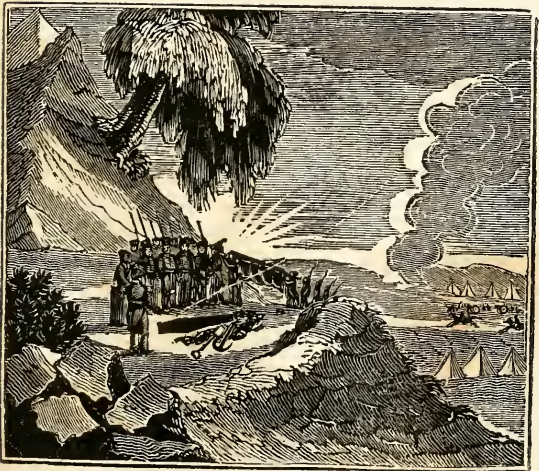
In an account of the devastations made by the English

* Allen's Revolution.





Putnam's Escape at Horse-Neck. P. 259.



Burial of Gen. Fraser. P. 273.

in this expedition, which was transmitted to congress, it appeared that at Fairfield there were burnt two houses of public worship, fifteen dwelling houses, eleven barns, and several stores. At Norwalk, two houses of public worship, eighty dwelling houses, sixty-seven barns, twenty-two stores, seventeen shops, four mills, and five vessels. In addition to this wanton destruction of property, various were the acts of brutality, rapine, and cruelty, committed on aged persons, women, and prisoners. At New-Haven, an aged citizen, who labored under a natural inability of speech, had his tongue cut out by one of the royal army. At Fairfield, the deserted houses of the inhabitants were entered; desks, trunks, closets, and chests, were broken open, and robbed of every thing valuable. Women were insulted, abused, and threatened, while their apparel was taken from them. Even an infant was robbed of its clothes, while a bayonet was pointed at the breast of its mother.

About this time General Putnam, who had been stationed with a respectable force at Reading, in Connecticut, then on a visit to his out-post, at Horse Neck, was attacked by Governor Tryon, with one thousand five hundred men. Putnam had only a picket of one hundred and fifty men, and two field pieces, without horses or drag-ropes. He however placed his cannon on the high ground, near the meeting house, and continued to pour in upon the advancing foe, until the enemy's horse appeared upon a charge. The general now hastily ordered his men to retreat to a neighboring swamp, inaccessible to horse, while he himself put spurs to his steed, and plunged down the precipice at the church.

This is so steep, as to have artificial stairs, composed of nearly *one hundred stone steps*, for the accommodation of worshippers ascending to the sanctuary. On the arrival of the dragoons at the brow of the hill, they paused, thinking it too dangerous to follow the steps of the adventurous hero. Before any could go round the hill and descend, Putnam had escaped, uninjured by the many balls which were fired at him in his descent; but one touched him, and that only passed through his hat. He proceeded to Stamford, where, having strengthened his picket with some militia, he boldly faced about and pursued Gov. Tryon on his return.*

While the British were proceeding in these desolating operations, Gen. Washington was loudly called upon, by the suffering inhabitants, for continental troops to resist

* Ramsay.

them; but his circumstances permitted him to spare but few. Had he listened to their calls, and divided his army conformably to the wishes of the invaded citizens, he would have exposed his whole force to ruin. Choosing rather to bear the reproaches which were by some heaped upon him, than to hazard the loss of every thing, he kept his army concentrated on both sides of the North River, at some distance from New-York, to prevent, if possible, the British from possessing themselves of West Point, sixty miles north of New-York, a post which they eagerly coveted, and the possession of which would have given them incalculable advantage over that part of the country.

Sec. 69. The exertions of the Americans, during this campaign, were still more feeble than those of the enemy. Scarcely an expedition was planned which merits any notice, and, with the exception of the reduction of Stoney Point, forty miles north of New-York, on the Hudson, scarcely any thing was accomplished of importance. The reduction of this place, July 15th, was one of the boldest enterprises which occurred in the history of the war.

At this time, Stoney Point was in the condition of a real fortress; it was furnished with a select garrison of more than six hundred men, and had stores in abundance, and defensive preparations which were formidable.

Fortified as it was, Gen. Washington ventured an attempt to reduce it. The enterprise was committed to Gen. Wayne, who, with a strong detachment of active infantry, set out towards the place, at noon. His march of fourteen miles, over high mountains, through deep morasses, and difficult defiles, was accomplished by eight o'clock in the evening.

At the distance of a mile from the Point, Gen. Wayne halted, and formed his men into two columns, putting himself at the head of the right. Both columns were directed to march in order and silence, with unloaded muskets and fixed bayonets. At midnight they arrived under the walls of the fort. "An unexpected obstacle now presented itself: the deep morass, which covered the works, was at this time, overflowed by the tide. The English opened a tremendous fire of musketry and of cannon loaded with grape shot:

but neither the inundated morass, nor a double palisade, nor the storm of fire that was poured upon them, could arrest the impetuosity of the Americans; they opened their way with the bayonet, prostrated whatever opposed them, scaled the fort, and the two columns met in the centre of the works. The English lost upwards of six hundred men in killed and prisoners. The conquerors abstained from pillage, and from all disorder; a conduct the more worthy, as they had still present in mind, the ravages and butcheries which their enemies had so recently committed in Virginia and Connecticut. Humanity imparted new effulgence to the victory which valor had obtained.”*

Sec. 70. Another expedition, planned and executed this year, entitled to some notice, was one under Gen. Sullivan, against the Six Nations, which, with the exception of the Oneidas, had been induced, by the English, to take up arms against America.

At the head of between four and five thousand men, Gen. Sullivan marched into the country, up the Susquehannah, and attacked the Indians, in well constructed fortifications. The resistance of the savages was warlike. Being overpowered, however, they were obliged to flee. Gen. Sullivan, according to his instructions, proceeded to lay waste their country. Forty villages were consumed, and one hundred and sixty thousand bushels of corn were destroyed.

Sec. 71. It has already been stated, that the campaign of 1779 was remarkable for the feeble exertions of the Americans. Among the causes which contributed to lessen their activity, the failure of the French fleet, in every scheme undertaken for their benefit, was no inconsiderable one. America had expected much from an alliance with France, and looked to the French fleet under D’Estaing, to hasten the downfall

* Botta.

of British power in the country. But when they perceived nothing equal to their expectation accomplished, they became despondent, and exertion was enfeebled.

But another, and a still more powerful cause of these feeble exertions, on the part of the Americans, was the daily depreciation of their bills of credit.

As the contest between England and America originated in the subject of taxation, it was early perceived, by the continental congress, that the imposition of taxes, adequate to the exigencies of war, even if practicable, would be impolitic. The only expedient, therefore, in their power to adopt, was the emission of bills of credit, representing specie, under a public engagement ultimately to redeem those bills, by an exchange of gold or silver.

Accordingly, in June, 1775, on the resolution to raise an army, congress issued bills of credit, to the amount of two millions of dollars. This emission was followed, the next month, by the issue of another million. For their redemption, the confederated colonies were pledged—each colony to provide means to pay its proportion, by the year 1779.

In the early periods of the war, the enthusiasm of the people for liberty made them comparatively indifferent to property. The cause was popular, and the public credit good. Bills of credit, therefore, by common consent, rapidly circulated, and calculations about private interest were, in a great measure, suspended.

It was obvious, however, that there was a point, beyond which the credit of these bills would not extend. At the expiration of eighteen months from their first emission, when about twenty millions had been issued, they began to depreciate. At first, the diminution of their value was scarcely perceptible, but from that time it daily increased.

Desirous of arresting the growing depreciation, congress at length resorted to loans and taxes. But loans were difficult to negotiate, and taxes, in several of the states, could not be collected. Pressed with the necessities of an army, congress found themselves obliged to continue to issue bills, after they had begun to depreciate, and to pay that depreciation, by increasing the sums emitted. By the year 1780, the amount in circulation was the overwhelming sum of two hundred millions.

The progress of this depreciation is worthy of notice. Towards the close of 1777, the depreciation was two or three for one; in '78, five or six for one; in '79, twenty-seven or twenty-eight for one; in '80, fifty or sixty for one, in the first four or five months. From this date, the circulation of these bills was limited, but where they passed, they soon depreciated to one hundred and fifty for one, and finally, several hundreds for one.

Several causes contributed to sink the value of the continental currency. The excess of its quantity at first begat a natural depreciation. This was increased by the enemy, who counterfeited the bills, and spread their forgeries through the states. Public agents, who received a commission to the amount of their purchases, felt it to be their interest to give a high price for all commodities. These causes, co-operating with the decline of public confidence, and the return of more selfish feelings, rapidly increased the depreciation, until bills of credit, or what has been commonly called, "continental currency," became of little or no value.

The evils which resulted from this system were immense. Under it, it became extremely difficult to raise an army, and to provide necessaries for its subsistence. At the same time, it originated discontents among the officers and soldiers, since their pay, in this depreciated currency, was inadequate to the support of their families at home. "Four months pay, of a private, would not procure his family a single bushel of wheat, and the pay of a colonel would not purchase oats for his horse." Under circumstances like these, it reflects the highest honor upon Washington, that his wisdom and prudence should have been able to keep an army together.

In addition to these evils, which fell so heavily upon the army, others, not less deplorable, fell upon the community. In order to prevent the growing depreciation of their bills, congress directed that they should be a legal tender. But this, while it did not much retard the regular diminution of their value, was the source of immeasurable injustice and distress.

The aged, who had retired to enjoy the fruits of their industry, found their substance but a scanty pittance. The widow was compelled to take a shilling, where a pound was her due, and the orphan was obliged to discharge an executor on the payment of sixpence on the pound. In

many instances, the earnings of a long life were, in a few years, reduced to a trifling sum.

Had congress foreseen these evils, they would have guarded against them. But it was a day of poverty and experiment. They designed no injustice. They had placed before them the freedom of the country from the yoke of British dominion, and if, in their zeal to effect it, they sometimes erred, the sufferings which resulted from their ignorance have been a thousand times compensated, by the subsequent enjoyments of a free and independent people.

Sec. 72. Towards the close of the year 1779, Sir Henry Clinton, committing the English garrison of New-York to Gen. Kniphausen, embarked with a force of between seven and eight thousand men, for the reduction of Charleston, South Carolina, which important object he accomplished on the 12th of May, 1780.

After a tempestuous voyage of some weeks, in which several transports were lost, the army arrived at Savannah, whence they sailed on their destined purpose. On the 2d of April, 1780, Gen. Clinton opened his batteries against Charleston. Gen. Lincoln, at this time, commanded the American forces of the south. Urged by the inhabitants, on the approach of the enemy, to continue in Charleston, and assist in repelling the attack, he consented to remain, and, with Gov. Rutledge, industriously forwarded preparations for defence.

Notwithstanding these preparations, the batteries of the enemy soon obtained a decided superiority over those of the town, and left but little reason to the besieged to hope that they should be able to defend the place. A council of war, held on the 21st, agreed that a retreat would probably be impracticable, and advised that offers of capitulation should be made to Gen. Clinton, which might admit of the army's withdrawing, and afford security to the persons and property of the inhabitants.

On the proposal of these terms, they were rejected. Hostilities were now renewed by the garrison, and returned with unusual ardor by the British. On the 11th of May, finding the longer defence of the place impracticable, a number of citizens addressed Gen. Lincoln, advising him to capitulate. Acquiescing in the measure, painful as it

was, Gen. Lincoln again presented terms of capitulation, which being accepted, the American army, amounting to 5000, together with the inhabitants of the place, and four hundred pieces of artillery, were surrendered to the British.

The loss on both sides, during the siege, was nearly equal. Of the royal troops, seventy-six were killed, and one hundred and eighty-nine wounded. Of the Americans, eighty-nine were killed, and one hundred and forty wounded. By the articles of capitulation, the garrison was to march out of town, and to deposit their arms in front of the works, but, as a mark of humiliation, which, eighteen months afterwards, was remembered and retaliated on Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, the drums were not to beat a British march, nor the colors to be uncased.

Sec. 73. Shortly after the surrender of Charleston, Sir Henry Clinton, leaving four thousand men for the southern service, under Lord Cornwallis, returned to New-York. British garrisons were now posted in different parts of the state of South Carolina, to awe the inhabitants, and to secure their submission to the British government.

The spirit of freedom, however, still remained with the people, nor was it easy to subdue that spirit, how much soever it might be temporarily repressed, by royal and oppressive menace.

Notwithstanding the efforts of his majesty's servants to preserve quietness, the month of July did not pass by in peace. General Sumpter, a man ardently attached to the cause of liberty, in several engagements in South Carolina, with the English and their partizans, gained great advantages over them, and in one instance, reduced a regiment—the prince of Wales'—from two hundred and seventy-eight to nine.

While Sumpter was thus keeping up the spirits of the people by a succession of gallant exploits, a respectable force was advancing through

the middle states, for the relief of their southern brethren.

We shall interrupt the thread of our history to relate the personal adventures of Maj. Gen. Wadsworth, in the district of Maine, during the spring of this year, 1780. He had been sent by the legislature of Massachusetts, to command in that part of the country. Having attended to the objects of his mission during the summer of '79, and the principal part of the succeeding winter, he dismissed his troops towards the end of February, and began to prepare for his return to Boston. He had been accompanied during this time by Mrs. Wadsworth, and a friend of hers, Miss Fenno, of that place.

His preparations, however, were discovered by a disaffected inhabitant in the neighborhood, who gave intelligence to the commander of the British fort at Bagaduce, and assured him that the general might easily be made a prisoner. No time was lost. Twenty-five soldiers, with the proper officers, were soon embarked on board a vessel, in which they proceeded to an inlet, four miles from the general's quarters. Here they landed under cover of night, and lying concealed till near midnight, they proceeded on their destined purpose.

The nature of the ground was such as to conceal them, until they had arrived at the house. The sentinel, being surprised, sprung into the kitchen door, and was followed by a volley from the assailants, and by some of the assailants themselves. Another party blew in the windows of the general's bed-room, whilst a third party, forcing the windows of Miss Fenno, rushed into her apartment.

The general's room being barred, he determined to make what resistance he was able. Accordingly, as the assailants approached his apartment, he repeatedly discharged his pistols, a blunderbuss, and fusee. At length a ball from the kitchen broke his arm, and terminated the contest.

The party, apprehensive of danger, now retired in haste, taking with them the wounded general, but leaving his wife and Miss Fenno, to emotions the most intense. After proceeding with some difficulty near a mile, General Wadsworth was put on a horse, behind a mounted soldier, and being warned that silence alone would ensure his safety, the party at length reached the vessel, which immediately sailed for the fort.

Near the close of the day the party arrived with their

charge. General Wadsworth landed amidst the shouts of a multitude, which had assembled to see the man, who had justly excited their admiration, by his enterprises in that quarter, and, under a guard, was conducted to the officers' guard room. Here his wounds were dressed; a room in the officers' barracks was assigned him, and through the civility of General Campbell, the commandant of the fort, who often visited him, his situation was rendered as comfortable as could be expected.

General Wadsworth, however, was a prisoner and alone. Nothing could supply the place of freedom, to which a spirit like his constantly aspired, or of domestic happiness, which, though a soldier of the most ardent stamp, he well knew how to appreciate. Added to this, his wound, during the first two weeks, had become so inflamed as to confine him entirely to his room.

At the expiration of this time, he had the happiness to hear from his wife by means of an officer, bearing a flag of truce, who at his request had been despatched by General Campbell with a letter to her, and another to the governor of Massachusetts. The intelligence he received from Mrs. Wadsworth, of her safety, and especially of that of his little son, who he supposed had been killed the night he was taken prisoner—was peculiarly gratifying. So far from having been injured, his son had slept amidst all the horrors of the scene, and only knew of the transactions of the dreadful night, by the devastations he saw around him in the morning.

At the end of five weeks, when his wounds were nearly healed, the general requested the customary privilege of a parole. Circumstances, however, existed, which rendered it necessary to deny him, and he acquiesced. About this time Mrs. Wadsworth and Miss Fenno, under protection of a passport from General Campbell, visited him. The visit lasted ten days, to their mutual satisfaction.

In the mean time, orders respecting him had arrived from the commanding general at New-York. Of the tenor of these orders, General Wadsworth was ignorant, but their unpropitious nature was indicated by the change of conduct and countenance in some of the officers. Miss Fenno had accidentally learned their import, but she carefully concealed her knowledge, until the moment of her departure, when, to prevent suspicion, she barely said, "General Wadsworth, take care of yourself." From the servants,

not long after, he learned that instead of being exchanged, he was to be sent to England.

In the course of some days, Major Benjamin Burton, a brave officer, was conveyed as a prisoner to Bagaduce, and lodged in the same room with General Wadsworth. He confirmed the report of the servants respecting the transportation of the general to England, and learned, not long after, that he himself was destined to a similar fate. The monitory caution of Miss Fenno was now explained, and the general plainly saw the importance of attending to it. These officers were not long in deciding that they would not cross the Atlantic; and though scarcely a ray of hope presented itself to encourage them, they nevertheless resolved to attempt to escape.

Bagaduce, on which the fort stands, is a peninsula of moderate extent, washed by considerable waters on every side, except the sandy beach which connects it with the main land on the west. The fort stands on the middle of the peninsula. The prisoners were confined in a grated room in the officers' barracks. The walls of the fort, exclusively of the depth of the ditch surrounding it, were twenty feet high, with frasing on the top, and chevaux-de-frise below. Sentinels were stationed in every place in and about the fortress, where their presence could be supposed to be necessary. Escape, therefore, seemed almost impracticable.

After several plans proposed by the prisoners for their escape, they settled at length upon the following. As the room in which they were confined was ceiled with boards, they determined to cut off one of these so as to admit their entrance. After passing through, they proposed to creep along one of the joists to which these boards were nailed, and thus to pass over the room adjoining it, which belonged to the officers, until they should come to the middle entry, and then by a blanket, which was to be taken with them, to let themselves down in this entry. In case of being observed, they agreed upon several stratagems to be employed, in order that their attempt might be crowned with success.

In agreement with this plan, after the sentinel had taken the required precaution in regard to the prisoners, and seen them in bed, Gen. Wadsworth arose, and attempted to make the necessary incision into the board with his knife. But he found the attempt useless, and hazardous, since it could be done neither with the necessary expedition, nor without

noise. This part of the design was therefore abandoned. He, however, soon found means, through the agency of a soldier, who was his barber, to procure a gimblet, without exciting a suspicion as to the purpose for which he intended it.

On the succeeding night, they made the attempt with their gimblet, but this also occasioned too much noise. They resolved next to make the experiment in the day time; and although two sentinels, in walking the entry, every moment or two passed by their door, which had a glass window in it; and although they were exposed every hour to the intrusion of their servants, or of the officers of the fort, they succeeded in perforating the ceiling from time to time. The stratagem was simply this. As the sentinels were in the habit of pacing the entry backwards and forwards, the prisoners would commence the same tour in their own room, being careful to keep time with them, and both to pass at the same instant by the glass door; but as the sentinels had to go twice the length the prisoners had, this afforded an opportunity for one of the latter to be engaged with the gimblet in the mean time, and then to join his companion as the sentinels came back.

In this manner a sufficient number of holes were bored in the course of three weeks. The small spaces between the holes were cut with a pen-knife, except one at each corner, in order to hold the piece in its proper place, till they were ready finally to remove it. The wounds in the mean time were covered over with a pastè made of chewed bread, resembling the color of the board, and the dust was carefully swept from the floor. All this was done without suspicion from any quarter.

Their conveyance to New-York, or Halifax, and thence to England, was understood to be by a privateer, which was then on a cruise, but was soon expected to return. Their attention of course was arrested by every thing which they heard relative to this vessel, and they made every unsuspecting inquiry in their power, concerning the situation of the fort, the posting of the sentinels, and similar subjects. The information thus obtained, enabled Gen. Wadsworth, who had previously some knowledge of the place, to form a correct view of the whole ground.

During this time they made what little preparations they were able, as to provisions and other things, that related to their intended escape. At the end of three weeks they were all ready. The privateer was daily expected to return,

which would disconcert all their purposes, and they wished nothing more than such an opportunity as a dark and rainy night would afford, in order to their deliverance. During a whole week no such opportunity offered, and, together with this fact, some circumstances, tending to excite a belief that their design was suspected, occurred, and rendered their anxiety extreme.

At length the favorable occasion was presented. A storm on the 18th of June brought on an unusual degree of darkness and rain. At about eleven o'clock the prisoners retired apparently to rest, while the sentinel was looking through the glass door. No sooner, however, were their lights extinguished, than they arose; their first object was to cut the corners of the board, through which they were to make their escape. An hour was spent in accomplishing this purpose, and as it was attended with considerable noise, it was not done without danger.

Burton first passed through the aperture. His size rendered it a difficult attempt. The general, although smaller, found even greater difficulty, from the weakness of his arm. But the urgency of the case induced him to put forth every effort. By means of a chair, on which he stood, and a blanket fastened with a skewer put through the hole, he raised himself through. The noise made by these attempts, and even the cackling of the fowls that roosted above the rooms, were unheeded, being drowned by the torrents of rain pouring incessantly on the roof of the building.

By agreement, when Burton had reached the middle entry, he was to wait for the general; the latter, however, when he had gained the place, was unable to find him, but judging from appearances that he had escaped through the door, he followed on. Passing partly round the building in order to gain the western side, he felt his way directly under the eaves, lest he should strike against some person, an event to which he was exposed, in consequence of the extreme darkness. From this point he made his way towards the neighboring wall of the fort, but was unable to climb the bank until he had found out an oblique path.

Just as he had gained the place on the north bastion, where Burton and himself had agreed to cross the wall, the guard house door, on the opposite side of the fort, was thrown open, and the words, "Relief, turn out," were distinctly sounded. At this instant he heard a scrambling in a contrary direction, which he knew must be made by his companion. This was a critical moment. The general

was in danger of being trod on by the guard, as they came around on the top of the wall, and he barely prevented this catastrophe, by getting himself and his wet blanket upon the fraising, which was the outward margin of the wall.

After the guard had passed on, by means of his blanket, fastened round a picket of the fraising, he let himself down as near the ground as the length of the blanket would admit, and then let go his hold, and fell without injury. Having made several movements with great silence, in order to clear himself from the works connected with the fort, he at length found himself descending the declivity of the hill, into the open field. All this was done, not without extreme difficulty, owing to the lameness of his arm. No indications appeared, that he was as yet discovered.

As the rain and darkness continued, he groped his way to an old guard house on the shore of the back cove. At this building he and his companion had agreed to meet, should they have been previously separated. Burton, however, after a long search, was not to be found. Accordingly, the general prepared to cross the cove, and happily succeeded, as the time was that of low water. It was now about two o'clock in the morning, and he had proceeded a mile and a half from the fort. His course lay up a sloping acclivity, which at the time happened to be overspread with trees, a circumstance that greatly impeded his progress. He proceeded a mile over the ground, till he reached the summit, where he found a road, which, however, he soon left for the woods, in order to make his way to the river. Here the day dawned, and he heard the reveille beat at the fort. At sun-rise he reached the eastern shore of the Penobscot. Choosing, however, not to cross the river at that place, he continued his way still higher up at the foot of the bank, passing near the water, so as to have his steps washed by the tide. By this means he hoped to be secure from the blood-hounds kept at the fort. Having reached a place at a distance of seven miles from the fort, where it was necessary for him to cross the river, and where he found a canoe lying on the shore, he concluded to rest for a time, and dry his clothes. While in this situation, what was his joy to descry his friend Burton approaching him, in the very track which he himself had taken.

The major, after having passed through the hole in the ceiling, immediately made his way into the second entry, and concluding that his friend would be unable to pass through the hole, for want of assistance in the room, thought

it best to complete his escape alone. He met with little difficulty till the door of the guard room was suddenly opened, and supposing that a discovery had taken place, he immediately leaped from the wall; fortunately receiving no injury, though his life was singularly exposed by the leap, he easily escaped into the open ground.

Mistaking the ground he should have taken, Burton suddenly found himself near a sentinel, who was one of a picket guard, stationed not far from the isthmus. As, however, he was not perceived, he found means silently to withdraw from his unwelcome neighbor, and entering the water on the side of the isthmus next the river, he passed over to the opposite side above the picket. This undertaking was hazardous in the extreme, and cost him an hour's excessive toil. Chilled and exhausted, he then took his way through the forest, which the general had taken before, and by this means rejoined him.

The two friends entered the canoe, and as they were in the expectation of being pursued by the enemy, they proposed to cross the river obliquely. While executing this project, a barge belonging to the British came in sight, at some distance. Circumstances, however, favored the concealment of the officers, and by hard rowing they landed out of reach of their pursuers. For greater safety they abandoned the shore, and directed their course through the forests, towards the head of St. George's river. A compass which Burton had fortunately retained, was their guide. Though greatly incommoded by showers, heat, and the obstructions of a forest, they travelled twenty-five miles by sun-set.

They made less progress, however, the next day; and on the third day, General Wadsworth, from soreness, lameness, and fatigue, proposed to stop where he was, until his friend, by proceeding onward to the nearest settlement, could bring him relief. To this plan, however, Burton strenuously objected. They then both proposed to refresh themselves with a little sleep. This they did in the heat of the day, and found the effect so beneficial, that they were invigorated to pursue their journey, which they finished at 6 o'clock, P. M., by reaching the settlements towards which they had directed their course. The inhabitants flocked around them with the strongest expressions of joy, and having formed themselves into a guard for their protection, conducted these officers to an inn, not far from the place where the general was taken prisoner. Parties of the enemy were

lurking round in order to way-lay them, and they were saved from falling again into their hands, only by the defence which was so generously afforded them. Burton soon reached his family. General Wadsworth set out for Portland, where he expected to find Mrs. Wadsworth; but she and Miss Fenno had sailed for Boston, before his arrival.

He immediately proceeded to join them at that place. On his arrival, he found that they had suffered much from the want of money and friends, besides being nearly shipwrecked on their way. The past, however, was forgotten, in the felicities of the present, and in gratitude to a kind Providence, through which they had escaped perils both by sea and land.*

Sec. 74. The southern army, now placed under the command of Gates, the hero of Saratoga, Gen. Lincoln having been superseded, amounted to four thousand; but of these, scarcely one thousand were regular troops, the rest consisting of militia, from North Carolina, Maryland, and Virginia.

As this army approached South Carolina, Lord Rawdon, who commanded on the frontier, under Lord Cornwallis, concentrated the royal forces, two thousand in number, at Camden, one hundred and twenty miles northwest from Charleston. Here Cornwallis, on learning the movements of the Americans, joined him.

On the morning of the 16th of August, the two armies met, and a severe and general action ensued, in which, through the unpardonable failure of the militia, the British gained a decided advantage.

At the first onset, a large body of the Virginia militia, under a charge of the British infantry with fixed bayonets, threw down their arms, and fled. A considerable part of the North Carolina militia followed their unworthy example. But the continental troops evinced the most unyielding

* Dwight's Travels.

firmness, and pressed forward with unusual ardor. Never did men acquit themselves more honorably. They submitted only when forsaken by their brethren in arms, and when overpowered by numbers.

In this battle, the brave Baron de Kalb, second in command, at the head of the Marylanders, fell, covered with wounds, which he survived only a few days. De Kalb was a German by birth, and had formerly served in the armies of the French. In consideration of his distinguished merit, as an officer and soldier, congress resolved that a monument should be erected to his memory at Annapolis.

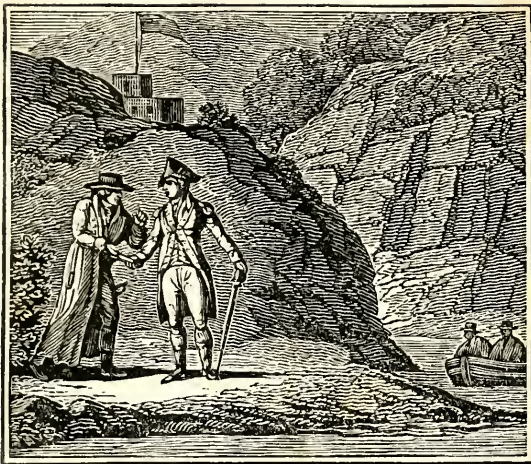
The battle of Camden was exceedingly bloody. The field of battle, the road and swamps, for some distance, were covered with wounded and slain. The number of Americans killed, although not certain, probably amounted to between six and seven hundred, and the wounded and prisoners to one thousand three hundred, or one thousand four hundred. The British stated their loss to be only three hundred and twenty-four, in killed and wounded; but it was probably much greater.

Sec. 75. "The disaster of the army, under General Gates, overspread, at first, the face of American affairs, with a dismal gloom; but the day of prosperity to the United States began, as will appear in the sequel, from that moment, to dawn.

"Their prospects brightened, while those of their enemies were obscured by disgrace, broken by defeat, and, at last, covered with ruin. Elated with their victories, the conquerors grew more insolent and rapacious, while the real friends of independence became resolute and determined."

Sec. 76. While the campaign of 1780 was thus filled up with important events in the southern department, it passed away, in the northern states, in successive disappointments, and reiterated distresses.

In June, a body of five thousand of the enemy, under Gen. Kniphausen, entered New Jersey, and



Meeting of Arnold and Andre. P. 291.



Capture of Andre. P. 291.



in addition to plundering the country, wantonly burnt several villages.

On the arrival of this body at Connecticut Farms, a small settlement containing about a dozen houses and a church, they burnt the whole. At this place there resided a presbyterian minister, by the name of Caldwell, who had taken a conspicuous part in the cause of freedom, and who had, of course, incurred the deep displeasure of Gen. Kniphausen. Supposing, however, that the general's resentment would be confined to him, and that his family would be safe, on the approach of the enemy he hastily withdrew, leaving his wife and children to their mercy. Col. Drayton had previously withdrawn the militia from the place, that there might be no pretext for enormities; but the British soldiers, in the American war, did not wait for pretexts to be cruel. Mrs. Caldwell was shot in the midst of her children, by a villain, who walked up to the window of the room in which she was sitting, and took deliberate aim with his musket. This atrocious act was attempted to be excused as an *accident*, as a *random* shot; but the attempt at palliation served only to increase the crime.

Sec. 77. Besides these predatory incursions, by which the inhabitants suffered alarm, distress, and destruction of property, they suffered greatly, also, from the constantly diminishing value of their paper currency, and from unfavorable crops.

The situation of Gen. Washington, often during the war embarrassing, had been distressing through the winter, in his encampment at Morristown. The cold was more intense than it had ever been known to be before in this climate, within the memory of the oldest inhabitant. The winter, to this day, bears the distinctive epithet of the *hard winter*. The army suffered extremely, and often had Washington the prospect before him of being obliged to break up his encampment, and disband his soldiers.

The return of spring brought little alleviation to their distress. Great disorder pervaded the departments for supplying the army. Abuses crept in, frauds were practised, and notwithstanding the poverty of the country, economy, on the part of the commissioners, was exiled.

In May, a committee from congress visited the army, and reported to that body an account of the distresses and disorders conspicuously prevalent. In particular, they stated,

“that the army was unpaid for five months; that it seldom had more than six days’ provisions in advance, and was, on several occasions, for sundry successive days, without meat; that the medical department had neither sugar, coffee, tea, chocolate, wine, nor spirituous liquors of any kind; and that every department of the army was without money, and had not even the shadow of credit left.”

Sec. 78. But under all this tide of evils, there appeared no disposition, in public bodies, to purchase their relief by concession. They seemed, on the contrary, to rise in the midst of their distresses, and to gain firmness and strength by the pressure of calamity.

Sec. 79. Fortunately for the Americans, as it seemed, M. de Ternay arrived at Rhode Island, July 10th, from France, with a squadron of seven sail of the line, five frigates, and five smaller armed vessels, with several transports, and six thousand men, all under command of Lieutenant General Count de Rochambeau. Great was the joy excited by this event, and high raised expectations were indulged from the assistance of so powerful a force against the enemy. But the British fleet, in our waters, was still superior, and that of the French, and the French army, were for a considerable time incapacitated from co-operating with the Americans, by being blocked up at Rhode Island.

The arrival of the French fleet at Newport, was greeted by the citizens with every demonstration of joy. The town was illuminated, and congratulatory addresses were exchanged. As a symbol of friendship and affection for the allies, Gen. Washington recommended to the American officers, to wear black and white cockades, the ground to be of the first color, and the relief of the second.

Sec. 80. The fortress of West Point, on the Hudson, sixty miles north of New-York, and its importance to the Americans, has already been

noticed. Of this fortress, Gen. Arnold had solicited and obtained the command. Soon after assuming the command, Arnold entered into negotiations with Sir Henry Clinton, to make such a disposition of the forces in the fortress, as that the latter might easily take possession of it by surprise. Fortunately for America, this base plot was seasonably discovered to prevent the ruinous consequences that must have followed. Arnold, however, escaped to the enemy, loaded with infamy and disgrace. Andre, the agent of the British in this negotiation, was taken, and justly expiated his crime on the gallows, as a spy.

Major Andre, at this time adjutant general of the British army, was an officer extremely young—but high-minded, brave, and accomplished. He was transported in a vessel called the Vulture, up the North river, as near to West Point as was practicable, without exciting suspicion. On the 21st of September, at night, a boat was sent from the shore, to bring him. On its return, Arnold met him at the beach, without the posts of either army. Their business was not finished, till too near the dawn of day for Andre to return to the Vulture. He, therefore, lay concealed within the American lines. During the day, the Vulture found it necessary to change her position, and Andre, not being able now to get on board, was compelled to attempt his return to New-York by land.

Having changed his military dress for a plain coat, and receiving a passport from Arnold, under the assumed name of John Anderson, he passed the guards and outposts, without suspicion. On his arrival at Tarrytown, a village thirty miles north of New-York, in the vicinity of the first British posts, he was met by three militia soldiers—John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wert. He showed them his passport, and they suffered him to continue his route. Immediately after this, one of these three men, thinking that he perceived something singular in the person of the traveller, called him back. Andre asked them where they were from? “From down below,” they replied, intending to say, from New-York. Too frank to suspect a snare, Andre immediately answered, “And so am I”

Upon this, they arrested him, when he declared himself to be a British officer, and offered them his watch, and all the gold he had with him, to be released. These soldiers were poor and obscure, but they were not to be bribed. Resolutely refusing his offers, they conducted him to Lieutenant Col. Jameson, their commanding officer.

Jameson injudiciously permitted Andre, still calling himself Anderson, to write to Arnold, who immediately escaped on board the *Vulture*, and took refuge in New-York.

Washington, on his way to head quarters, from Connecticut—where he had been to confer with Count de Rochambeau—providentially happened to be at West Point, just at this time. After taking measures to insure the safety of the fort, he appointed a board, of which Gen. Greene was president, to decide upon the condition and punishment of Andre.

After a patient hearing of the case, September 29th, in which every feeling of kindness, liberality, and generous sympathy, was strongly evinced, the board, upon his own confession, unanimously pronounced Andre a *spy*, and declared, that agreeably to the laws and usages of nations, he ought to suffer death.

Major Andre had many friends in the American army, and even Washington would have spared him, had duty to his country permitted. Every possible effort was made by Sir Henry Clinton in his favor, but it was deemed important that the decision of the board of war should be carried into execution. When Major Andre was apprised of the sentence of death, he made a last appeal, in a letter to Washington, that he might be shot, rather than die on a gibbet.

“Buoyed above the terror of death,” said he, “by the consciousness of a life devoted to honorable pursuits, and stained with no action that can give me remorse, I trust that the request I make to your excellency at this serious period, and which is to soften my last moments, will not be rejected. Sympathy towards a soldier will surely induce your excellency, and a military friend, to adapt the mode of my death to the feelings of a man of honor. Let me hope, sir, that if aught in my character impresses you with esteem towards me, as a victim of policy and resentment, I shall experience the operation of those feelings in your breast, by being informed that I am not to die on a gibbet.”

This letter of Andre roused the sympathies of Washington, and had *he* only been concerned, the prisoner would

have been pardoned and released. But the interests of his country were at stake, and the sternness of justice demanded that private feelings should be sacrificed. Upon consulting his officers, on the propriety of Major Andre's request, to receive the death of a soldier,—to be shot,—it was deemed necessary to deny it, and to make him an example. On the 2d of October, this unfortunate young man expired on the gallows, while foes and friends universally lamented his untimely end.

As a reward to Paulding, Williams, and Van Wert, for their virtuous and patriotic conduct, congress voted to each of them an annuity of two hundred dollars, and a silver medal, on one side of which, was a shield with this inscription—"fidelity,"—and on the other, the following motto, "*vincit amor patriæ*"—the love of country conquers.

Arnold, the miserable wretch, whose machinations led to the melancholy fate Andre experienced, escaped to New-York, where, as the price of his dishonor, he received the commission of *brigadier general*, and the sum of *ten thousand pounds sterling*. This last boon was the grand secret of Arnold's fall from virtue; his vanity and extravagance had led him into expenses which it was neither in the power nor will of congress to support. He had involved himself in debt, from which he saw no hope of extricating himself; and his honor, therefore, was bartered for British gold.

Sec. 81. General Washington, having learned whither Arnold had fled, deemed it possible still to take him, and to bring him to the just reward of his treachery. To accomplish an object so desirable, and, at the same time, in so doing, to save Andre, Washington devised a plan, which, although it ultimately failed, evinced the capacity of his mind, and his unwearied ardor for his country's good.

Having matured the plan, Washington sent to Major Lee to repair to head quarters, at Tappan, on the Hudson. "I have sent for you," said Gen. Washington, "in the expectation that you have some one in your corps, who is willing to undertake a delicate and hazardous project. Whoever comes forward will confer great obligation upon me personally, and, in behalf of the United States, I will reward

him amply. No time is to be lost; he must proceed, if possible, to-night. I intend to seize Arnold, and save Andre."

Major Lee named a serjeant major of his corps, by the name of *Champe*—a native of Virginia, a man full of bone and muscle—with a countenance grave, thoughtful, and taciturn—of tried courage, and inflexible perseverance.

Champe was sent for by Major Lee, and the plan proposed. This was for him to desert—to escape to New-York—to appear friendly to the enemy—to watch Arnold, and, upon some fit opportunity, with the assistance of some one whom Champe could trust, to seize him, and conduct him to a place on the river, appointed, where boats should be in readiness to bear them away.

Champe listened to the plan attentively—but, with the spirit of a man of honor and integrity, replied—"that it was not danger nor difficulty, that deterred him from immediately accepting the proposal, but the *ignominy of desertion*, and the *hypocrisy of enlisting with the enemy!*"

To these objections, Lee replied, that although he would appear to desert, yet as he obeyed the call of his commander in chief, his departure could not be considered as criminal, and that, if he suffered in reputation, for a time, the matter would one day be explained to his credit. As to the second objection, it was urged, that to bring such a man as Arnold to justice—loaded with guilt as he was—and to save Andre—so young—so accomplished—so beloved—to achieve so much good in the cause of his country—was more than sufficient to balance a wrong, existing only in appearance.

The objections of Champe were at length surmounted, and he accepted the service. It was now eleven o'clock at night. With his instructions in his pocket, the serjeant returned to camp, and, taking his cloak, valise, and orderly book, drew his horse from the picket and mounted, putting himself upon fortune.

Scarcely had half an hour elapsed, before Capt. Carnes, the officer of the day, waited upon Lee, who was vainly attempting to rest, and informed him, that one of the patrol had fallen in with a dragoon, who, being challenged, put spurs to his horse and escaped. Lee, hoping to conceal the flight of Champe, or at least to delay pursuit, complained of fatigue, and told the captain that the patrol had probably mistaken a countryman for a dragoon. Carnes, however, was not thus to be quieted; and he withdrew to assemble his corps. On examination, it was found that Champe was

absent. The captain now returned, and acquainted Lee with the discovery, adding, that he had detached a party to pursue the deserter, and begged the major's written orders.

After making as much delay as practicable, without exciting suspicion, Lee delivers his orders—in which he directed the party to take Champe if possible. "Bring him alive," said he, "that he may suffer in the presence of the army; but kill him if he resists, or if he escapes after being taken."

A shower of rain fell soon after Champe's departure, which enabled the pursuing dragoons to take the trail of his horse, his shoes, in common with those of the horses of the army, being made in a peculiar form, and each having a private mark, which was to be seen in the path.

Middleton, the leader of the pursuing party, left the camp a few minutes past twelve, so that Champe had the start of but little more than an hour—a period by far shorter than had been contemplated. During the night, the dragoons were often delayed in the necessary halts to examine the road; but, on the coming of morning, the impression of the horse's shoes was so apparent, that they pressed on with rapidity. Some miles above Bergen, a village three miles north of New-York, on the opposite side of the Hudson, on ascending a hill, Champe was descried, not more than half a mile distant. Fortunately, Champe descried his pursuers at the same moment, and, conjecturing their object, put spurs to his horse, with the hope of escape.

By taking a different road, Champe was, for a time, lost sight of—but, on approaching the river, he was again descried. Aware of his danger, he now lashed his valise, containing his clothes and orderly book, to his shoulders, and prepared himself to plunge into the river, if necessary.

Swift was his flight, and swift the pursuit. Middleton and his party were within a few hundred yards, when Champe threw himself from his horse and plunged into the river, calling aloud upon some British galleys, at no great distance, for help. A boat was instantly despatched to the sergeant's assistance, and a fire commenced upon the pursuers. Champe was taken on board, and soon after carried to New-York, with a letter from the captain of the galley, stating the past scene, all of which he had witnessed.

The pursuers having recovered the sergeant's horse and cloak, returned to camp, where they arrived about three o'clock the next day. On their appearance with the well

known horse, the soldiers made the air resound with the acclamations that the scoundrel was killed. The agony of Lee, for a moment, was past description, lest the faithful, honorable, intrepid Champe, had fallen. But the truth soon relieved his fears, and he repaired to Washington to impart to him the success, thus far, of his plan.

Soon after the arrival of Champe in New-York, he was sent to Sir Henry Clinton, who treated him kindly, but detained him more than an hour in asking him questions, to answer some of which, without exciting suspicion, required all the art the sergeant was master of. He succeeded, however, and Sir Henry gave him a couple of guineas, and recommended him to Arnold, who was wishing to procure American recruits. Arnold received him kindly, and proposed to him to join his legion; Champe, however, expressed his wish to retire from war; but assured the general, that if he should change his mind, he would enlist.

Champe found means to communicate to Lee an account of his adventures; but, unfortunately, he could not succeed in taking Arnold, as was wished, before the execution of Andre. Ten days before Champe brought his project to a conclusion, Lee received from him his final communication, appointing the third subsequent night for a party of dragoons to meet him at Hoboken, opposite New-York, when he hoped to deliver Arnold to the officers.

Champe had enlisted into Arnold's legion, from which time he had every opportunity he could wish, to attend to the habits of the general. He discovered that it was his custom to return home about twelve every night, and that, previously to going to bed, he always visited the garden. During this visit, the conspirators were to seize him, and, being prepared with a gag, they were to apply the same instantly.

Adjoining the house in which Arnold resided, and in which it was designed to seize and gag him, Champe had taken off several of the palings and replaced them, so that with ease, and without noise, he could readily open his way to the adjoining alley. Into this alley he intended to convey his prisoner, aided by his companion, one of two associates, who had been introduced by the friend, to whom Champe had been originally made known by letter from the commander in chief, and with whose aid and counsel, he had so far conducted the enterprise. His other associate was, with the boat, prepared at one of the wharves on the Hudson river, to receive the party.

Champe and his friend intended to place themselves each under Arnold's shoulder, and thus to bear him through the most unfrequented alleys and streets to the boat, representing Arnold, in case of being questioned, as a drunken soldier, whom they were conveying to the guard-house.

When arrived at the boat, the difficulties would be all surmounted, there being no danger nor obstacle in passing to the Jersey shore. These particulars, as soon as made known to Lee, were communicated to the commander in chief, who was highly gratified with the much desired intelligence. He desired Major Lee to meet Champe, and to take care that Arnold should not be hurt.

The day arrived, and Lee, with a party of accoutered horses, (one for Arnold, one for the sergeant, and the third for his associate, who was to assist in securing Arnold,) left the camp, never doubting the success of the enterprise, from the tenor of the last received communication. The party reached Hoboken about midnight, where they were concealed in the adjoining wood—Lee, with three dragoons, stationing himself near the shore of the river.—Hour after hour passed, but no boat approached.

At length the day broke, and the major retired to his party, and, with his led horses, returned to the camp, where he proceeded to head quarters to inform the general of the much lamented disappointment, as mortifying, as inexplicable. Washington, having perused Champe's plan and communication, had indulged the presumption, that, at length, the object of his keen and constant pursuit was sure of execution, and did not dissemble the joy which such a conviction produced. He was chagrined at the issue, and apprehended that his faithful sergeant must have been detected in the last scene of his tedious and difficult enterprise.

In a few days, Lee received an anonymous letter from Champe's patron and friend, informing him, that on the day preceding the night fixed for the execution of the plot, Arnold had removed his quarters to another part of the town, to superintend the embarkation of troops, preparing, as was rumored, for an expedition to be directed by himself; and that the American legion, consisting chiefly of American deserters, had been transferred from their barracks to one of the transports, it being apprehended that if left on shore, until the expedition was ready, many of them might desert.

Thus it happened that John Champe, instead of crossing the Hudson that night, was safely deposited on board one

of the fleet of transports, from whence he never departed, until the troops under Arnold landed in Virginia. Nor was he able to escape from the British army, until after the junction of Lord Cornwallis at Petersburg, when he deserted; and, proceeding high up into Virginia, he passed into North Carolina, near the Saura towns, and, keeping in the friendly districts of that state, safely joined the army soon after it had passed the Congaree, in pursuit of Lord Rawdon.

His appearance excited extreme surprise among his former comrades, which was not a little increased, when they saw the cordial reception he met with from the late major, now Lieutenant Col. Lee. His whole story was soon known to the corps, which reproduced the love and respect of officers and soldiers, heretofore invariably entertained for the sergeant, heightened by universal admiration of his late daring and arduous attempt.

Champe was introduced to Gen. Greene, who very cheerfully complied with the promise made by the commander in chief, so far as in his power; and, having provided the sergeant with a good horse and money for his journey, sent him to Gen. Washington, who munificently anticipated every desire of the sergeant, and presented him with a discharge from further service, lest he might, in the vicissitudes of war, fall into the hands of the enemy, when, if recognized, he was sure to die on a gibbet.

We shall only add, respecting the after life of this interesting adventurer, that when Gen. Washington was called by President Adams, in 1798, to the command of the army, prepared to defend the country against French hostility, he sent to Lieutenant Col. Lee, to inquire for Champe, being determined to bring him into the field at the head of a company of infantry. Lee sent to Loudon county, Virginia, where Champe settled after his discharge from the army; when he learned, that the gallant soldier had removed to Kentucky, where he soon after died.*

Sec. 82. The year 1781 opened with an event extremely afflicting to General Washington, and which, for a time, seriously endangered the American army. This was the revolt of the whole Pennsylvania line of troops, at Morristown, to the number of one thousand three hundred. The

* Lee's Memoirs.

cause of this mutiny was want of pay, clothing, and provisions. Upon examination of the grievances of the troops, by a committee from congress, their complaints were considered to be founded in justice. Upon their being redressed, the troops, whose time of service had expired, returned home, and the rest cheerfully repaired again to camp.

Gen. Wayne, who commanded these troops, and who was greatly respected by them, used every exertion to quiet them, but in vain. In the ardor of remonstrance with them, he cocked his pistol, and turned towards them. Instantly, an hundred bayonets were directed towards him, and the men cried out, "we love you, we respect you; but you are a dead man, if you fire. Do not mistake us; we are not going to the enemy. On the contrary, were they now to come out, you should see us fight under your orders, with as much resolution and alacrity as ever."

Leaving the camp, the mutineers proceeded in a body to Princeton. Thither, Sir Henry Clinton, who had heard of the revolt, sent agents to induce them to come over to the British, with the promise of large rewards.

But these soldiers loved their country's cause too well to listen to proposals so reproachful. They were suffering privations which could no longer be sustained; but they spurned, with disdain, the offer of the enemy. They also seized the agents of the British, and nobly delivered them up to Gen. Wayne to be treated as spies.

Sec. 83. In the midst of these troubles, arising from discontents of the troops, news arrived of great depredations in Virginia, by Arnold, who had left New-York for the south, with one thousand six hundred men, and a number of armed vessels. Extensive outrages were committed by these troops in that part of the country. Large quantities of tobacco, salt, rum, &c., were destroyed. In this manner did Arnold show the change of spirit which had taken place in his breast, and his fidelity to his new engagements.

Upon receiving news of these depredations, at the request of General Washington, a French squadron, from Rhode Island, was sent to cut off Arnold's retreat. Ten of his vessels were destroyed, and a forty-four gun ship was captured. Shortly after this, an engagement took place off the Capes of Virginia, between the French and English squadrons, which terminated so far to the advantage of the English, that Arnold was saved from imminent danger of falling into the hands of his exasperated countrymen.

Sec. 84. After the unfortunate battle at Camden, August 16th, 1780, congress thought proper to remove Gen. Gates, and to appoint Gen. Greene in his place. In December, 1780, Greene assumed the command. The army at this time was reduced to two thousand men, more than half of whom were militia, and all were miserably fed and clothed.

With this force, Gen. Greene took the field, against a superior regular force, flushed with successive victories through a whole campaign. Soon after taking the command, he divided his force, and, with one part, sent Gen. Morgan to the western extremity of South Carolina.

At this time, Lord Cornwallis was nearly prepared to invade North Carolina. Unwilling to leave such an enemy as Morgan in the rear, he dispatched Col. Tarleton to engage Gen. Morgan, and "to push him to the utmost."

Sec. 85. January 17th, 1781, these two detachments met, when was fought the spirited battle of the Cowpens, in which the American arms signally triumphed.

In this memorable battle, the British lost upwards of one hundred killed, among whom were ten commissioned officers, and two hundred wounded. More than five hundred



Escape of Sergeant Champe. P. 295.



Murder of Col. Ledyard. P. 310.



prisoners fell into the hands of the Americans, besides two pieces of artillery, twelve standards, eight hundred muskets, thirty-five baggage wagons, and one hundred dragoon horses; the loss of the Americans was no more than twelve killed, and sixty wounded.

The victory of the Cowpens must be reckoned as one of the most brilliant achieved during the revolutionary war. The force of Morgan hardly amounted to five hundred, while that of his adversary exceeded one thousand. Morgan's brigade were principally militia, while Tarleton commanded the flower of the British army.

Sec. 86. Upon receiving the intelligence of Tarleton's defeat, Cornwallis abandoned the invasion of North Carolina for the present, and marched in pursuit of Gen. Morgan.

Greene, suspecting his intentions, hastened with his army to join Morgan. This junction was at length effected, at Guilford Court-House, after a fatiguing march, in which Cornwallis nearly overtook him, and was prevented only by the obstruction of a river.

After his junction with Morgan, Gen. Greene, with his troops and baggage, crossed the river Dan, and entered Virginia, again narrowly escaping the British, who were in close pursuit.

Sec. 87. Satisfied with having driven Greene from North Carolina, Cornwallis retired to Hillsborough, where, erecting the royal standard, he issued his proclamation, inviting the loyalists to join him. Many accepted his invitation. At the same time, he dispatched Tarleton, with four hundred and fifty men, to secure the countenance of a body of loyalists, collected between the Hawe and Deep rivers.

Sec. 88. Apprehensive of Tarleton's success, Gen. Greene, on the 18th of February, recrossed the Dan into Carolina, and dispatched Generals Pickens and Lee to watch the movements of the

enemy. These officers were unable to bring Tarleton to an engagement. General Greene, having now received a reinforcement, making his army four thousand five hundred strong, concentrated his forces, and directed his march towards Guilford Court-House, whither Lord Cornwallis had retired.

Here, on the 8th of March, a general engagement took place, in which victory, after alternately passing to the banners of each army, finally decided in favor of the British.

The British loss, in this battle, exceeded five hundred in killed and wounded, among whom were several of the most distinguished officers. The American loss was about four hundred, in killed and wounded, of which more than three fourths fell upon the continentals. Though the numerical force of Gen. Greene nearly doubled that of Cornwallis, yet, when we consider the difference between these forces, the shameful conduct of the North Carolina militia, who fled at the first fire, the desertion of the second Maryland regiment, and that a body of reserve was not brought into action, it will appear, that our numbers, actually engaged, but little exceeded that of the enemy.

Sec. 89. Notwithstanding the issue of the above battle, Gen. Greene took the bold resolution of leading back his forces to South Carolina, and of attacking the enemy's strong post at Camden, in that state. Accordingly, on the 9th of April, he put his troops in motion, and on the 20th, encamped at Logtown, within sight of the enemies' works. Lord Rawdon, at this time, held the command at Camden, and had a force of only nine hundred men. The army of General Greene—a detachment having been made for another expedition under Gen. Lee—amounted scarcely to twelve hundred men of all classes.

On the 25th, Lord Rawdon drew out his forces, and the two armies engaged. For a season, vic-

tory seemed inclined to the Americans, but, in the issue, Gen. Greene found himself obliged to retreat.

The American loss, in killed, wounded, and missing, was two hundred and sixty-eight; the English loss was nearly equal. The failure of the victory, in this battle, was not attributable, as in some cases, to the flight of the militia, when danger had scarcely begun; but General Greene experienced the mortification of seeing a regiment of veterans give way to an inferior force, when every circumstance was in their favor—the very regiment, too, which, at the battle of the Cowpens, behaved with such heroic bravery.

Sec. 90. Although the British arms gained the victory of Camden, the result of the whole was favorable to the American cause. Gen. Lee, with a detachment dispatched for that purpose, while Greene was marching against Camden, took possession of an important post at Mottes, near the confluence of the Congaree and Santee rivers. This auspicious event was followed by the evacuation of Camden by Lord Rawdon, and of the whole line of British posts, with the exception of Ninety-Six and Charleston.

Sec. 91. Ninety-Six, one hundred and forty-seven miles northwest from Charleston, was garrisoned by five hundred and sixty men. Against this post, after the battle of Camden, Gen. Greene took up his march, and, on the 22d of May, sat down before it. Soon after the siege of it had been commenced, intelligence arrived that Lord Rawdon had been reinforced by troops from Ireland, and was on his march, with two thousand men, for its relief. Greene now determined upon an assault, but in this he failed, with a loss of one hundred and fifty men.

Soon after his arrival at Ninety-Six, Lord Rawdon deemed it expedient to evacuate this post. Retiring himself to Charleston, his army en-

camped at the Eutaw Springs, forty miles from Charleston.

Sec. 92. Gen. Greene, having retired to the high hills of Santee, to spend the hot and sickly season, in September approached the enemy at the Eutaw Springs. On the morning of the 8th, he advanced upon him, and the battle between the two armies became general. The contest was sustained with equal bravery on both sides; victory seemed to decide in favor of neither.

The British lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about one thousand one hundred. The loss of the Americans was five hundred and fifty-five.

Sec. 93. The battle of the Eutaw Springs was the last general action that took place in South Carolina, and nearly finished the war in that quarter. The enemy now retired to Charleston.

Thus closed the campaign of 1781, in South Carolina. Few commanders have ever had greater difficulties to encounter than Gen. Greene; and few have ever, with the same means, accomplished so much. Though never so decisively victorious, yet the battles which he fought, either from necessity or choice, were always so well managed as to result to his advantage.

Not unmindful of his eminent services, congress presented him with a British standard, and a gold medal, emblematical of the action at the Eutaw Springs, which restored a sister state to the American union.

Sec. 94. After the battle of Guilford, between Greene and Cornwallis, noticed above, the latter, leaving South Carolina in charge of Lord Rawdon, commenced his march towards Petersburg, in Virginia, where he arrived on the 20th of May. Having received several reinforcements, he found himself with an army of eight thousand, and indulged the pleasing anticipations that Virginia would soon be made to yield to his arms.

Early in the spring, Gen. Washington had detached the Marquis de Lafayette, with three thousand men, to co-operate with the French fleet, in Virginia, in the capture of Arnold, who was committing depredations in that state. On the failure of this expedition, Lafayette marched back as far as the head of Elk river. Here he received orders to return to Virginia, to oppose the British. On his return, hearing of the advance of Cornwallis towards Petersburg, twenty miles below Richmond, he hastened his march to prevent, if possible, the junction of Cornwallis, with a reinforcement, under General Phillips. In this, however, he failed.

The junction being effected at Petersburg, Cornwallis moved towards James' river, which he crossed, with the intention of forcing the marquis to a battle.

Prudence forbid the marquis risking an engagement, with an enemy of more than twice his force. He therefore retreated, and, notwithstanding the uncommon efforts of his lordship to prevent it, he effected a junction with General Wayne, who had been dispatched by Washington, with eight hundred Pennsylvania militia, to his assistance. After this reinforcement, the disproportion between himself and his adversary was still too great to permit him to think of battle. He continued his retreat, therefore, displaying, in all his manoeuvres, the highest prudence.

Sec. 95. While these things were transpiring in Virginia, matters of high moment seemed to be in agitation in the north, which, not long after, were fully developed.

Early in May, 1781, a plan of the whole cam-

paign had been arranged by Gen. Washington, in consultation, at Wethersfield, Connecticut, with Generals Knox and Du Portail, on the part of the Americans, and Count de Rochambeau, on the part of France. The grand project of the season was to lay siege to New-York, in concert with a French fleet, expected on the coast in August.

In the prosecution of this plan, the French troops were marched from Rhode Island, and joined Gen. Washington, who had concentrated his forces at Kingsbridge, fifteen miles above New-York. All things were preparing for a vigorous siege, and, towards this strongest hold of the enemy, the eyes of all were intently directed.

In this posture of things, letters addressed to Gen. Washington, informed him that the expected French fleet, under the Count de Grasse, would soon arrive in the Chesapeake, and that this, instead of New-York, was the place of its destination.

Disappointed in not having the co-operation of such a force; disappointed also in not receiving the full quota of militia, which had been ordered from New-England and New-Jersey; and, moreover, learning that Clinton had been reinforced in New-York, by the arrival of three thousand Germans; Washington was induced to change the plan of operations, and to direct his attention to Cornwallis, who, from pursuing the Marquis de Lafayette, had retired to Yorktown, near the mouth of York river, and had fortified that place.

Sec. 96. Having decided upon this measure, on the 19th of July he drew off his forces, and

commenced his march, at the same time strongly impressing Clinton, by every art in his power, that an attack would soon be made upon New-York. So successfully was this deception practised, that Washington was some distance on his way towards Virginia, before Clinton suspected that his object was any other than to draw him from New-York, to fight him in the field, with superior forces.

Having halted at Philadelphia a few days, the army continued its march to the head of Elk river, whence it embarked for Williamsburg, then the head quarters of the Marquis de Lafayette, where it arrived September 25th.

Gen. Washington and Count de Rochambeau preceded the troops ten days, and, to their great joy, found that the Count de Grasse had entered the Capes on the 30th of the preceding month, with twenty-eight sail, and three thousand troops.

On the arrival of these two generals at Williamsburg, a vessel was in readiness to convey them on board the *Ville de Paris*, the flag-ship of the Count de Grasse, where a council was held, to determine on future operations.

Sec. 97. These things being settled, the combined armies, amounting to twelve thousand men, moved upon Yorktown and Gloucester, September 30th, and the Count de Grasse, with his fleet, proceeded up to the mouth of York river, to prevent Cornwallis either from retreating, or receiving assistance.

Yorktown is a small village on the south side of York river, whose southern banks are high, and in whose waters a ship of the line may ride in safety. Gloucester Point is a piece of land on the opposite shore, projecting far into the river. Both these posts were occupied by Cornwallis—

the main body of the army being at York, under the immediate command of his lordship, and a detachment of six hundred at Gloucester Point, under Lieut. Col. Tarleton.

On the 6th of October, Washington's heavy ordnance, &c., arrived, and the siege was commenced in form. Seldom, if ever, during the revolutionary struggle, did the American commander in chief, or his troops, appear before the enemy with more cool determination, or pursue him with more persevering ardor, than at the siege of Yorktown. With the fall of Cornwallis, it was perceived that the hopes of Great Britain, successfully to maintain the contest, must nearly expire; with this in prospect, there was no wavering of purpose, and no intermission of toil.

On the 19th of October, the memorable victory over Cornwallis was achieved, and his whole army was surrendered, amounting to more than seven thousand prisoners of war, together with a park of artillery of one hundred and sixty pieces, the greater part of which were brass.

Articles of capitulation being mutually signed and ratified, Gen. Lincoln was appointed, by the commander in chief, to receive the submission of the royal army, in the same manner in which, eighteen months before, Cornwallis had received that of the Americans at Charleston.

The spectacle is represented as having been impressive and affecting. The road through which the captive army marched was lined with spectators, French and American. On one side the commander in chief, surrounded with his suite, and the American staff, took his station; on the other side, opposite to him, was the Count de Rochambeau, in the like manner attended.

The captive army approached, moving slowly in column, with grace and precision. Universal silence was observed amidst the vast concourse, and the utmost decency prevailed; exhibiting an awful sense of the vicissitudes of human life, mingled with commiseration for the unhappy.

Every eye was now turned, searching for the British

commander in chief, anxious to look at the man, heretofore so much the object of their dread. All were disappointed. Cornwallis, unable to bear up against the humiliation of marching at the head of his garrison, constituted General O'Hara his representative, on the occasion.

The post of Gloucester, falling with that of York, was delivered up the same day, by Lieut. Col. Tarleton.

At the termination of the siege, the besieging army amounted to sixteen thousand. The British force was put down at seven thousand one hundred and seven, of which only four thousand and seven rank and file are stated to have been fit for duty.

Sec. 98. Five days after the surrender of Cornwallis, Sir Henry Clinton made his appearance off the Capes of Virginia, with a reinforcement of seven thousand men; but, receiving intelligence of his lordship's fate, he returned to New-York.

Cornwallis, in his dispatches to Sir Henry, more than hinted that his fall had been produced by a too firm reliance on promises, that no pains were taken to fulfil. Clinton had promised Cornwallis that this auxiliary force should leave New-York on the 5th of October, but, for reasons never explained, it did not sail until the 19th, the very day that decided the fate of the army.

Sec. 99. Nothing could exceed the joy of the American people, at this great and important victory over Lord Cornwallis. Exultation broke forth from one extremity of the country to the other. The remembrance of the past gave place in all minds to the most brilliant hopes. It was confidently anticipated, that the affair of Yorktown would rapidly hasten the acknowledgment of American independence—an event for which the people had been toiling and bleeding through so many campaigns.

In all parts of the United States, solemn festivals and rejoicings celebrated the triumph of American fortune. The names of Washington, Rochambeau, De Grasse, and Lafayette, resounded every where. To the unanimous ac-

claim of the people, congress joined the authority of its resolves. It addressed thanks to the generals, officers, and soldiers—presented British colors—ordered the erection of a marble column—and went into procession to church, to render public thanksgiving to God for the recent victory. The 30th of December was appointed as a day of national thanksgiving.

Sec. 100. While the combined armies were advancing to the siege of Yorktown, an excursion was made from New-York, by Gen. Arnold, against New-London, in his *native state*. The object of this expedition seems to have been, to draw away a part of the American forces; Sir Henry Clinton knowing but too well, that if they were left at liberty to push the siege of Yorktown, the blockaded army must inevitably surrender.

This expedition was signalized by the greatest atrocities. Fort Trumbull, on the west, and Fort Griswold, on the east side of the river Thames, below New-London, were taken, and the greater part of that town was burnt.

At Fort Trumbull, little or no resistance was made; but Fort Griswold was defended, for a time, with great bravery and resolution. After the fort was carried, a British officer entering, inquired who commanded. Col. Ledyard answered, "I did, but you do now"—at the same time presenting his sword. The officer immediately plunged the sword into his bosom. A general massacre now took place, as well of those who surrendered as of those who resisted, which continued until nearly all the garrison were either killed or wounded. Sixty dwelling houses, and eighty-four stores, in New-London, were reduced to ashes.

Sec. 101. The fall of Cornwallis may be considered as substantially closing the war. A few posts of importance were still held by the British—New-York, Charleston, and Savannah—but all other parts of the country, which they had possessed, were recovered into the power of con-

gress. A few skirmishes alone indicated the continuance of war.

A part of the French army, soon after the capture of Cornwallis, re-embarked, and Count de Grasse sailed for the West Indies. Count Rochambeau cantoned his army for the winter, 1782, in Virginia, and the main body of the Americans returned, by the way of the Chesapeake, to their former position on the Hudson.

Sec. 102. From the 12th of December, 1781, to the 4th of March, 1782, motion after motion was made in the British parliament, for putting an end to the war in America. On this latter day, the commons resolved, "that the house would consider as enemies to his majesty, and to the country, all those who should advise, or attempt, the farther prosecution of offensive war, on the continent of North America."

Sec. 103. On the same day, the command of his majesty's forces in America was taken from Sir Henry Clinton, and given to Sir Guy Carleton, who was instructed to promote the wishes of Great Britain, for an accommodation with the United States.

In accordance with these instructions, Sir Guy Carleton endeavored to open a correspondence with congress, and with this view sent to Gen. Washington to solicit a passport for his secretary. But this was refused, since congress would enter into no negotiations but in concert with his most Christian Majesty.

Sec. 104. The French court, on receiving intelligence of the surrender of Cornwallis, pressed upon congress the appointment of commissioners for negotiating peace with Great Britain. Accordingly, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John

Jay, and Henry Laurens, were appointed. These commissioners met Mr. Fitzherbert and Mr. Oswald, on the part of Great Britain, at Paris, and provisional articles of peace between the two countries were signed, November 30th, 1782. The definitive treaty was signed on the 30th of September, 1783.

Although the definitive treaty was not signed until September, there had been no act of hostility between the two armies, and a state of peace had actually existed from the commencement of the year 1783. A formal proclamation of the cessation of hostilities was made through the army on the 19th of April, Savannah was evacuated in July, New-York in November, and Charleston in the following month.

Sec. 105. The third of November was fixed upon by congress, for disbanding the army of the United States. On the day previous, Washington issued his farewell orders, and bid an affectionate adieu to the soldiers, who had fought and bled by his side.

After mentioning the trying times through which he had passed, and the unexampled patience which, under every circumstance of suffering, his army had evinced, he passed to the glorious prospects opening before them and their country—and then bade them adieu in the following words: “Being now to conclude these his last public orders, to take his ultimate leave in a short time of the military character, and to bid a final adieu to the armies he has so long had the honor to command, he can only again offer in their behalf, his recommendations to their grateful country, and his prayer to the God of armies.

“May ample justice be done them here, and may the choicest favor, both here and hereafter, attend those, who, under the divine auspices, have secured innumerable blessings for others! With these wishes, and this benediction, the commander in chief is about to retire from service. The

curtain of separation will soon be drawn, and the military scene to him will be closed for ever."

Sec. 106. Soon after taking leave of the army, Gen. Washington was called to the still more painful hour of separation from his officers, greatly endeared to him by a long series of common sufferings and dangers.

The officers having previously assembled in New-York for the purpose, General Washington now joined them, and calling for a glass of wine, thus addressed them: "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take my leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy, as your former ones have been glorious and honorable."

Having thus affectionately addressed them, he now took each by the hand and bade him farewell. Followed by them to the side of the Hudson, he entered a barge, and, while tears rolled down his cheeks, he turned towards the companions of his glory, and bade them a silent adieu.

Sec. 107. December 23, Washington appeared in the hall of congress, and resigned to them the commission which they had given him, as commander in chief of the armies of the United States.

After having spoken of the accomplishment of his wishes and exertions, in the independence of his country, and commended his officers and soldiers to congress, he concluded as follows:

"I consider it an indispensable duty to close the last solemn act of my official life, by commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, and those who have the superintendence of them to his holy keeping.

"Having now finished the work assigned me, I retire from the great theatre of action; and, bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body, under whose orders I have long acted, I here offer my commission, and take my leave of all the employments of public life."

Sec. 108. Upon accepting his commission, congress, through their president, expressed in glowing language to Washington, their high sense of

his wisdom and energy, in conducting the war to so happy a termination, and invoked the choicest blessings upon his future life.

President Mifflin concluded as follows: "We join you in commending the interest of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, beseeching HIM to dispose the hearts and minds of its citizens to improve the opportunity afforded them of becoming a happy and respectable nation. And for YOU, we address to HIM our earnest prayers, that a life so beloved, may be fostered with all HIS care; that your days may be as happy as they have been illustrious; and that HE will finally give you that reward which this world cannot give."

A profound silence now pervaded the assembly. The grandeur of the scene, the recollection of the past, the felicity of the present, and the hopes of the future, crowded fast upon all, while they united in invoking blessings upon the man, who, under God, had achieved so much, and who now, in the character of a mere *citizen*, was hastening to a long desired repose at his seat, at Mount Vernon, in Virginia.

NOTES.

Sec. 109. MANNERS. At the commencement of the revolution, the colonists of America were a mass of husbandmen, merchants, mechanics, and fishermen, who were occupied in the ordinary avocations of their respective callings, and were entitled to the appellation of a sober, honest, and industrious set of people. Being, however, under the control of a country, whose jealousies were early and strongly enlisted against them, and which, therefore, was eager to repress every attempt, on their part, to rise, they had comparatively little scope or encouragement for exertion and enterprise.

But, when the struggle for independence be-

gan, the case was altered. New fields for exertion were opened, and new and still stronger impulses actuated their bosoms. A great change was suddenly wrought in the American people, and a vast expansion of character took place. Those who were before only known in the humble sphere of peaceful occupation, soon shone forth in the cabinet or in the field, fully qualified to cope with the trained generals and statesmen of Europe.

But, although the revolution caused such an expansion of character in the American people, and called forth the most striking patriotism among all classes, it introduced, at the same time, greater looseness of manners and morals. An army always carries deep vices in its train, and communicates its corruption to society around it. Besides this, the failure of public credit so far put it out of the power of individuals to perform private engagements, that the breach of them became common, and, at length, was scarcely disgraceful. That high sense of integrity, which had extensively existed before, was thus exchanged for more loose and slippery notions of honesty and honor.

On the whole, says Dr. Ramsay, who wrote soon after the close of this period, "the literary, political, and military talents of the United States, have been improved by the revolution, but their *moral character* is inferior to what it formerly was. So great is the change for the worse," continues he, "that the friends of public order are loudly called upon to exert their utmost abilities, in extirpating the vicious principles and habits which have taken deep root during the late convulsions."

Sec. 110. RELIGION. During the revolution, the colonies being all united in one cause—a congress being assembled from all parts of Ame-

rica—and more frequent intercourse between different parts of the country being promoted by the shifting of the armies—local prejudices and sectarian asperities were obliterated; religious controversy was suspended; and bigotry softened. That spirit of intolerance, which had marked some portions of the country, was nearly done away.

But, for these advantages, the revolution brought with it great disadvantages to religion in general. The atheistical philosophy, which had been spread over France, and which would involve the whole subject of religion in the gloomy mists of scepticism—which acknowledges no distinction between right and wrong, and considers a future existence as a dream, that may or may not be realized—was thickly sown in the American army, by the French; and, uniting with the infidelity, which before had taken root in the country, produced a serious declension in the tone of religious feelings, among the American people.

In addition to this, religious institutions, during the war, were much neglected; churches were demolished, or converted into barracks; public worship was often suspended; and the clergy suffered severely, from the reduction of their salaries, caused by the depreciation of the circulating medium.

Sec. 111. TRADE AND COMMERCE. During the war of the revolution, the commerce of the United States was interrupted, not only with Great Britain, but, in a great measure, with the rest of the world. The greater part of the shipping, belonging to the country, was destroyed by the enemy, or perished by a natural process of decay.

Our coasts were so lined with British cruisers, as to ren-

der navigation too hazardous to be pursued to any considerable extent. Some privateers, however, were fitted out, which succeeded in capturing several valuable prizes, on board of which were arms, and other munitions of war. During the last three years of the war, an illicit trade to Spanish America was carried on, but it was extremely limited.

Sec. 112. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture was greatly interrupted during this period, by the withdrawing of laborers to the camp—by the want of encouragement furnished by exportation, and by the distractions which disturbed all the occupations of society.

The army often suffered for the means of subsistence, and the officers were sometimes forced to compel the inhabitants to furnish the soldiers food, in sufficient quantities to prevent their suffering.

Sec. 113. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. The trade with England, during this period, being interrupted by the war, the people of the United States were compelled to manufacture for themselves. Encouragement was given to all necessary manufactures, and the zeal, ingenuity, and industry of the people, furnished the country with articles of prime necessity, and, in a measure, supplied the place of a foreign market. Such was the progress in arts and manufactures, during the period, that, after the return of peace, when an uninterrupted intercourse with England was again opened, some articles, which before were imported altogether, were found so well and so abundantly manufactured at home, that their importation was stopped.

Sec. 114. POPULATION. The increase of the people of the United States, during this period, was small. Few, if any, emigrants arrived in the country. Many of the inhabitants were slain in battle, and thousands of that class call-

ed *tories*, left the land, who never returned. Perhaps we may fairly estimate the inhabitants of the country, about the close of this period, 1784, at three millions two hundred and fifty thousand.

Sec. 115. EDUCATION. The interests of education suffered in common with other kindred interests, during the war. In several colleges, the course of instruction was, for a season, suspended; the hall was exchanged by the students for the camp, and the gown for the sword and epaulet.

Towards the conclusion of the war, two colleges were founded—one in Maryland, in 1782, by the name of Washington college; the other, in 1783, in Pennsylvania, which received the name of Dickinson college. The writer, whom we have quoted above, estimates the whole number of colleges and academies in the United States, at the close of this period, at thirty-six.

REFLECTIONS.

Sec. 116. The American revolution is doubtless the most interesting event in the pages of modern history. Changes equally great, and convulsions equally violent, have often taken place; and the history of man tells us of many instances, in which oppression, urged beyond endurance, has called forth the spirit of successful and triumphant resistance. But, in the event before us, we see feeble colonies, without an army—without a navy—without an established government—without a revenue—without munitions of war—without fortifications—boldly stepping forth to meet the veteran armies of a proud, powerful, and vindictive enemy. We see these colonies, amidst want, poverty, and misfortune—supported by the pervading spirit of liberty, and guided by the good hand of Heaven—for nearly eight years sustaining the weight of a cruel conflict, upon their own soil. We see them at length victorious; their enemies sullenly retire from their shores, and these humble colonies stand forth enrolled on the page of history—a free, sovereign, and independent nation. Nor is this all. We see a wise government springing up from the blood that

was spilt, and, down to our own time, shedding the choicest political blessings upon several millions of people!

What nation can dwell with more just satisfaction upon its annals, than ours? Almost all others trace their foundation to some ambitious and bloody conqueror, who sought only, by enslaving others, to aggrandize himself. Our independence was *won by the people*, who fought for the natural rights of man. Other nations have left their annals stained with the crimes of their people and princes; ours shines with the glowing traces of patriotism, constancy, and courage, amidst every rank of life, and every grade of office.

Whenever we advert to this portion of our history, and review it, as we well may with patriotic interest, let us not forget the gratitude we owe, as well to those who "fought, and bled, and died" for us, as to that benignant Providence, who stayed the proud waves of British tyranny.

Let us also gather political wisdom from the American revolution. It has taught the world, emphatically, that oppression tends to weaken and destroy the power of the oppressor; that a people united in the cause of liberty are invincible by those who would enslave them; and that Heaven will ever frown upon the cause of injustice, and ultimately grant success to those who oppose it.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD VI.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE FORMATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

Extending from the disbanding of the army, 1783, to the inauguration of George Washington, as president of the United States, under the Federal Constitution, 1789.

Sec. 1. During the war of the revolution, the American people had been looking forward to a state of peace, independence, and self-government, as almost necessarily ensuring every possible blessing. A short time after its termination, however, it was apparent that something, not yet possessed, was necessary, to realize the private and public prosperity that had been anticipated. After a short struggle so to administer the existing system of government, as to make it competent to the great objects, for which it was instituted, became obvious it that some other system must be substituted, or a general wreck of all that had been gained would ensue.

Sec. 2. At the close of the war, the debts* of

* These debts were of two kinds, foreign and domestic. The foreign debt amounted to near eight millions of dollars, and was due to individuals in France—to the crown of France—to lenders in Holland and Spain. The domestic debt amounted to somewhat more than thirty-four millions of dollars, and was due to persons who held loan office certificates to the officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army, &c.

the union were computed to amount to more than forty millions of dollars. By the articles of confederation and union between the states, congress had power to declare war, and borrow money, or issue bills of credit to carry it on; but it had not the ability to discharge debts, incurred by the war. Congress could recommend to the individual states to raise money for that purpose, but at this point, its power terminated.

Soon after the war, the attention of that body was drawn to this subject; the payment of the national debt being a matter of justice to creditors, as well as of vital importance to the preservation of the union. It was proposed, therefore, to the states, that they should grant to congress the power of laying a duty of five per cent. on all foreign goods, which should be imported, and that the revenue arising thence should be applied to the diminution of the public debt, until it was extinguished.

To this proposal, most of the states assented, and passed an act granting, the power. But Rhode Island, apprehensive that such a grant would lessen the advantages of her trade, declined passing an act for that purpose. Subsequently, New-York joined in the opposition, and rendered all prospect of raising a revenue, in this way, hopeless.

The consequence was, that even the interest of the public debt remained unpaid. Certificates of public debt lost their credit, and many of the officers and soldiers of the late army, who were poor, were compelled to sell these certificates at excessive reductions.

Sec. 3. While the friends of the national government were making unavailing efforts to fix

upon a permanent revenue, which might enable it to preserve the national faith, other causes, besides the loss of confidence in the confederation, concurred to hasten a radical change in the political system of the United States.

Among these causes, the principal was the evil resulting from the restrictions of Great Britain, laid on the trade of the United States with the West Indies; the ports of those islands being shut against the vessels of the United States, and enormous duties imposed on our most valuable exports.

Had congress possessed the power, a remedy might have been found, in passing similar acts against Great Britain; but this power had not been delegated by the states to the congress. That thirteen independent sovereignties, always jealous of one another, would separately concur in any proper measures to compel Great Britain to relax, was not to be expected. The importance of an enlargement of the powers of congress was thus rendered still more obvious.

Sec. 4. During this enfeebled and disorganized state of the general government, attempts were made, in some of the states, to maintain their credit, and to satisfy their creditors. The attempt of Massachusetts to affect this, by means of a heavy tax, produced an open insurrection among the people. In some parts of the state, the people convened in tumultuous assemblies—obstructed the sitting of courts, and, finally, took arms in opposition to the laws of the state. The prudent measures of Gov. Bowdoin and his council, seconded by an armed force, under Gen. Lincoln, in the winter of 1786, gradually subdued the

spirit of opposition, and restored the authority of the laws.

This rising of the people of Massachusetts is usually styled *Shay's insurrection*, from one Daniel Shays, a captain in the revolutionary army, who headed the insurgents. In August, 1786, fifteen hundred insurgents assembled at Northampton, took possession of the court-house, and prevented the session of the court. Similar outrages occurred at Worcester, Concord, Taunton, and Springfield. In New-Hampshire, also, a body of men arose in September, and surrounding the general assembly, sitting at Exeter, held them prisoners for several hours.

In this state of civil commotion, a body of troops, to the number of four thousand, was ordered out by Massachusetts, to support the judicial courts, and suppress the insurrection. This force was put under the command of General Lincoln. Another body of troops was collected by General Shepherd, near Springfield. After some skirmishing, the insurgents were dispersed; several were taken prisoners and condemned, but were ultimately pardoned.

Sec. 5. The period seemed to have arrived, when it was to be decided whether the general government was to be supported or abandoned—whether the glorious objects of the revolutionary struggle should be realized or lost.

In January, 1786, the legislature of Virginia adopted a resolution to appoint commissioners, who were to meet such others as might be appointed by the other states, to take into consideration the subject of trade, and to provide for a uniform system of commercial relations, &c. This resolution, ultimately, led to a proposition for a general convention to consider the state of the union.

But five states were represented in the convention, proposed by Virginia, which met at Annapolis. In consideration of the small number of states represented, the convention, without coming to any specific resolution on the particu-

lar subjects referred to them, adjourned to meet in Philadelphia, the succeeding May. Previously to adjournment, it recommended to the several states, to appoint delegates for that meeting, and to give them *power to revise the federal system.*

Sec. 6. Agreeably to the above recommendation, the several states of the union, excepting Rhode Island, appointed commissioners, who convened at Philadelphia, and proceeded to the important business of their appointment.

Of this body George Washington, one of the delegates from Virginia, was unanimously elected president. The convention proceeded with closed doors to discuss the interesting subjects submitted to their consideration.

The following is a list of the members of this convention :

New-Hampshire.

John Langdon,
Nicholas Gilman.

Massachusetts.

Elbridge Gerry,
Nathaniel Gorham,
Rufus King,
Caleb Strong.

Connecticut.

Wm. Samuel Johnson,
Roger Sherman,
Oliver Ellsworth.

New-York.

Robert Yates,
Alexander Hamilton,
John Lansing, Jr.

New-Jersey

Wm. Livingston,
David Brearley,
Wm. C. Houston,
Wm. Patterson,
Jonathan Dayton.

Pennsylvania.

Benjamin Franklin,
Thomas Mifflin,
Robert Morris,
George Clymer,
Thomas Fitzsimons,
Jared Ingersol,
James Wilson,
Gouverneur Morris.

Delaware.

George Read,
Gunning Bedford, Jr.
John Dickinson,
Richard Basset,
Jacob Broom.

Maryland.

James M^cHenry,
Daniel of St. Thomas Jeni-
fer,
Daniel Carroll,
John Francis Mercer,
Luther Martin.

Virginia.

George Washington,
Edmund Randolph,
John Blair,
James Madison, Jr.
George Mason,
George Wythe,
James M'Clurg,

North Carolina.

Alexander Martin,
Wm. R. Davie,
Wm. Blount,

Richard D. Spaight,
Hugh Williamson.

South Carolina.

John Rutledge,
Charles C. Pinckney,
Charles Pinckney,
Pierce Butler.

Georgia.

Wm. Few,
Abraham Baldwin,
Wm. Pierce,
Wm. Houston.

“The meeting of this august assembly marks a new era in the political annals of the United States. Men most eminent for talents and wisdom had been selected, and were met to form a system of government for a vast empire. Such an assemblage, for such an object, the world had never before witnessed. The result of their deliberations, on which the happiness of so many millions depended, was looked for with extreme solicitude.

“From the peculiar situation of the states, the difficulties in forming a new system of general government were indeed of no ordinary magnitude. Since the peace of 1783, political and commercial jealousies had arisen among the states; and to these was added a difference in their extent, wealth, and population, as well as in the habits, religion, and education of the inhabitants. These together presented obstacles, apparently insurmountable. Nothing, indeed, but a spirit of mutual concession and compromise could have overcome these obstacles, and effected so fortunate a result.”*

Sec. 7. The first and most important question which presented itself to this convention, was, whether the then present system should be amended, or a new one formed. By the resolve of congress, as well as the instructions of some of the states, they were met “for the sole and express purpose of revising the articles of confederation.” The defects of the old government were so radical and apparent, that it was determined by a majority to form an entire new one.

* Pitkin.

Sec. 8. On the great principles, which should form the basis of the constitution, not much difference of opinion prevailed. But, in reducing those principles to practical details, less harmony was to be expected. Such, indeed, was the difference of opinion, that, more than once, there was reason to fear, that the convention would rise, without effecting the object for which it was formed.

While the convention was nearly unanimous, that the new government should consist of three departments, viz., an executive, legislative, and judicial, there was no small difference of opinion, as to the relative weight of the states in these departments, and the powers with which each department should be invested.

Having decided, that the legislative branch of the government should consist of a house of representatives and a senate, an interesting question arose, as to the votes of the states in these branches. This was a question between the great and small states, and it created long and violent debates, particularly with respect to the representation or vote of the states, in the senate, or second legislative branch. At length, the small states consented that the right of suffrage in the house should be in proportion to the whole number of white or other free citizens in each, including those bound to service for a term of years, and three fifths of all other persons.

But, then, while they yielded this point, they insisted on an equal vote in the senate. But to this the larger states would not agree, and on this question the states remained for a time about equally divided, six states, viz., Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, being of the opinion, that the right of suffrage in the senate should be the same as in the house; while Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, were opposed.

On the 29th of June, the question was a second time brought forward, in the following manner, viz. *That in the second branch each state should have an equal vote.* The debate on this question was extended to the second of July, when the vote was taken, and the motion lost, five states being in favor of it, viz. Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland; and five against it, viz., Mas-

sachusetts, Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina. The vote of Georgia was divided.

The convention had now reached a point beyond which it seemed impossible amicably to proceed. Neither party appeared inclined to recede from the position it had taken, and the great objects for which the convention had assembled, were apparently to be lost.

At this interesting crisis, Dr. Franklin, a member of the convention from Pennsylvania, rose in his place, and thus addressed the president :

“*Mr. President*—The small progress we have made, after four or five weeks close attendance and continual reasonings with each other, our different sentiments, on almost every question, several of the last producing as many *noes* as *ayes*, is, methinks, a melancholy proof of the imperfection of the human understanding. We indeed seem to feel our own want of political wisdom, since we have been running all about in search of it. We have gone back to ancient history for models of government, and examined the different forms of those republics, which, having been originally formed with the seeds of their own dissolution, now no longer exist; and we have viewed modern states all around Europe, but find none of their constitutions suitable to our circumstances. In this situation of this assembly, groping, as it were, in the dark, to find political truth, and scarce able to distinguish it, when presented to us, how has it happened, sir, that we have not hitherto once thought of humbly applying to the *Father of Lights* to illuminate our understandings? In the beginning of the contest with Britain, when we were sensible of danger, we had daily prayer in this room for divine protection. Our prayers, sir, were heard; and they were graciously answered. All of us who were engaged in the struggle, must have observed frequent instances of a superintending Providence in our favor. To that kind Providence we owe this happy opportunity of consulting in peace, on the means of establishing our future national felicity. And have we now forgotten that powerful friend? or do we imagine that we no longer need its assistance? I have lived, sir, a long time; and the longer I live, the more convincing proof I see of this truth, that *God governs the affairs of men*. And if a sparrow cannot fall to the ground without his notice, is it probable that an empire can rise without his aid? We have been assured, sir, in the sacred writings, that except the ‘*Lord build the house, they labor in vain that build it.*’ I firmly believe this; and

I also believe, that without his concurring aid, we shall succeed in this political building no better than the builders of Babel: we shall be divided by our little partial local interests; our projects will be confounded, and we ourselves shall become a reproach and a by-word to future ages. And what is worse, mankind may hereafter, from this important instance, despair of establishing government by human wisdom, and leave it to chance, war, or conquest.

“I therefore beg leave to move, that henceforth prayers, imploring the assistance of Heaven, and its blessings on our deliberations, be held in this assembly every morning before we proceed to business; and that one or more of the clergy of this city be requested to officiate in that service.”

This suggestion, it need scarcely be said, was favorably received by the convention, and from that time the guidance of divine wisdom was daily sought. As might be expected, greater harmony prevailed—the spirit of concession pervaded the convention—a motion was made for the appointment of a committee to take into consideration both branches of the legislature. This motion prevailing, a committee was accordingly chosen by ballot, consisting of one from each state, and the convention adjourned for three days.

On the meeting of the convention, the above committee reported the following propositions:

I. That in the first branch of the legislature each of the states, now in the Union, be allowed one member for every forty thousand inhabitants of the description reported in the seventh resolution of the committee of the whole house—that each state not containing that number shall be allowed one member—that all bills for raising and appropriating money, and for fixing the salaries of the officers of the government of the United States, shall originate in the first branch of the legislature, and shall not be altered or amended by the second branch—and that no money shall be drawn from the public treasury, but in pursuance of appropriation to be originated in the first branch.

II. That in the second branch of the legislature, each state shall have one vote.

These propositions being adopted, the convention proceeded to organize the legislative, and other departments of the government.

Sec. 9. At length, on the 17th of September, 1787, the convention having adopted and sign-

ed* the federal constitution, presented it to congress, which body soon after sent it to the several states for their consideration.

An abstract of this constitution, with its several subsequent amendments, follows: it is extracted from Mr. Webster's Elements of Useful Knowledge.

Of the legislature. "The legislative power of the United States is vested in a congress, consisting of two houses or branches, a senate, and a house of representatives. The members of the house of representatives are chosen once in two years, by the persons who are qualified to vote for members of the most numerous branches of the legislature, in each state. To be entitled to a seat in this house, a person must have attained to the age of twenty-five years, been a citizen of the United States for seven years, and be an inhabitant of the state in which he is chosen.

Of the senate. "The senate consists of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature for six years. The senate is divided into three classes, the seats of one of which are vacated every second year. If a vacancy happens, during the recess of the legislature, the executive of the state makes a temporary appointment of a senator, until the next meeting of the legislature. A senator must have attained to the age of thirty years, been a citizen of the United States nine years, and be an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen.

Of the powers of the two houses. "The house of representatives choose their own speaker and other officers, and have the exclusive power of impeaching public officers, and originating bills for raising a revenue. The vice president of the United States is president of the senate; but the other officers are chosen by the senate. The senate tries all impeachments; each house determines the validity of the elections and qualifications of its own members, forms its own rules, and keeps a journal of its proceedings. The members are privileged from arrest, while attending on the session, going to, or returning from the same, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

Of the powers of congress. "The congress of the Uni-

* The members comprising this convention amounted to fifty-five—thirty-five only of whom signed the constitution. Of the remaining sixteen, a few had previously withdrawn from the convention, on the ground, that in their view their powers extended only to revising the articles of confederation. Others had retired, having been obliged from particular business to leave the convention.

ted States have power to make and enforce all laws, which are necessary for the general welfare—as to lay and collect taxes, imposts, and excises; borrow money, regulate commerce, establish uniform rules of naturalization, coin money, establish post-roads and post-offices, promote the arts and sciences, institute tribunals inferior to the supreme court, define and punish piracy, declare war, and make reprisals, raise and support armies, provide a navy, regulate the militia, and to make all laws necessary to carry these powers into effect.

Of restrictions. “No bill of attainder, or retrospective law, shall be passed; the writ of habeas corpus cannot be suspended, except in cases of rebellion or invasion; no direct tax can be laid, except according to a census of the inhabitants; no duty can be laid on exports, no money can be drawn from the treasury, unless appropriated by law; no title of nobility can be granted, nor can any public officer, without the consent of congress, accept of any present or title from any foreign prince or state. The states are restrained from emitting bills of credit, from making any thing but gold or silver a tender for debts, and from passing any law impairing private contracts.

Of the executive. “The executive power of the United States is vested in a president, who holds his office for four years. To qualify a man for president, he must have been a citizen at the adoption of the constitution, or must be a native of the United States; he must have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States. The president and vice-president are chosen by electors designated in such a manner as the legislature of each state shall direct. The number of electors, in each state, is equal to the whole number of senators and representatives.

Of the powers of the president. “The president of the United States is commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and of the militia when in actual service. He grants reprieves and pardons; nominates, and, with the consent of the senate, appoints ambassadors, judges, and other officers; and, with the advice and consent of the senate, forms treaties, provided two thirds of the senate agree. He fills vacancies in offices which happen during the recess of the senate. He convenes the congress on extraordinary occasions, receives foreign ministers, gives information to congress of the state of public affairs, and in general, takes care that the laws be faithfully executed.

Of the judiciary. "The judiciary of the United States consists of one supreme court, and such inferior courts as the congress shall ordain. The judges are to hold their offices during good behavior, and their salaries cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. The judicial power of these courts extends to all cases in law and equity, arising under the constitution, or laws of the United States, and under treaties; to cases of public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies between the states, and in which the United States are a party; between citizens of different states; between a state and a citizen of another state, and between citizens of the same state, claiming under grants of different states; and to causes between one of the states or an American citizen, and a foreign state or citizen.

Of rights and immunities. "In all criminal trials, except impeachment, the trial by jury is guarantied to the accused. Treason is restricted to the simple acts of levying war against the United States, and adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort; and no person can be convicted, but by two witnesses to the same act, or by confession in open court. A conviction of treason is not followed by a corruption of blood, to disinherit the heirs of the criminal, nor by a forfeiture of estate, except during the life of the offender. The citizens of each state are entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states. Congress may admit new states into the union, and the national compact guaranties, to each state, a republican form of government, together with protection from foreign invasion and domestic violence."

Sec. 10. By a resolution of the convention, it was recommended that assemblies should be called, in the different states, to discuss the merits of the constitution, and either accept or reject it; and, that as soon as nine states should have ratified it, it should be carried into operation by congress.

To decide the interesting question, respecting the adoption or rejection of the new constitution, the best talents of the several states were assembled in their respective conventions. The fate of the constitution could, for a time, be

scarcely conjectured, so equally were the parties balanced. But, at length, the conventions of eleven states* assented to, and ratified the constitution.

Sec. 11. From the moment it was settled that this new arrangement, in their political system, was to take place, the attention of all classes of people, as well anti-federalists as federalists, (for, by these names, the parties for and against the new constitution were called,) was directed to General Washington, as the first president of the United States. Accordingly, on the opening of the votes, for president, at New-York, March 3d, 1789, by delegates from eleven states, it was found that he was unanimously elected to that office, and that John Adams was elected vice-president.

NOTES.

Sec. 12. MANNERS. The war of the revolution, as was observed in our notes on the last period, seriously affected the morals and manners of the people of the United States. The peace of 1783, however, tended, in a measure, to restore things to their former state. Those sober habits, for which the country was previously distinguished, began to return; business assumed a more regular and equitable character; the tumultuous passions, roused by the war, subsided; and men of wisdom and worth began to acquire their proper influence.

The change wrought in the manners of the people, during the revolution, began, in this period, to appear. National peculiarities wore away still more; local prejudices were farther

* North Carolina and Rhode Island refused their assent at this time, but afterwards acceded to it: the former, November, 1789; the latter, May, 1790.

corrected, and a greater assimilation of the yet discordant materials, of which the population of the United States was composed, took place.

Sec. 13. RELIGION. Methodism was introduced into the United States, during this period, under the direction of John Wesley, in England. This denomination increased rapidly in the middle states, and, in 1789, they amounted to about fifty thousand.

During this period, also, the *infidelity*, which we have noticed, seems to have lost ground. Public worship was more punctually attended, than during the war, and the cause of religion began again to flourish.

Sec. 14. TRADE AND COMMERCE. The commerce of the United States, during the war of the revolution, as already stated, was nearly destroyed; but, on the return of peace, it revived. An excessive importation of goods immediately took place from England. In 1784, the imports, from England alone, amounted to eighteen millions of dollars, and in 1785, to twelve millions—making, in those two years, thirty millions of dollars, while the exports of the United States to England were only between eight and nine millions.

On the average of six years posterior to the war, the extent of this period, the imports from Great Britain into the United States, were two millions one hundred and nineteen thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven pounds sterling; the exports nine hundred and eight thousand six hundred and thirty-six pounds sterling, leaving an annual balance of five millions three hundred and twenty-nine thousand two hundred and eighty-four dollars, in favor of Great Britain.

The commercial intercourse of the United States with other countries was less extensive than with England, yet it was not inconsiderable. From France and her dependencies, the United States imported, in 1787, to the amount of about two millions five hundred thousand dollars, and

exported to the same, to the value of five millions of dollars.

The trade of the United States with China commenced soon after the close of the revolutionary war. The first American vessel that went on a trading voyage to China, sailed from New-York, on the 22d of February, 1784, and returned on the 11th of May, 1785. In 1789, there were fifteen American vessels at Canton, being a greater number than from any other nation, except Great Britain.

During this period, also, the Americans commenced the long and hazardous trading voyages to the North West Coast of America. The first of the kind, undertaken from the United States, was from Boston, in 1788, in a ship commanded by Capt. Kendrick. The trade afforded great profits, at first, and since 1788 has been carried on from the United States to a considerable extent.

The whale fishery, which, during the war, was suspended, revived on the return of peace. From 1787 to 1789, both inclusive, ninety-one vessels were employed from the United States, with one thousand six hundred and eleven seamen. Nearly eight thousand barrels of spermaceti oil were annually taken, and about thirteen thousand barrels of whale oil.

Small quantities of cotton were first exported from the United States about the year 1784. It was raised in Georgia.

Sec. 15. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture revived at the close of the war, and, in a few years, the exports of produce raised in the United States were again considerable. Attention began to be paid to the culture of cotton, in the southern states, about the year 1783, and it soon became a staple of that part of the country. About the same time, agricultural societies began to be formed in the country.

Sec. 16. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. The excessive importation of merchandize from Great Britain, during this period—much of which was sold at low prices—checked the progress of manufactures in the United States, which had been extensively begun, during the war of the revolution. Iron works, however, for the construc-

tion of axes, ironing of carriages, and the making of machinery, &c. &c., were still kept up in all parts of the United States. Some coarse woollen and linen cloths, cabinet furniture, and the more bulky and simple utensils for domestic use, &c. &c., were manufactured in New-England.

Sec. 17. POPULATION. The population of the United States, at the close of this period, was nearly four millions.

Sec. 18. EDUCATION. Several colleges were established during this period—one in Maryland, at Annapolis, called St. John's college; a second, in 1785, at Abington, in the same state, by the Methodists, called Cokesbury college; a third, in the city of New-York; and a fourth, in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in 1787—the former, by the name of Columbia college, and the latter, by that of Franklin college. The North Carolina university was incorporated in 1789.

The subject of education, during this period, seems to have attracted public attention throughout the United States, and permanent institutions, for the instruction of youth, were either planned or established, in every section of the country.

REFLECTIONS.

Sec. 19. The history of the world furnishes no parallel to the history of the United States, during this short period. At the commencement of it, they had but just emerged from a long and distressing war, which had nearly exhausted the country, and imposed an accumulated debt upon the nation. They were united by a confederation inadequate to the purposes of government; they had just disbanded an army, which was unpaid, and dissatisfied; and, more than all, they were untried in the art of self-government.

In circumstances like these, it would not have been strange had the people fallen into dissensions and anarchy, or had some bold, ambitious spirit arisen, and fastened the

yoke of monarchy upon them. But a happier destiny awaited them. In this hour of peril, the same Providence, that had guided them thus far, still watched over them, and, as victory was granted them in the hour of battle, so wisdom was now vouchsafed in a day of peace. Those master spirits of the revolution, some of whom had recently retired from the camp to the enjoyment of civil life, were now called to devise the means of securing the independence which they had won. Perhaps they exhibited to the world a no less striking spectacle as the framers of our excellent constitution, than as victors over the arms of Britain.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD VII.

DISTINGUISHED BY WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the inauguration of President Washington, 1789, to the inauguration of John Adams, as president of the United States, 1797

Sec. 1. On the 30th of April, 1789, Gen. Washington, in the presence of the first congress under the federal constitution, and before an immense concourse of spectators, was inducted into the office of president of the United States, by taking the oath prescribed by the constitution.

Intelligence of his election was communicated to Washington, while on his *farm* in Virginia. On his way to New-York, to enter upon the duties of his station, he received, in almost every place through which he passed, the highest expressions of affection and respect that a grateful people could pay.

At Trenton, his reception was peculiarly interesting. The inhabitants of that village had not forgotten the memorable scenes of December, 1776.

On the bridge, over the creek, where the progress of the enemy was arrested, twelve years before, the ladies of Trenton erected a triumphal arch, ornamented with flowers, on the front of which was inscribed, "the defenders of the mothers will be the protectors of the daughters." He was here met by the ladies, attended by their little daughters, who, as he passed, literally strewed his way with flowers as they sung the following ode:

"Welcome, mighty chief, once more,
Welcome to this grateful shore;

Now no mercenary foe
 Aims again the fatal blow,
 Aims at thee the fatal blow.

“Virgins fair, and matrons grave,
 Those your conquering arms did save,
 Build for thee triumphal bowers ;
 Strew, ye fair, his way with flowers,
 Strew your hero's way with flowers.”

Soon after his arrival in New-York, a day was assigned for his taking the oath of office. On the morning of that day, public prayers were offered in all the churches. At noon, a procession was formed, which escorted Washington, dressed on the occasion wholly in American manufactures, to Federal Hall. Here the oath prescribed by the constitution was administered to him, by the chancellor of the state of New-York.

The ceremonies of the inauguration being concluded, Washington entered the senate chamber, and delivered his first speech. In this, after expressing the reluctance with which he obeyed the call of his countrymen, from repose and retirement, so ardently coveted, after a series of military toils, and the diffidence with which he entered upon an office, so full of responsibility, he proceeded thus :

“It will be peculiarly improper to omit, in this *first* official act, my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being, who rules over the universe ; who presides in the councils of nations.”

Immediately after his inaugural address, he, with the members of both houses, attended divine service at St. Paul's chapel. Thus, in the commencement of his administration, did Washington, by every suitable means, acknowledge his sense of personal dependence upon divine wisdom, to guide with discretion the affairs of a nation committed to his care ; thus did he set an example worthy of imitation by all who are elevated to places of authority and responsibility.

Sec. 2. Business of importance, in relation to the organization and support of the new government, now pressed upon the attention of the president, and of congress. A revenue was to be provided ; the departments of government were to be arranged and filled ; a judiciary was to be established, and its officers appointed ; and

provision was to be made for the support of public credit.

After a long discussion, congress agreed to raise a revenue for the support of government, by impost and tonnage duties. Having next fixed upon, and arranged the several departments of the government, the president, whose duty it was, proceeded to nominate the proper persons to fill them. In performing this service, he appears to have been actuated, simply, by a regard to the best good of the country.

Mr. Jefferson was selected for the department of state; Col. Hamilton was appointed secretary of the treasury; Gen. Knox, secretary of war; and Edmund Randolph, attorney general. At the head of the judiciary was placed John Jay, and with him were appointed John Rutledge, James Wilson, William Cushing, Robert Harrison, and John Blair.

In the course of establishing the executive departments, viz. those of war and of foreign affairs and of the treasury, an important subject of inquiry arose, in what manner or by whom these important officers could be removed from office. In the house of representatives, some were of opinion that they could not be removed, without impeachment. The principal question, however, on which congress were divided, was, whether they were removable by the president alone, or by the president, in concurrence with the senate. A majority, however, in both houses, at length, decided, that this power was in the president alone. In the house, the majority in favor of this construction was twelve.

But notwithstanding the question was settled in this manner, there were strong objections to placing a power in the hands of an individual, which might be greatly abused; since it was apparent that the president might, from whim, or caprice, or favoritism, remove a meritorious officer, to the great injury of the public good. But to this it was well replied by Mr. Madison: "The danger consists in this; the president can displace from office a man whose merits require that he should be continued in it. What will be

the motives which the president can feel for such an abuse of his power, and the restraints to operate to prevent it? In the first place, he will be impeachable by this house before the senate for such an act of maladministration; for I contend, that the wanton removal of meritorious officers would subject him to impeachment and removal from his own high trust."

Sec. 3. During this session of congress, several new articles were proposed to be added to the constitution, by way of amendment, and to be submitted to the several states for their approbation.

After a long and animated discussion of the subject, twelve new articles were agreed upon, and submitted to the respective state legislatures; ten of which were approved by three fourths of them, and were thus added to the constitution.

Sec. 4. It was also during this session, that a national judiciary was established. This consisted of a supreme court, circuit, and district courts. The district courts were to consist of one judge in each state. The states were divided into circuits, in each of which, one of the judges of the supreme court and the district judge of the state in which the court was held, constituted the circuit courts. To this court appeals were made from the district courts, but in certain cases it had original jurisdiction. The supreme court was composed of a chief justice and five associate judges, and was to hold two sessions annually at the seat of government. John Jay was appointed chief justice, and Edward Randolph, attorney general.

Sec. 5. Next was settled the important question relating to the salaries of the officers of government. The salary of the president was

fixed at twenty-five thousand dollars a year, and that of the vice-president at five thousand. The representatives received six dollars per day, and six dollars for every twenty miles travel, and the senate seven dollars per day, and the same for travel. To each of the heads of departments was allowed a salary of three thousand five hundred dollars; to the chief justice of the supreme court four thousand dollars, and the associate judges three thousand five hundred.

Sec. 6. Before the adjournment of congress, deeply impressed with a sense of the divine goodness, that body requested the president to recommend to the people a day of public thanksgiving and prayer, in which they should unitedly acknowledge with grateful hearts the many and signal favors of Almighty God, especially by affording them an opportunity peaceably to establish a constitution of government for their safety and happiness.

Sec. 7. On the 29th of September, the first session of congress closed. It was among their concluding acts, to direct the secretary of the treasury to prepare a plan for adequately providing for the support of the public credit, and to report the same at their next meeting.

Sec. 8. During the recess of congress, Washington made a tour into New-England. Passing through Connecticut and Massachusetts, and into New-Hampshire, as far as Portsmouth, he returned by a different route to New-York.

With this excursion, the president had much reason to be gratified. To observe the progress of society, the improvements in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, and the temper, circumstances, and dispositions of the people—while it could not fail to please an intelligent and benevolent mind, was, in all respects, worthy of the chief

magistrate of the nation. He was every where received with expressions of the purest affection, and could not fail to rejoice in the virtue, religion, happiness, and prosperity of the people, at the head of whose government he was placed.

Sec. 9. The second session of the first congress commenced, January 8th, 1790. In obedience to the resolution of the former congress, the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, made his report on the subject of maintaining the public credit.

In this report, he strongly recommended to congress, as the only mode, in his opinion, in which the public credit would be supported :

1. That provision be made for the full discharge of the foreign debt, according to the precise terms of the contract.

2. That provision be made for the payment of the domestic debt, in a similar manner.

3. That the debts of the several states, created for the purpose of carrying on the war, be assumed by the general government.

The public debt of the United States was estimated by the secretary, at this time, at more than fifty-four millions of dollars. Of this sum, the foreign debt, principally due to France and the Hollanders, constituted eleven millions and a half of interest; and the domestic liquidated debt, including about thirteen millions of arrears of interest, more than forty millions; and the unliquidated debt two millions. The secretary recommended the assumption of the debts of the several states to be paid equally with those of the Union, as a measure of sound policy and substantial justice. These were estimated at twenty-five millions of dollars.

Sec. 10. The proposal for making adequate provision for the foreign debt was met, cordially and unanimously; but, respecting the full discharge of the domestic debt, and the assumption of the state debts, much division prevailed in

congress. After a spirited and protracted debate on these subjects, the recommendation of the secretary prevailed, and bills conformable thereto passed, by a small majority.

The division of sentiment among the members of congress, in relation to the full, or only a partial payment of the domestic debt, arose from this. A considerable proportion of the original holders of public securities had found it necessary to sell them, at a reduced price—even as low as two or three shillings on the pound. These securities had been purchased by speculators, with the expectation of ultimately receiving the full amount. Under these circumstances, it was contended by some, that congress would perform their duty, should they pay to all holders of public securities only the reduced market price. Others advocated a discrimination between the present holders of securities, and those to whom the debt was originally due, &c. &c.

In his report, Mr. Hamilton ably examined these several points, and strongly maintained the justice of paying to all holders of securities, without discrimination, the full value of what appeared on the face of their certificates. This, he contended, justice demanded, and for this, the public faith was pledged.

By the opposers of the bill, which related to the assumption of the state debts, the constitutional authority of the federal government for this purpose was questioned; and the policy and justice of the measure controverted.

To cancel the several debts which congress thus undertook to discharge, the proceeds of public lands, lying in the western territory, were directed to be applied, together with the surplus revenue, and a loan of two millions of dollars, which the president was authorized to borrow, at an interest of five per cent.

This measure laid the foundation of public credit upon such a basis, that government paper soon rose from two shillings and six pence to twenty shillings on the pound, and, indeed, for a short time, was above par. Individuals, who

had purchased certificates of public debt low realized immense fortunes. A general spring was given to the affairs of the nation. A spirit of enterprise, of agriculture, and commerce, universally prevailed, and the foundation was thus laid for that unrivalled prosperity which the United States, in subsequent years, enjoyed.

Sec. 11. During this session of congress, a bill was passed, fixing the seat of government for ten years at Philadelphia, and, from and after that time, permanently at Washington, on the Potomac.

Sec. 12. On the 4th of March, 1791, VERMONT, by consent of congress, became one of the United States.

The tract of country, which is now known by the name of Vermont, was settled at a much later period than any other of the eastern states. The governments of New-York and Massachusetts made large grants of territory in the direction of Vermont; but it was not until 1724, that any actual possession was taken of land, within the present boundaries of the state. In that year, Fort Durance was built, by the officers of Massachusetts, on Connecticut river. On the other side of the state, the French advanced up Lake Champlain, and, in 1731, built Crown Point, and began a settlement on the eastern shore of the lake.

Vermont being supposed to fall within the limits of New-Hampshire, that government made large grants of land to settlers, even west of Connecticut river. New-York, however, conceived herself to have a better right to the territory, in consequence of the grant of Charles II. to his brother, the Duke of York. These states being thus at issue, the case was submitted to the English crown, which decided in favor of New-York, and confirmed its jurisdiction, as far as Connecticut river. In this decision, New-Hampshire acquiesced; but New-York persisting in its claims to land east of the river, actions of ejectment were instituted in the courts at Albany, which resulted in favor of the New-York title. The settlers, however, determined to resist the officers of justice, and under Ethan Allen, associated together

to oppose the New-York militia, which were called out to enforce the laws.

On the commencement of the revolution, the people of Vermont were placed in an embarrassing situation. They had not even a form of government. The jurisdiction of New-York being disclaimed, and allegiance to the British crown refused, every thing was effected by voluntary agreement. In January, 1777, a convention met and proclaimed that the district before known by the name of the New-Hampshire grants, was of right a free and independent jurisdiction, and should be henceforth called *New Connecticut, alias Vermont*. The convention proceeded to make known their proceedings to congress, and petitioned to be admitted into the confederacy. To this, New-York objected, and, for a time, prevailed. Other difficulties arose with New-Hampshire and Massachusetts, each of which laid claim to land within the present boundaries of the state. At the peace of 1783, Vermont found herself a sovereign and independent state *de facto*, united with no confederation, and therefore unembarrassed by the debts that weighed down the other states. New-York still claimed jurisdiction over the state, but was unable to enforce it, and the state government was administered as regularly as in any of the other states. After the formation of the federal constitution, Vermont again requested admission into the union. The opposition of New-York was still strong, but in 1789 was finally withdrawn, upon the consent of Vermont to pay her the sum of thirty thousand dollars. Thus terminated a controversy, which had been carried on with animosity, and with injury to both parties, for twenty-six years. A convention was immediately called, by which it was resolved to join the federal union. Upon application to congress, their consent was readily given, and on the 4th of March, 1791, Vermont was added to the United States.

Sec. 13. At the time that congress assumed the state debts, during their second session, the secretary of the treasury had recommended a tax on domestic spirits, to enable them to pay the interest. The discussion of the bill having been postponed to the third session, was early in that session taken up. The tax, contemplated by the bill, was opposed with great vehemence, by a majority of southern and western members, on

the ground that it was unnecessary and unequal, and would be particularly burdensome upon those parts of the union, which could not, without very great expense, procure foreign ardent spirits. Instead of this tax, these members proposed an increased duty on imported articles generally, a particular duty on molasses, a direct tax, or a tax on salaries, &c. &c. After giving rise to an angry and protracted debate, the bill passed, by a majority of thirty-five to twenty-one.

Sec. 14. The secretary next appeared with a recommendation for a national bank. A bill, conforming to his plan, being sent down from the senate, was permitted to progress, unmolested, in the house of representatives, to the third reading. On the final reading, an unexpected opposition appeared against it, on the ground that banking systems were useless; that the proposed bill was defective; but, especially, that congress was not vested, by the constitution, with the competent power to establish a national bank.

These several objections were met by the supporters of the bill, with much strength of argument. After a debate of great length, supported with the ardor excited by the importance of the subject, the bill was carried in the affirmative, by a majority of nineteen voices.

A bill which had been agitated with so much warmth, in the house of representatives, the executive was now called upon to examine with reference to its sanction or rejection. The president required the opinions of the cabinet in writing. The secretary of state, Mr. Jefferson, and the attorney general, Mr. Randolph, considered the bill as decidedly unconstitutional. The secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, with equal decision, maintained the opposite opinion. A deliberate investigation of the subject satisfied

the president, both of the constitutionality and utility of the bill, upon which he gave it his signature.

The capital stock of the bank was ten millions of dollars, two millions to be subscribed for the benefit of the United States, and the residue by individuals. One fourth of the sums subscribed by individuals was to be paid in gold and silver, and three fourths in the public debt. By the act of incorporation, it was to be a bank of discount as well as deposit, and its bills, which were payable in gold and silver on demand, were made receivable in all payments to the United States. The bank was located at Philadelphia, with power in the directors, to establish offices of discount and deposit only wherever they should think fit, within the United States.

The duration of the charter was limited to the 4th of May, 1811; and the faith of the United States was pledged, that during that period, no other bank should be established under their authority. One of the fundamental articles of the incorporation was, that no loan should be made to the United States, for more than one hundred thousand dollars, or to any particular state, for more than fifty thousand, or to any foreign prince, or state, unless previously authorized by a law of the United States. The books were opened for subscriptions in July, 1791, and a much larger sum subscribed than was allowed by the charter; and the bank went into successful operation.*

The bill which had now passed, with those relating to the finances of the country, the assumption of the state debts, the funding of the national debt, &c., contributed greatly to the complete organization of those distinct and visible parties, which, in their long and ardent conflict for power, have since shaken the United States to their centre.

Sec. 15. While matters of high importance were occupying the attention, and party strife and conflicting interests were filling the counsels of congress with agitation, an Indian war opened on the northwestern frontier of the states. Pacific arrangements had been attempted by the president with the hostile tribes, without effect. On the failure of these, an offensive expedition was planned against the tribes northwest of the Ohio.

* Pitkin.

The command of the troops, consisting of three hundred regulars, and about one thousand two hundred Pennsylvania and Kentucky militia, was given to Gen. Harmar, a veteran officer of the revolution. His instructions required him, if possible, to bring the Indians to an engagement; but, in any event, to destroy their settlements on the waters of the Scioto, a river falling into the Ohio, and the Wabash, in the Indiana territory. In this expedition, Harmar succeeded in destroying some villages, and a quantity of grain, belonging to the Indians; but in an engagement with them, near Chilicothe, he was routed with considerable loss.

Upon the failure of Gen. Harmar, Major General Arthur St. Clair was appointed to succeed him. Under the authority of an act of congress, the president caused a body of levies to be raised for six months, for the Indian service.

Sec. 16. Having arranged the northwestern expedition, directing St. Clair to destroy the Indian villages on the Miami, and to drive the savages from the Ohio, the president commenced a tour through the southern states, similar to that which he had made through the northern and central parts of the union, in 1789.

The same expressions of respect and affection awaited him, in every stage of his tour, which had been so zealously accorded to him in the north. Here, also, he enjoyed the high satisfaction of witnessing the most happy effects, resulting from the administration of that government over which he presided.

Sec. 17. On the 24th of October, 1791, the second congress commenced its first session. Among the subjects that early engaged their attention, was a bill "for apportioning representatives among the people of the several states, accord-

ing to the first census." After much discussion concerning the ratio that should be adopted, between representation and population, congress finally fixed it at one representative to each state for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants.

The first bill fixed the ratio at one representative for every thirty thousand inhabitants; but to this bill the senate would not agree. A second bill was introduced, providing one representative for every thirty thousand, and dividing eight representatives among those states which had the greatest fractions. This bill the president returned to the house, whence it originated, as unconstitutional, as by it, eight states would send more representatives than their population allowed.

Sec. 18. In December, intelligence was received by the president, that the army under Gen. St. Clair, in battle with the Indians, near the Miami, in Ohio, had been totally defeated on the 4th of the preceding month.

The army of St. Clair amounted to near one thousand five hundred men. The Indian force consisted of nearly the same number. Of the loss of the Indians, no estimate could be formed; but the loss of the Americans was unusually severe; thirty-eight commissioned officers were killed in the field, and five hundred and ninety-three non-commissioned officers and privates were slain and missing. Between two and three hundred officers and privates were wounded, many of whom afterwards died. This result of the expedition was as unexpected as unfortunate; but no want either of ability, zeal, or intrepidity, was ascribed, by a committee of congress, appointed to examine the causes of its failure, to the commander of the expedition.

Sec. 19. Upon the news of St. Clair's defeat, a bill was introduced into congress for raising three additional regiments of infantry, and a squadron of cavalry, to serve for three years, if not sooner discharged. This bill, although finally carried, met with an opposition more warm and pointed from the opposers of the administration, than any which had before been agitated in the house.

By those who opposed the bill, it was urged, that the war with the Indians was unjust; that militia would answer as well, and even better, than regular troops, and would be less expensive to support; that adequate funds could not be provided; and, more than all, that this addition of one regiment to the army after another, gave fearful intimation of monarchical designs, on the part of those who administered the government.

On the other hand, the advocates of the bill contended, that the war was a war of self-defence; that between the years 1783 and 1790, not less than one thousand five hundred inhabitants of Kentucky, or emigrants to that country, and probably double that number, had been massacred by the Indians; and that repeated efforts had been made by the government to obtain a peace, notwithstanding which, the butcheries of the savages still continued in their most appalling forms.

Sec. 20. On the 8th of May, 1792, congress adjourned to the first Monday in November. The asperity which, on more than one occasion, had discovered itself in the course of debate, was a certain index of the growing exasperation of parties. With their adjournment, the conflicting feelings of members in a measure subsided; the opposition, however, to the administration, had become fixed. It was carried into retirement—was infused by members into their constituents, and a party was thus formed throughout the nation, hostile to the plans of government adopted by Washington, and his friends in the cabinet.

Sec. 21. On the first of June, 1792, KENTUCKY, by act of congress, was admitted into the union as a state.

The country, now called Kentucky, was well known to the Indian traders, many years before its settlement. By whom it was first explored, is a matter of uncertainty, and has given rise to controversy. In 1752, a map was published by Lewis Evans, of the country on the Ohio and Kentucky rivers; and it seems that one James Macbride,

with others, visited this region in 1754. No further attempt was made to explore the country until 1767, when John Finley of North Carolina, travelled over the ground on the Kentucky river, called by the Indians, "the dark and bloody ground." On returning to Carolina, Finley communicated his discoveries to Col. Daniel Boone, who, in 1769, with some others, undertook to explore the country. After a long and fatiguing march, they discovered the beautiful valley of Kentucky. Col. Boone continued an inhabitant of this wilderness until 1771, when he returned to his family for the purpose of removing them, and forming a settlement in the new country. In 1773, having made the necessary preparations, he set out again with five families and forty men, from Powell's Valley, and after various impediments, reached the Kentucky river, in March, 1775, where he commenced a settlement.

In the years 1778, 1779, and 1780, a considerable number of persons emigrated to Kentucky; yet, in this latter year, after an unusually severe winter, the inhabitants were so distressed that they came to the determination of abandoning the country for ever. They were fortunately diverted from this step, by the arrival of emigrants. During the revolutionary war they suffered severely from the Indians, incited by the British government. In 1778, Gen. Clarke overcame the Indians, and laid waste their villages. From this time the inhabitants began to feel more secure, and the settlements were extended. In 1779, the legislature of Virginia, within whose limits this region lay, erected it into a county. In 1782, a supreme court, with an attorney general, was established within the district. In the years 1783, 1784, and 1785, the district was laid out into counties, and a great part of the country surveyed and patented. In 1785, an attempt was made to form an independent state; but a majority of the inhabitants being opposed to the measure, it was delayed until December, 1790, when it became a separate state.

In 1792, as stated above, it was admitted into the union. The growth of Kentucky has been rapid, and she has obtained a respectable rank and influence among her sister states.

Sec. 22. During the recess of congress, preparations were hastened by the president, for a vigorous prosecution of the war with the Indians; but such small inducements were present-

ed to engage in the service, that a sufficient number of recruits could not be raised to authorize an expedition against them the present year. As the clamor against the war, by the opposers of the administration, was still loud, the president deemed it advisable, while preparations for hostilities were advancing, to make another effort at negotiation with the unfriendly Indians. The charge of this business was committed to Col. Harden and Maj. Freeman, two brave officers, and valuable men, who were murdered by the savages.

Sec. 23. On the opening of the next congress, in November, a motion was made to reduce the military establishment, but it did not prevail. The debate on this subject was peculiarly earnest, and the danger of standing armies was powerfully urged. This motion, designed as a reflection upon the executive, was followed by several resolutions, introduced by Mr. Giles, tending to criminate the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, of misconduct, in relation to certain loans, negotiated under his direction.

In three distinct reports, sent to the house, the secretary offered every required explanation, and ably defended himself against the attacks of the opposition. Mr. Giles, and some others, however, were not satisfied: other resolutions were, therefore, offered, which, although rejected, were designed to fix upon the secretary the reputation of an ambitious man, aiming at the acquisition of dangerous power.

During these discussions, vehement attacks were made upon the secretary, in the public prints. Hints also were suggested against the president himself; and although he was not openly accused of being the head of the federal party, of favoring their cause, or designing to subvert the

liberties of his country, yet it was apparent that such suspicions were entertained of him.

On the 3d of March, 1793, a constitutional period was put to the existence of this congress. The members separated with obvious symptoms of irritation; and it was not to be doubted that their efforts would be extended to communicate to their constituents the feelings which agitated their bosoms.

Sec. 24. The time had now arrived, 1793, when the electors of the states were again called upon to choose a chief magistrate of the union. Washington had determined to withhold himself from being again elected to the presidency, and to retire from the cares of political life. Various considerations, however, prevented the declaration of his wishes, and he was again unanimously elected to the chair of state. Mr. Adams was re-elected vice-president.

Sec. 25. Through the unceasing endeavors of the president to terminate the Indian war, a treaty had been negotiated with the Indians, on the Wabash; and through the intervention of the Six Nations, those of the Miamis had consented to a conference during the ensuing spring. Offensive operations were, therefore, suspended, although the recruiting service was industriously urged, and assiduous attention was paid to the discipline and preparation of the troops.

Sec. 26. The Indian war, though of real importance, was becoming an object of secondary consideration. The revolution in France was now progressing, and began so to affect our relation with that country, as to require an exertion of all the wisdom and firmness of the government. Early in April, also, information was

received of the declaration of war by France, against England and Holland.

This event excited the deepest interest in the United States. A large majority of the people, grateful for the aid that France had given us in our revolution, and devoted to the cause of liberty, were united in fervent wishes for the success of the French Republic.* At the same time, the prejudices against Great Britain, which had taken deep root during the revolution, now sprung forth afresh, and the voice of many was heard, urging the propriety of the United States making a common cause with France against Great Britain.

A pressing occurrence had called Washington to Mount Vernon, when intelligence arrived of the rupture between France and England. Hastening his return to Philadelphia, he summoned the attention of his cabinet to several questions, respecting the course of conduct proper for the United States to observe in relation to the belligerents.

Although sensible of the prejudices existing in the country against Great Britain, and of the friendly disposition which prevailed towards

* The revolution in France commenced about the year 1789. It seems to have been hastened, or brought on, by the new ideas of freedom, which had been imbibed by the French army in the United States, and thence disseminated among the people of France, for a long time oppressed and degraded by a despotic government. Unfortunately, the revolution fell into the hands of selfish and unprincipled men, who, in 1793, executed their king, Louis XVI., and, soon after, his family, and murdered or imprisoned those who were suspected of hostility to their views, and involved France in a scene of guilt and bloodshed, which cannot be contemplated without horror. In the first stages of this revolution, the friends of liberty throughout the world were full of hopes for a melioration of the political condition of France; but these hopes were soon blasted by the sanguinary steps adopted by the revolutionists. Had they been men governed by reason and religion, instead of unbridled ambition; actuated by a philanthropic regard to the good of the people, instead of a selfish thirst of power: France to this day might have enjoyed the blessings of a free government.

France, it was the unanimous opinion of the cabinet, that a strict neutrality should be observed by the United States towards the contending powers. The council was also unanimous, that a minister from the French Republic should be received, should one be sent.

In accordance with the advice of his cabinet, the president issued his proclamation of neutrality, on the 22d of April, 1793. This proclamation, being without legislative sanction, soon became the subject of loud invective. The opposition party, through the press, pronounced it "a royal edict," an assumption of power on the part of the president, and a proof of his monarchical disposition. They denounced the conduct of the executive as dishonorable, and an act of neutrality, as high ingratitude towards France, the firm and magnanimous ally, of the United States, which had assisted in achieving the liberties of the country.

Sec. 27. In this state of things, the Republic of France recalled the minister of the crown, and appointed Mr. Genet to succeed him. His mission had for its object the enlisting of America in the cause of France, against Great Britain. Flattered by the manner in which he was received by the people, as well as by their professions of attachment to his country, Mr. Genet early anticipated the accomplishment of his object. Presuming too much upon this attachment, he was led into a series of acts infringing the neutrality proclaimed by the president. He also attempted to rouse the people against the government, because it did not second all his views. At length, on the advice of his cabinet, the president solicited of the French Republic the recall

of Mr. Genet, and the appointment of some one to succeed him. Monsieur Fauchet was appointed, and was instructed to assure the American government, that France totally disapproved of the conduct of his predecessor.

Mr. Genet, on his arrival in the country, landed at Charleston, S. C. He was received by the governor of that state, and by the citizens, with a flow of enthusiastic feeling, equalled only by that which had been evinced towards his nation at the conquest of Yorktown.

Soon after landing at Charleston, he began to authorize the fitting and arming of vessels, in that port, enlisting men, and giving commissions to cruise and commit hostilities against nations with which the United States were at peace. Vessels captured by these cruisers were brought into port, and the consuls of France, under the authority of Genet, not yet recognized as a minister by the American government, assumed the power of holding courts of admiralty on them, of trying and condemning them, and of authorizing their sale. Upon a complaint of the British minister, Mr. Hammond, the American cabinet unanimously condemned those proceedings, and agreed that the efficacy of the laws should be tried against those citizens who had been concerned in them. Prosecutions were accordingly ordered and actually commenced.

The decisions and conduct of the cabinet gave great umbrage to Genet, who had now been accredited as the minister of France. In his communications to the secretary of state, his dissatisfaction was expressed in strong terms, and the executive charged with holding opinions and adopting a course diametrically opposed to the views and wishes of the American people. In language highly offensive and reprehensible, he demanded that those persons under arrest, by order of the government of the United States, should be released, "on the ground that they were acting under the authority of France, and defending the glorious cause of liberty in common with her children." And at length, he incautiously avowed the purpose, should his demands not be complied with, of appealing from the president to the people.

The language and conduct of Genet made a deep impression on the officers of the administration; but happily, they preserved, in all their communications with that gentleman,

a becoming dignity, and continued to express a high respect and affection for his nation, and an earnest desire to promote its interests.

On the meeting of congress, December, 1793, the proclamation of neutrality was approved by them, as well as the conduct of the government towards Mr. Genet.

Finding on most questions, arising between the French minister and the government of the United States, a wide and an increasing difference of views, and perceiving no beneficial effects resulting from his continuance in that character, the cabinet unanimously advised his recall.

Sec. 28. 1794. On the last day of December, 1793, Mr. Jefferson, the secretary of state, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Edmund Randolph, the then attorney general. This latter office was filled by William Bradford, a gentleman of considerable eminence in Pennsylvania.

Sec. 29. During the session of congress this year, a resolution passed to provide a naval force adequate to the protection of the commerce of the United States, against the Algerine corsairs. The force proposed was to consist of six frigates, four of forty-four, and two of thirty-six guns.

This measure was founded upon the communications of the president, from which it appeared that the prospect of being able to negotiate a treaty of peace with the dey of Algiers was doubtful; that eleven American merchant vessels, and upwards of one hundred citizens, had been captured by them; and that farther preparations were making for a renewed attack upon unprotected vessels, belonging to the United States.

Sec. 30. During this session of congress, a law passed, prohibiting the carrying on of the slave trade from the American ports.

England had been actively engaged in the slave trade nearly fifty years, when the first settlement was effected in Virginia. Slavery was early introduced into the American colonies. The first slaves, about twenty in number, were brought to Virginia, in 1619, by a Dutch ship. The im-

portation of them gradually increased, and although principally bought by the southern planters, slaves were soon found, in great numbers, in all the colonies. In 1784, they amounted to six hundred thousand. In 1790, to six hundred and ninety-seven thousand six hundred and ninety-six.

A disgust towards this inhuman traffic appeared very early in the colonies; but it was countenanced and patronized by the English government, and thus introduced into, and fastened upon the country, without the power, on the part of the colonies, to arrest it.

In Massachusetts, in 1645, a law was made, "prohibiting the buying and selling of slaves, except those taken in lawful war, or reduced to servitude by their crimes." In 1703, the same colony imposed a heavy duty on every negro imported, and in a subsequent law on the subject, they called the practice, "*the unnatural and unaccountable custom of enslaving mankind.*" In Virginia, as early as 1699, attempts were made to repress the importation of slaves, by heavy duties. These, and other acts, show that the North American provinces would, if left to themselves, have put an end to the importation of slaves before the era of their independence.

In 1778, Virginia abolished the traffic by law; Connecticut, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts prohibited it before the year 1789. The continental congress passed a resolution against the purchase of slaves, imported from Africa, and exhorted the colonies to abandon the trade altogether. The third congress of the United States, as stated above, prohibited the trade, by law. Thus we see, in the United States, a very early and settled aversion to the slave trade manifesting itself, and before European nations had consented to relinquish it, several of the states had utterly prohibited it.

Sec. 31. At this session, also, several measures were adopted in anticipation of a war with Great Britain, growing out of her commercial restriction, which bore heavy, and operated most unjustly upon the United States. Bills were passed for laying an embargo for thirty days—for erecting fortifications—for organizing the militia, and increasing the standing army. As an adjustment of differences, however, seemed

desirable, Mr. Jay was appointed envoy extraordinary to the court of St. James, and succeeded in negotiating a treaty with Great Britain the following year.

Among the offensive acts of the government of Great Britain, was an order of June, 1793, prohibiting the exportation of corn to France, and authorizing the capture of neutral vessels carrying it thither. Under this order, many American vessels were captured, and carried into England. In November following, additional instructions were given by the British cabinet, to ships of war and privateers, to bring into port, for trial, all ships laden with goods from France, or her colonies, and such as were carrying provisions, or other supplies, to either. To these causes of complaint, Great Britain had added another, viz. neglecting to deliver up the western posts according to treaty.

While measures were taking, in anticipation of war, the president received advices from England, that the order of November had been considerably modified; that most of the merchant vessels which had been carried into port for trial, would be released; and that a disposition for peace with the United States existed in the British cabinet.

These advices opened to the president the prospect of restoring a good understanding between the two nations, and induced him immediately to nominate an envoy to settle existing differences, and to negotiate commercial arrangements. The nomination of Mr. Jay was approved, in the senate, by a majority of ten.

To those opposed to the administration, no step could have been more unexpected or disagreeable, than this decisive measure of the president. Prejudices against Great Britain had risen to their height, and hostilities against her were loudly demanded, as both just and necessary. It was not singular, therefore, that for this act, the president should receive the severest censures of the opposition party, nor that all who favored his efforts for peace should be included in the general denunciation.

Sec. 32. The suspension of hostilities against the Indians in the northwest, in consequence of their consenting to a conference in the spring of 1794, has already been noticed. This effort to conclude a treaty with them failing, General

Wayne, who had succeeded Gen. St. Clair, engaged the Indians, August 20th, 1794, on the banks of the Miami, and gained a complete victory over them.

The American troops engaged in this battle did not exceed nine hundred; the Indians amounted to two thousand. In this decisive engagement, Gen. Wayne lost one hundred and seven in killed and wounded, including officers. After the battle, he proceeded to lay waste the whole Indian country. By means of this victory over the Miamis, a general war with the Six Nations, and all the tribes northwest of the Ohio, was prevented.

Sec. 33. This year, 1794, was distinguished by an insurrection in Pennsylvania, growing out of laws enacted by congress, in 1791, laying duties on spirits distilled within the United States, and upon stills. In August, the president issued his proclamation, commanding the insurgents to disperse. This not having the desired effect, a respectable body of militia was ordered out, under Gov. Lee, of Maryland, on whose approach the insurgents laid down their arms, solicited the clemency of the government, and promised future submission to the laws.

From the time that duties were laid upon spirits distilled within the United States, &c., combinations were formed, in the four western counties of Pennsylvania, to prevent their collection. Numerous meetings were held at different times and places, at which resolutions were passed, and, in several instances, violences were committed upon the officers of the revenue. Eighteen of the insurgents were taken, and tried for treason, but not convicted.

Sec. 34. 1795. January 1st, Col. Hamilton resigned the office of secretary of the treasury, and was succeeded by Oliver Wolcott, of Connecticut. Nearly at the same time, Timothy Pickering succeeded Gen. Knox, in the department of war.

Sec. 35. In June, Mr. Jay, having succeeded in negotiating a treaty with Great Britain, the

senate was convened to consider its merits. After an elaborate discussion of it, that body advised to its ratification by a majority of twenty to ten. Notwithstanding the great opposition to it that prevailed among the enemies of Great Britain, the president gave it his signature. Contrary to the predictions of many in the country, the treaty settled existing difficulties between the two nations, prevented a war, which previously seemed fast approaching, and proved of great advantage to the United States.

The treaty, when published, found one party prepared for its condemnation, while the other was not ready for its defence. Time was necessary for a judicious and careful consideration of its merits.

In the populous cities, meetings were immediately called, and resolutions and addresses forwarded to the president, requesting him to withhold his assent. Upon the president, however, these had no other effect, than to induce him to weigh still more carefully the merits of the treaty. When, at length, he was satisfied of its utility, he signed it, although he thereby incurred the censures of a numerous portion of the citizens.

Sec. 36. In the course of the following autumn, treaties were concluded with the dey of Algiers, and with the Miamis in the west. By the former treaty, American citizens, in captivity in Algiers, were liberated; and by the latter, the western frontiers of the United States were secured from savage invasion. A treaty with Spain soon after followed, by which the claims of the United States, on the important points of boundary, and the navigation of the Mississippi, were fully conceded.

Sec. 37. On the 1st of June, 1796, TENNESSEE was admitted, by act of congress, into the union as a state.

Tennessee derives its name from its principal river. This

name, in the language of the Indians, signifies a curved spoon, the curvature, to their imaginations, resembling that of the river Tennessee.

The territory of Tennessee was granted, in 1664, by Charles II. to the Earl of Clarendon, and others, being included in the limits of the Carolinas. About the beginning of the next century, Carolina was divided into two provinces, and Tennessee fell to the lot of the northern province. Near the year 1754, fifty families were settled on the Cumberland river, where Nashville now stands; but they were dislodged by the savages soon after. In 1765, a number of emigrants settled themselves beyond the present limits of North Carolina, and were the first of the colonists of Tennessee. By the year 1773, the inhabitants had considerably increased. When the constitution of North Carolina was formed, in 1776, that district sent deputies to the meeting. In the year 1780, a small colony of about forty families, under the direction of James Robertson, crossed the mountains, and settled on the Cumberland river, where they founded Nashville. In 1785, the inhabitants of Tennessee, feeling the inconveniences of a government so remote as that in the capital of North Carolina, endeavored to form an independent one, to which they intended to give the name of the "State of Franklin;" but differing among themselves, the scheme for the time was abandoned. In 1789, the legislature of North Carolina passed an act, ceding the territory, on certain conditions, to the United States. Congress, in the following year, accepted the cession, and by another act, passed on the 26th of May, 1790, provided for its government under the title of "The territory of the United States, south of the Ohio." In 1796, congress passed an act enabling the people to form a state constitution, which having been adopted and approved, Tennessee was acknowledged as a sovereign state in the union.

Sec. 38. On the meeting of congress in 1796, resolutions were passed to carry into effect the treaties negotiated the preceding year. On the subject of the treaty with Great Britain, the liveliest sensibility still prevailed. After a spirited and protracted debate of seven weeks, on the subject of making the necessary arrangements for this treaty, resolutions to that effect passed the house by a majority of only three.

Sec. 39. As the time for a new election of the chief magistrate of the union approached, Gen. Washington signified his intention to retire from public life. Wishing to terminate his political course with an act suitable to his own character, and permanently useful to his countrymen, he published a valedictory address to the people of the United States, fraught with maxims of the highest political importance, and with sentiments of the warmest affection for his country

Among the topics of paramount importance to the nation, upon which the father of his country most eloquently descanted, in his farewell address, the union of the states was one which seemed to lie near his heart.

"The unity of government," said he, "which constitutes you one people, is now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence; the support of your tranquillity at home; your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But, as it is easy to foresee that, from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth; as this is the point of your political fortress, against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national union to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immoveable attachment to it, accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as of the palladium of your political safety and prosperity; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts."

In conclusion, this great and good man bore his solemn testimony to the importance of *religion* and *morality*, as intimately connected with political prosperity: "Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity,"

he observed, "*religion and morality* are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and cherish them—a volume could not trace all their connections with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked, where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligations *desert* the oaths which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice? and let us with caution indulge the supposition, that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that *national morality* can prevail in exclusion of *religious principle*."

Sec. 40. In February, 1797, the votes for his successor were opened, and counted in the presence of both houses of congress. The highest number appearing in favor of Mr. Adams, he was declared to be elected president of the United States, for the four years ensuing, commencing on the 4th of March. Mr. Jefferson succeeded Mr. Adams in the vice-presidency.

NOTES.

Sec. 41. MANNERS. We can remark, during this period, no very distinct change in the manners of the people of the United States, except that the introduction of French philosophy seems to have affected, in some degree, the sober habits and strict morality of the people, which, although relaxed by the war, had now begun to resume their influence.

Sec. 42. RELIGION. At the close of the preceding period, we observed that religion had revived, in a degree, from the injuries it suffered during the revolutionary war; and we might have expected, that under the auspices of a wise

and settled government, conducted by a practical Christian, like Washington, it would have acquired a still more commanding influence. Such, however, was not the fact.

As the people of the United States heartily espoused the cause of the revolution in France, and sympathized with that people, in their struggle for freedom, it was but too natural, that the sentiments of the revolutionists, on other than political subjects, should be imbibed. As the French revolutionists were almost universally deists, or atheists, these sentiments were extensively spread over the United States.

For a time, the boldness of the enterprises, the splendor of the victories, and the importance of the conquests, achieved by the French republic, promoted the extension of French infidelity in the United States. "Most eyes," says Dr. Dwight, "were disabled from seeing the nature of the purposes, which the revolutionists had in view, and of the characters which were exhibited on this singular stage. In the agitation and amazement excited in all men, few retained so steady optics as to discern, without confusion, the necessary consequences of this stupendous shock."

Infidelity was also greatly extended, at this time, by the writings of Paine, Godwin, and others, which were industriously circulated through the country.* The perspicuous and simple style of Paine, his keen powers of ridicule, directed against the Bible, and above all, the gratitude which multitudes felt for the aid his pen had given to our revolution, contributed to impart to him a peculiarly powerful influence. His vicious life, however, and the horrible enormities committed by the French revolutionists, gave such a fearful comment upon their principles, as at length, in a great measure, to bring them into discredit, and to arrest their growing influence.

Sec. 43. TRADE AND COMMERCE. These flourished, during this period, beyond all former ex-

* Godwin's Political Justice, and Paine's Age of Reason, powerfully urged on the tide of infidelity. An enormous edition of the latter publication was printed in France, and sent to America, to be sold for a few pence only; and where it could not be sold, it was given away.

ample. In 1797, the exports of the United States of all kinds, amounted to fifty-six millions eight hundred and fifty thousand two hundred and six dollars. The imports amounted to seventy-five millions three hundred and seventy-nine thousand four hundred and six dollars. Our vessels visited every part of the world, and brought wealth and luxuries from every country.

Sec. 44. AGRICULTURE. Aside from the importance of agriculture, as furnishing us with the greatest portion of our food, it began now to derive greater consequence, as furnishing materials for our manufactures, and, still more, as contributing largely to our exports. In 1796, it was estimated that *three fourths* of the inhabitants of the United States, if not a greater proportion, were employed in agricultural pursuits.

Sec. 45. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. During this period, manufactures attracted the attention of government. Mr. Hamilton, secretary of the treasury, made a report to congress, on the subject, in which he set forth their importance to the country, and urged the policy of aiding them. Since that time, the revenue laws have been framed, with the view to the encouragement of manufactures, and their promotion has been considered as a part of the settled policy of the United States. Although the flourishing state of commerce commanded the attention, and absorbed the capital of the country, in some degree, to the exclusion of other objects, still manufactures made considerable progress.

Sec. 46. POPULATION. The inhabitants of the United States, at the close of this period, amounted to about five millions.

Sec. 47. EDUCATION. The adoption of the fede-

ral constitution placed the political affairs of the United States on a permanent basis, and since that period, learning has flourished.

In 1791, the university of Vermont was established at Burlington; Williams' College, Massachusetts, in 1793; Union College, at Schenectady, New-York, and Greenville College, Tennessee, in 1794; Bowdoin College, at Brunswick, in Maine, 1796. An historical society was formed in Massachusetts, in 1791, and incorporated in 1794. It has published twelve volumes of documents, designed to illustrate the past and present state of the country.

REFLECTIONS.

Sec. 48. A short time since, we were occupied in considering the United States struggling for independence, under Washington, as *a leader of their armies*. Under his guidance, we saw them triumph, and become a free nation. We have also seen them, with Washington at the *head of the convention*, forming our excellent constitution. We now see them, with Washington their *chief magistrate*, taking their place among the sovereignties of the earth, and launching forth on the full tide of successful experiment.

Under Washington, as our leader, we won our independence; formed our constitution; established our government. And what reward does he ask for services like these? Does he ask a diadem? Does he lay his hand upon our national treasury? Does he claim to be emperor of the nation that had risen up under his auspices? No—although “first in war, first in peace, first in the hearts of his countrymen,”—he sublimely retires to the peaceful occupations of rural life, content with the honor of having been instrumental in achieving the independence, and securing the happiness of his country.

There is no parallel in history to this! By the side of Washington, Alexander is degraded to a selfish destroyer of his race; Cesar becomes the dazzled votary of power; and Bonaparte, a baffled aspirant to universal dominion.

Washington has been the theme of eulogy in every nation. “His military successes,” it has been well said, “were more solid than brilliant, and judgment, rather than enthusiasm, regulated his conduct in battle. In the midst of the inevitable disorder of camps, and the excesses inseparable from civil war, humanity always found a refuge in his tent. In

the morning of triumph, and in the darkness of adversity, he was alike serene; at all times tranquil as wisdom, and simple as virtue. After the acknowledgment of American independence, when the unanimous suffrages of a free people called him to administer their government, his administration, partaking of his character, was mild and firm at home; noble and prudent abroad."*

* Inchiquin's Letters.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD VIII.

DISTINGUISHED FOR ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the inauguration of President Adams, 1797, to the inauguration of Thomas Jefferson, as president of the United States, 1801.

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, 1797, Mr. Adams, in the presence of the senate, of the officers of the general and state governments, and a numerous concourse of spectators, took the oath of office, as president of the United States.

The condition of the country, at the close of Washington's administration, and the commencement of Mr. Adams', was greatly improved from that of 1789, the period at which the former entered upon his office.

At home, a sound credit had been established; an immense floating debt had been funded in a manner perfectly satisfactory to the creditors, and an ample revenue had been provided. Those difficulties, which a system of internal taxation, on its first introduction, is doomed to encounter, were completely removed; and the authority of the government was firmly established.

Funds for the gradual payment of the debt had been provided; a considerable part of it had actually been discharged; and that system which is now operating its entire extinction, had been matured and adopted. The agricultural and commercial wealth of the nation had increased beyond all former example. The numerous tribes of Indians, on

the west, had been taught by arms and by justice, to respect the United States, and to continue in peace.

Abroad, the differences with Spain had been accommodated. The free navigation of the Mississippi had been acquired, with the use of New-Orleans, as a place of deposit for three years, and afterwards, until some equivalent place should be designated.

Those causes of mutual exasperation, which had threatened to involve the United States in a war with the greatest maritime and commercial power in the world, had been removed; and the military posts which had been occupied within their territory, from their existence as a nation, had been evacuated. Treaties had been formed with Algiers and Tripoli, and no captures appear to have been made by Tunis; so that the Mediterranean was opened to American vessels.

This bright prospect was, indeed, in part, shaded by the discontents of France. But the causes of these discontents, it had been impossible to avoid, without surrendering the right of self-government. Such was the situation of the United States at the close of Washington's, and the commencement of Adams' administration.

Sec. 2. Just before Washington retired from office, learning that France meditated hostilities against the United States, by way of depredations on her West India commerce, he had recalled Mr. Monroe, then minister to that court, and despatched Gen. C. C. Pinckney, minister plenipotentiary, to adjust existing differences.

Immediately upon succeeding to the presidency, Mr. Adams received intelligence that the French Republic had announced to Gen. Pinckney its determination, "not to receive another minister from the United States, until after the redress of grievances," &c.

On the receipt of this intelligence, the president issued his proclamation to convene congress on the 15th of June. In his speech on that occasion, having stated the indignity offered the United States by France, in refusing to receive

her minister, the president, in the tone of a high-minded and independent American, urged congress "to repel this indignity of the French government, by a course, which shall convince that government and the world, that we are not a degraded people, humiliated under a colonial spirit of fear and a sense of inferiority, fitted to be the miserable instruments of foreign influence, and regardless of national honor, character, and interest."

Notwithstanding this language, the president still retained a desire for peace. Upon his recommendation, three envoys extraordinary, C. C. Pinckney, Elbridge Gerry, and John Marshall, were appointed to the French Republic, to carry into effect the pacific dispositions of the United States.

Sec. 3. For a considerable time, no certain intelligence reached the country respecting the negotiations at Paris. At length, in the winter of 1798, letters were received from the American envoys, indicating an unfavorable state of things; and in the spring, despatches arrived, which announced the total failure of the mission.

Before the French government would acknowledge the envoys, money, by way of *tribute*, was demanded in explicit terms of the United States. This being refused, an attempt was next made to excite the fears of the American ministers for their country and themselves. The immense power of France was painted in glowing colors, the humiliation of the house of Austria was stated, and the conquest of Britain was confidently anticipated. In the friendship of France alone, they were told, could America look for safety.

During these transactions, occasion was repeatedly taken to insult the American government; open war was continued to be urged by the cruisers of France on American commerce; and the flag of the United States was a suffi-

cient justification for the capture and condemnation of any vessel over which it waved.

Sec. 4. Perceiving further negotiations to be in vain, congress now proceeded to the adoption of vigorous measures for retaliating injuries, which had been sustained, and for repelling still greater injuries, which were threatened. Amongst these measures was the augmentation of the regular army.

A regiment of artillerists and engineers was added to the permanent establishment, and the president was authorized to raise twelve additional regiments of infantry, and one regiment of cavalry. He was also authorized to appoint officers for a provisional army, and to receive and organize volunteer corps.

By the unanimous consent of the senate, Gen. Washington was appointed lieutenant general and commander-in-chief of all the armies raised, or to be raised, in the United States.

Sec. 5. While preparations were thus making for war, indirect pacific overtures were communicated by the French government to the president, and a willingness expressed to accommodate existing differences, on reasonable terms.

Solicitous to restore that harmony and good understanding, which had formerly existed between the two countries, the president listened to these overtures, and appointed three envoys, Oliver Ellsworth, chief justice of the United States, Patrick Henry,* then late governor of Virginia, and William Vans Murray, minister at the Hague, to discuss and settle, by treaty, all controversies between the United States and France.

On the arrival of these envoys at Paris, they

* Before the time of embarkation, Mr. Henry died, and Governor Davie of North Carolina was appointed in his room.

found the government in the hands of Bonaparte, who had not been concerned in the transactions which had disturbed the peace of the two countries. Negotiations were commenced, which terminated in a treaty of peace, September 30th, 1800, soon after which, the provisional army in America was, by order of congress, disbanded.

Sec. 6. On the 14th of December, 1799, Gen. Washington expired at his seat, at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, leaving a nation to mourn his loss, and to embalm his memory with their tears.

The disease of which Gen. Washington died, was an inflammatory affection of the windpipe, occasioned by an exposure to a light rain, while attending, the day before, to some improvements on his estate.

The disease at its commencement was violent, and medical skill was applied in vain. Respiration became more and more contracted and imperfect, until half past eleven o'clock on Saturday night, when, retaining the full possession of his intellect, he expired without a groan.

Believing at the commencement of his complaint, that its conclusion would be mortal, he economized his time in arranging, with the utmost serenity, those few concerns, which required his attention. To his physician, he expressed his conviction that he was dying; "but," said he, "*I am not afraid to die.*"

On Wednesday, the 18th of December, his body was deposited in the family vault, attended with military honors, and suitable religious services.

On the arrival of the news of his death at Philadelphia, Monday, congress immediately adjourned. On the day succeeding, resolutions were adopted expressive of the grief of the members, and a committee was appointed to devise a mode, by which the national feelings should be expressed.

On the melancholy occasion, the senate addressed to the president, a letter in which they say, "Permit us, sir, to mingle our tears with yours. On this occasion, it is manly to weep. To lose such a man, at such a crisis, is no common calamity to the world. Our country mourns a father. The Almighty Disposer of events has taken from us our greatest benefactor and ornament. It becomes us to

submit with reverence to Him, who maketh darkness his pavilion.

“ With patriotic pride, we review the life of Washington, and compare him with those of other countries who have been pre-eminent in favor. Ancient and modern names are diminished before him. Greatness and guilt have too often been allied; but *his* fame is whiter than it is brilliant. The destroyers of nations stood abashed at the majesty of *his* virtues. It reprov'd the intemperance of their ambition, and darkened the splendor of victory.

“ The scene is closed; and we are no longer anxious lest misfortune should sully his glory. He has travelled on to the end of his journey, and carried with him an increasing weight of honor. He has deposited it safely where misfortune cannot tarnish it; where malice cannot blast it. Favored of Heaven, he departed without exhibiting the weakness of humanity; magnanimous in death, the darkness of the grave could not obscure his brightness.”

The committee, appointed to devise some mode by which to express the national feelings, recommended that a marble monument be erected by the United States, at the city of Washington, to commemorate the great events of Washington's military and political life; that a funeral oration be delivered by a member of congress; that the president be requested to write a letter of condolence to Mrs. Washington; and that it be recommended to the citizens of the United States, to wear crape on the left arm for thirty days.

These resolutions passed both houses unanimously. The whole nation appeared in mourning. The funeral procession at the city of Washington was grand and solemn, and the eloquent oration, delivered on the occasion by General Henry Lee, was heard with profound attention, and with deep interest.

Throughout the United States, similar marks of affliction were exhibited. Funeral orations were delivered, and the best talents devoted to an expression of grief, at the loss of “ the man, first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-citizens.”

Sec. 7. In 1800, agreeably to a resolution passed in congress in 1790, the seat of government was transferred from Philadelphia to the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia.

The *District of Columbia* is a territory of ten miles square. It is about three hundred miles from the sea, at

the head of tide water on the Potomac, which runs through it diagonally, near the centre. It was ceded, in 1790, to the United States, by Maryland and Virginia, and it is under the immediate government of congress.

Sec. 8. On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Adams' term of office as president would expire. Before the arrival of the time for a new election, it had been pretty certainly predicted, that he could not be re-elected. His administration, through the whole course of it, had been the subject of much popular clamor, especially by the democratic party. But the measures, which most excited the opposition of that party, and which were most successfully employed to destroy the popularity of Mr. Adams' administration, and to place the government in other hands, were several laws passed during his presidency, among which were the "*Alien*" and "*Sedition*" laws.

By the "*alien law*," the president was authorized to order any alien, whom "he should judge dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States, &c., to depart out of the territory, within such time" as he should judge proper, upon penalty of being "imprisoned for a term not exceeding three years," &c.

The design of the "*sedition law*," so called, was to punish the abuse of speech, and of the press. It imposed a heavy pecuniary fine, and imprisonment for a term of years, upon such as should combine or conspire together to oppose any measure of government; upon such as should write, print, utter, publish, &c., "any false, scandalous, and malicious writing against the government of the United States, or either house of the congress of the United States, or the president," &c.

These acts, together with others for raising a standing army, and imposing a direct tax and internal duties, with other causes, so increased the opposition to Mr. Adams' administration, as to prevent his re-election, and greatly to weaken

the strength of that party to whom he owed his elevation to the presidency.

Sec. 9. The strife of parties, during the term of electioneering, was spirited. On canvassing the votes of the electors for president, it was found that Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr had each seventy-three votes, Mr. Adams sixty-five, and C. C. Pinckney sixty-four. As the constitution provided that the person having the greatest number of votes should be president, and Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr having an equal number, it became the duty of the house of representatives, voting by states, to decide between these two gentlemen.

The ballot was taken for several days in succession, February, 1801, before a choice was made. The federalists generally supported Mr. Burr; the democratic party Mr. Jefferson. At length, after much political heat and party animosity, the choice fell upon the latter, who was declared to be elected president of the United States for four years, commencing March 4th, 1801. Mr. Burr was elected vice president.

As this was the first time that the election of president had come before congress, since the adoption of the constitution, a deep interest was taken in the subject. This interest was heightened by the excited state of parties, into which congress itself, and the people of the United States, were divided. The mode of proceeding to the election of president, therefore, was settled in due form, and solemnity. Among other rules, it was settled, that after the balloting had commenced, the house should not adjourn, until a choice was made; that the doors of the house should be closed, during the balloting, except against the officers of the house; that in balloting the representatives of the respective states should be so seated, that the delegation of each state should be together. The representatives of each state were to ballot among themselves—duplicates of these ballots were to be made, and placed in two ballot boxes. When all the

states had thus voted, the ballot boxes were to be carried by the serjeant at arms to two separate tables. The ballots were then to be counted by tellers, eight in number, at each table. When counted, the reports were to be announced from each table; if these reports agreed, they were to be accepted, as the true votes of the states; if they differed, a new balloting was to be made.

On Wednesday, the 11th of February, the votes from the several electoral colleges were counted in the senate chamber, in presence of both houses; and the result was declared by the president to be, no choice—Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr having each an equal number of votes.

The question therefore devolving upon the house of representatives, that body returned to their chamber, where seats had been previously prepared for the members of the senate. A call of the members of the house, arranged according to states, was then made; upon which, it appeared that every member was present, except General Sumpter, who was unwell, and unable to attend. Mr. Nicholson, of Maryland, was also unwell, but attended, and had a bed prepared for him in one of the committee rooms, to which place the ballot box was carried to him, by the tellers, on the part of the state.

The first ballot was eight states for Mr. Jefferson, six for Mr. Burr, and two divided; which result continued to be the same after balloting thirty-five times. The thirty-sixth ballot determined the question.

This important decision took place at twelve o'clock on the 17th of February, when there appeared for Mr. Jefferson ten states; for Mr. Burr four states; and the remaining two were blank ballots. The states which voted for Mr. Jefferson were, Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New-Jersey, New-York, and Vermont. The states for Mr. Burr were, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. The blank states were Delaware and South Carolina

NOTES.

Sec. 10. MANNERS. The manners of the people of the United States underwent no marked change during this period.

Sec. 11. RELIGION. Although infidelity does not seem to have made much progress in the

United States, during this period, it was evident that it had taken deep root in many minds.

Infidels, however, were less confident, and less ready to avow their sentiments. They stood abashed before the world, at the fearful and blood-chilling horrors which their principles had poured out upon France. Their doctrines were, at the same time, powerfully refuted by the ablest men both in England and America. At length, they ceased to make proselytes, spoke favorably of the Christian religion, generally admitted that it was absolutely necessary to good government; and error, with regard to religion, assumed a new form.

Towards the close of this period, a revival of religion commenced in New-England, and seems to have been the beginning of that series of revivals which have since overspread the United States. Some sects which had before regarded "revivals of religion" with suspicion or aversion, became convinced of their utility, and began to promote them.

Sec. 12. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Trade and commerce were still prosperous, and the remarks made in respect to them, under period VII., apply to them during this period.

The exports, in 1801, were ninety-three millions twenty thousand five hundred and seventy-three dollars; the imports, one hundred and eleven millions three hundred and sixty-three thousand five hundred and eleven dollars.

Sec. 13. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture still continued to flourish.

Sec. 14. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. The general remarks on the preceding period, relative to this subject, apply, without material alteration, to this period.

Sec. 15. POPULATION. The number of inhabitants, at the close of this period, was not far from five millions five hundred thousand.

Sec. 16. EDUCATION. We have nothing particular to observe in relation to education. Public and private schools, however, were multiplied,

as the people increased, and as new settlements were made.

In 1798, a college was founded at Lexington, Kentucky, called the Transylvania University. Middlebury College, in Vermont, was founded in 1800. At the commencement of the 18th century, there was, in New-England, but one college completely founded, but now there were six; in the colonies south of Connecticut, there was only one, but now there were fifteen or sixteen.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD IX.

DISTINGUISHED FOR JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION

Extending from the inauguration of President Jefferson, 1801, to the inauguration of James Madison, as president of the United States, 1809.

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Jefferson, agreeably to the constitution, was regularly inducted into the office of president of the United States.

At the time of his inauguration, Mr. Jefferson delivered an address, expressive of his political opinions, and the principles by which he designed to shape his administration. These were, "Equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever state or persuasion, religious or political: peace, commerce, and honest friendship, with all nations, entangling alliances with none:—the support of the state governments in all their rights, as the most competent administration for our domestic concerns, and the surest bulwarks against anti-republican tendencies:—the preservation of the general government in its whole constitutional vigor, as the sheet anchor of our peace at home, and safety abroad:—a jealous care of the right of election by the people, a mild and safe corrective of abuses which are lopped by the sword of revolution where peaceable remedies are unprovided:—absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority, the vital principle of republics, from which is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of despotisms:—a well disciplined militia, our best reliance in peace, and for the first moments of war, till regulars may relieve them:—the supremacy of the civil over the military authority:—economy in the public expense. that labor may be lightly bur-

thened:—the honest payment of our debts, and sacred preservation of the public faith:—encouragement of agriculture, and of commerce as its handmaid:—the diffusion of information, and arraignment of all abuses at the bar of public reason:—freedom of religion:—freedom of the press:—and freedom of person, under the protection of the habeas corpus—and trial by juries impartially selected. These principles," added Mr. Jefferson, "should be the creed of our political faith; and should we wander from them in moments of error or of alarm, let us hasten to retrace our steps, and to regain the road which alone leads to peace, liberty, and safety."

Sec. 2. The commencement of Mr. Jefferson's administration was marked by a removal, from responsible and lucrative offices, of a great portion of those whose political opinions were opposed to his own, on the ground, that most of the offices, at the disposal of the government, had been exclusively bestowed on the adherents of the opposite party.

In a reply to a remonstrance of the merchants of New-Haven, against the removal from office of a federal collector of that port, and the appointment of a gentleman of opposite politics, the president formally assigned this as the reason of the course he pursued:

"It would have been to me," said he, in that reply, "a circumstance of great relief, had I found a moderate participation of office in the hands of the majority, (the democratic party.) I would gladly have left to time and accident to raise them to their just share. But their *total* exclusion calls for prompter correctives. I shall correct the procedure; ut that done, return with joy to that state of things, when the only question concerning a candidate shall be, Is he honest? Is he capable? Is he faithful to the constitution?"

Sec. 3. Congress met on the 8th of December. In his speech at the opening of the session, the president recommended the abolition of the internal taxes; the repeal of the act passed towards the close of Mr. Adams' administration, reorganizing the United States courts, and erect-

ing sixteen new judges; and an enlargement of the rights of naturalization. The debates on these several topics, in both houses of congress, were extended to great length, and displayed much eloquence, argument, and warmth. The recommendation of the president, notwithstanding the opposition, prevailed, and bills in accordance therewith were passed.

The internal taxes, from the time of their establishment, had been extremely unpopular with the party which had elevated Mr. Jefferson to the presidency. It was a favorite measure, therefore, of his, to procure their abolition.

The national judicial establishment originally consisted of a supreme court, with six judges, who twice a year made a tour of the United States in three circuits. Under this arrangement, great inconveniences were experienced by the court, the bar, and the suitors. The new arrangement in the judicial system, and the increase of judges at the close of Mr. Adams' term, had excited, in a large portion of the citizens, the hope of a more prompt and impartial administration of justice. To that portion of the community, the repealing act was a painful disappointment.

Sec. 4. In 1802, OHIO was admitted, by act of congress, as an independent state, into the union.

The state of Ohio derived its name from the river Ohio, which sweeps the southeastern border of the state.

Until 1787, it was inhabited only by Indians, a few Moravians, and trespassers on lands belonging to the public. By virtue of her charter, the territory was claimed by Virginia, and held by her, although the original charter of Connecticut, extending west to the Pacific Ocean, included a great part of it.

In 1781, the legislature of Virginia ceded to the United States all her rights to the territory northwest of the river Ohio, excepting some few military tracts. In 1788, the first settlement was begun at Marietta, under Gen. Rufus Putnam, from New-England. It had been, the year before, erected into one district, including the present territories of Michigan, Illinois, and Indiana.

Until 1795, the settlement of Ohio was retarded by constant wars with the Indians. But at that time, a general peace with the different tribes being effected by Gen. Wayne,

under Washington, the population of the territory rapidly increased by emigrations from Europe, and still more from New-England.

Sec. 5. In July, 1804, occurred the death of Gen. Alexander Hamilton, who fell in a duel fought with Aaron Burr, vice-president of the United States.

Col. Burr had addressed a letter to Gen. Hamilton, in which he demanded a denial or acknowledgment, on the part of the latter, of certain offensive expressions, contained in a public paper. Hamilton, declining to give either, was challenged by Burr. Although averse, from principle, to this mode of settling personal controversies, in an evil moment, Hamilton, actuated by a false sense of honor, accepted the challenge, and on meeting his enemy, fell by means of his first fire. Among his personal and political friends, his death caused a deep sensation. The people of New-York city, in which he resided, paid him extraordinary honors. Few men have shone with greater brilliancy in our country; few have been gifted with a more powerful eloquence, or have been more justly respected for their talents or attainments.

Sec. 6. Mr. Jefferson's first term of office ending this year, a new election took place, at which he was re-chosen president, and on the 4th of March again took the oath of office. George Clinton, of New-York, was elected vice-president.

Sec. 7. During the year which commenced the second of Mr. Jefferson's presidency, a war which had been continued for several years between the United States and Tripoli, was concluded, and a treaty of peace negotiated by Colonel Lear, between the two countries, by which the Tripolitan and American prisoners were exchanged, and the sum of sixty thousand dollars given to the pacha.

The history of this war deserves a place in these pages. The commerce of the United States had been long annoyed by the Tripolitan cruisers—many merchantmen had been taken, and their crews imprisoned and cruelly treated.

As early as 1803, a squadron under Com. Preble had been sent to the Mediterranean, to protect the American commerce, and to bring the corsairs to submission. During the same year, Capt. Bainbridge, in the *Philadelphia*, joined Com. Preble, and in chasing a cruiser into the harbor of Tripoli, grounded his vessel, and he and his crew were taken prisoners.

Shortly after the surrender of the *Philadelphia*, the *Tripolitans* got her afloat, and warped her into the outward harbor. In this situation, Lieutenant, afterwards Commodore, Decatur, conceived the bold plan of attempting to set her on fire. He had the day before captured a small xebec, laden with fruit and oil, which was bound to Tripoli; and having on board the *Enterprise*, which he commanded, an old pilot, who understood the Tripolitan language, he suggested his plan to Commodore Preble, who approved of it. He would accept of only twenty men, although a much greater number volunteered, and but one officer, Mr. Morris, a midshipman. With these men, concealed in the bottom of the xebec, on the approach of night, he sailed for the *Philadelphia*, taking with him the old pilot. On approaching the frigate, the xebec was hailed, when the pilot answered, that he had lost his cable and anchor, and begged permission to make fast to the frigate, until the morning. This the crew refused, but said he might make fast to their stern hawser, until they sent a boat to the admiral for leave.

As the boat put off for the shore, Lieutenant Decatur, with his brave companions, leaped on board the frigate, and in a few minutes swept the deck of every Tripolitan. Of fifty, not one reached the shore. The frigate was now set on fire, and while the flames rose, to spread consternation among the Tripolitans, they served to lighten the heroic Decatur and his band back in safety to the American squadron. Of the party, not one was killed, and but one wounded. This was a seaman, who saved the life of his commander. In the first desperate struggle on board the *Philadelphia*, Decatur was disarmed, and fell. A sabre was already lifted to strike the fatal blow, when this seaman, observing the perilous situation of his officer, reached forward, and received the blow of the sabre on his arm.

In consequence of the burning of the *Philadelphia*, the sufferings of Commodore Bainbridge and his crew, as well as those of other Americans in captivity at Tripoli, were greatly increased. The accounts of their sufferings, transmitted to the United States, excited the sympathy of all

classes, and a general cry for exertions to effect their deliverance was heard from all parts of the union.

It happened, that some time before this, the then reigning bashaw of Tripoli, Jussuf, third son of the late bashaw, had murdered his father and eldest brother, and proposed to murder the second, in order to possess himself of the throne. But the latter, Hamet Caramelli, made his escape, and Jussuf, without farther opposition, usurped the government.

Hamet took refuge in Egypt, where he was kindly treated by the beys. Here he was, on the arrival of an accredited agent of the United States, General Eaton, who revived his almost expiring hopes of regaining his rightful kingdom.

General Eaton had been consul for the United States up the Mediterranean, and was returning home when he heard of the situation of Hamet. Conceiving a plan of liberating the Americans in captivity at Tripoli, by means of the assistance of Hamet, and, at the same time, of restoring this exile to his throne, he advised with Hamet, who readily listened to the project, and gave his co-operation.

A convention was accordingly entered into between Gen. Eaton, on the part of the United States, and Hamet, by which the latter stipulated much in favor of the Americans, and was promised to be restored to his throne.

With a small force, consisting of seamen from the American squadron, the followers of Hamet, and some Egyptian troops, Gen. Eaton and Hamet, with incredible toil and suffering, passed the desert of Barca, and took possession of Derne, the capital of a large province belonging to the kingdom of Tripoli. The forces of Eaton were now so much increased, and the cause of Hamet had become so popular, that the prospect was flattering of his being able to reduce the city of Tripoli, and of effecting the liberation of the captives without ransom.

The success of Eaton struck the usurper Jussuf with terror. Trembling for his fate in this juncture, he proposed to Mr. Lear, the consul-general of America, then in the Mediterranean, to enter into negotiation. Mr. Lear, who was authorized to enter into negotiation, accepted the proposal, although he knew of the success of Eaton and Hamet, and a treaty ensued. Eaton and Hamet were consequently arrested in the prosecution of their purpose, and the unfortunate exile failed of his promised restoration to the throne.

In 1805, Hamet visited the United States, with the expectation of obtaining some remuneration for his services from America, and for her failure in fulfilling her stipulations to him by Gen. Eaton. A proposition to this effect was brought before congress, but after much discussion was rejected.

Sec. 8. During this year, 1805, MICHIGAN became a distinct territorial government of the United States.

The Michigan territory, when first discovered by the whites, was inhabited by the *Hurons*, a tribe of Indians, many of whom were converted to Christianity by the Jesuit missionaries in 1648. About the year 1670, the Hurons were defeated and dispersed by the Six Nations, about which time, the French took possession of the territory, and built a fort at Detroit, and another at Michillimackinac. Little, however, was done by the French to settle the country.

At the peace of 1763, the territory was ceded by the French to Great Britain, and by the latter to the United States in 1783. Until 1787, it remained in the same state of nature, without a government, or any considerable settlements; but at this time, the several states which had claims upon it, ceded them to the United States, and a territorial government was instituted over all the territory, northwest of the Ohio.

This territory remained under one government until 1800, when the present state of Ohio was detached, and made a distinct government. This was followed, in 1801, by a farther separation of Indiana and Illinois; and, in 1805, Michigan was also detached, and was erected into a distinct territorial government. Gen. Hull was appointed by Mr. Jefferson the first governor.

Sec. 9. In the autumn of 1806, a project was detected, at the head of which was Col. Burr, for revolutionizing the territory west of the Alleganies, and of establishing an independent empire there, of which New-Orleans was to be the capital, and himself the chief. Towards the accomplishment of this scheme, which, it afterwards appeared, had been some time in contemplation, the skilful cunning and intrigue of Col.

Burr were directed. Happily, however, government, being apprised of his designs, arrested him, while as yet he had few adherents, and before his standard was raised. He was brought to trial at Richmond, on a charge of treason committed within the district of Virginia; but no overt act being proved against him in that state, he was released.

In addition to this project, Col. Burr had formed another, which, in case of failure in the first, might be carried on independently of it:—this was an attack on Mexico, and the establishment of an empire there. “A third object was provided, merely ostensible, to wit, the settlement of the pretended purchase of a tract of country on the Washita, claimed by a Baron Bastrop. This was to serve as a pretext for all his preparations, an allurements for such followers as really wished to acquire settlements in that country, and a cover under which to retreat in the event of a final discomfiture of both branches of his real designs.”

“He found at once that the attachment of the western country to the present union was not to be shaken; that its dissolution could not be effected with the consent of the inhabitants; and that his resources were inadequate, as yet, to effect it by force. He determined, therefore, to seize New-Orleans, plunder the bank there, possess himself of the military and naval stores, and proceed on his expedition to Mexico.”

“He collected, therefore, from all quarters, where himself or his agents possessed influence, all the ardent, restless, desperate, disaffected persons, who were for an enterprise analogous to their characters. He also seduced good, well-meaning citizens, some by assurances that he possessed the confidence of the government, and was acting under its secret patronage; and others by offers of land in Bastrop's claim in the Washita.”*

Sec. 10. 1806. To understand the subsequent political history of the United States, and those measures of government, which were taken in relation to foreign powers, it is necessary to glance at the state of the European nations, at this pe-

* President's Message to Congress, July 21, 1807.

riod—particularly that of England and France. These two countries were now at war with each other, and in their controversies had involved most of the continental powers. Towards the belligerents, America was endeavoring to maintain a neutrality, and peaceably to continue a commerce with them. It was hardly to be expected, however, that jealousies would not arise between the contending powers in relation to the conduct of America, and that events would not occur, calculated to injure her commerce, and disturb her peace.

In addition to these circumstances, a controversy had long existed, and continued to exist, between the United States and Great Britain, in respect to the right of searching neutral ships, and impressing seamen. Great Britain claimed it as among her prerogatives to take her native born subjects, wherever found, for her navy, and of searching American vessels for that purpose. As yet, no adjustment of this controversy had been effected. Notwithstanding the remonstrances of the American government, the officers of the British navy not unfrequently seized native born British subjects, who had voluntarily enlisted on board our vessels. They also impressed into the British service some thousands of American seamen.

Sec. 11. May 16th, 1806, the British government issued an order in council, declaring the ports and rivers from the Elbe, a river in Germany, to Brest, a town of France, to be in a state of blockade. By this order, American vessels, trading to these and intervening ports, were liable to seizure and condemnation.

Sec. 12. In the ensuing November, 1806, Bona-

parte issued his celebrated decree at Berlin, called the "*Berlin decree*," by which all the British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade, and all intercourse with them was prohibited. This decree violated the treaty between the United States and France, and the law of nations.

The following are the principal articles of that decree, which related to the obstruction of American commerce:

1. The British islands are in a state of blockade.
2. All commerce and correspondence with them is prohibited.
3. No vessel coming directly from England, or her colonies, or having been there since the publication of this decree, shall be admitted into any port.

Sec. 13. This decree of Bonaparte at Berlin, was in part retaliated by the British government, in an *order of council*, issued January 7th, 1807, by which all coasting trade with France was prohibited.

"Whereas the French government has issued certain orders, which purport to prohibit the commerce of all neutral nations with his majesty's dominions," &c.—"his majesty is pleased to order, that no vessel shall be permitted to trade from one port to another, both which ports shall belong to, or be in possession of, France or her allies, or shall be so far under their control as that British vessels may not freely trade thereat," &c., on pain of capture and condemnation.

Sec. 14. While measures were thus taking by France and England, whose tendency was to injure American commerce, and to involve her in a controversy with both, an event occurred, which filled the American people with indignation, and called for immediate executive notice. This was an attack upon the American frigate Chesapeake, Commodore Barron, off the capes of Virginia, by the British frigate Leopard of fifty guns. The attack was occasioned by the

refusal of Commodore Barron to surrender several seamen, who had deserted from the British armed ship *Melampus*, a short time previous, and had voluntarily enlisted on board the *Chesapeake*. After crippling the American frigate, which made no resistance, the commander of the *Leopard* took from her the seamen in question, two of whom had been proved to be American citizens.

The persons who deserted from the *Melampus*, then lying in Hampton roads, were William Ware, Daniel Martin, John Strachan, John Little, and Ambrose Watts. Within a month from their escape from the *Melampus*, the first three of these deserters offered themselves for enlistment, and were received on board the *Chesapeake*, then at Norfolk, Virginia, preparing for sea.

The British consul at Norfolk, being apprized of this circumstance, wrote a letter to the American naval officer, requesting these men to be returned. With this request the officer refusing to comply, the British agent lost no time in endeavoring to procure an order from government for their surrender. In consequence of this application, the secretary of the navy ordered an examination into the characters and claims of the men in question. The required examination resulted in proof that Ware, Martin, and Strachan, were natives of America. The two former had *protections*, or notarial certificates of their being American citizens. Strachan had no *protection*, but asserted that he lost it previous to his escape. Such being the circumstances of the men, the government refused to surrender them.

On the 22d of June, the *Chesapeake* weighed anchor and proceeded to sea. She passed the British ships *Bellona* and *Melampus*, lying in Lynnhaven bay, whose appearance was friendly. There were two other ships that lay off Cape Henry, one of which, the *Leopard*, Captain Humphreys, weighed anchor, and in a few hours came along side the *Chesapeake*.

A British officer immediately came on board, and demanded the deserters. To this, Capt. Barron replied, that he did not know of any being there, and that his duty forbade him to allow of any muster of his crew, except by their own officers.

During this interview, Barron noticed some proceedings of a hostile nature on board the adverse ship, but he could not be persuaded, that any thing but menace was intended by them. After the British officer departed, he gave orders to clear his gun deck, and after some time, he directed his men to their quarters, secretly, and without beat of drum; still, however, without any serious apprehensions of an attack.

Before these orders could be executed, the Leopard commenced a heavy fire. This fire unfortunately was very destructive. In about thirty minutes, the hull, rigging, and spars of the Chesapeake, were greatly damaged, three men were killed and sixteen wounded; among the latter was the captain himself. Such was the previous disorder, that during this time, the utmost exertions were insufficient to prepare the ship for action, and the captain thought proper to strike his colors.

The British captain refused to accept the surrender of the Chesapeake, but took from her crew, Ware, Martin, and Strachan, the three men formerly demanded as deserters, and a fourth, John Wilson, claimed as a runaway from a merchant ship.

Sec. 15. Such was the agitation of the public mind, in consequence of this outrage committed on the Chesapeake, that the president conceived himself required to notice the transaction, and by some decisive public act, to show how deeply America conceived herself to be wounded. Accordingly, on the 2d of July, the president issued his proclamation, ordering all British armed vessels to leave the waters of the United States, and forbidding them to enter, until satisfaction for the attack on the Chesapeake should be made by the British government.

Mr. Monroe was at this time the minister of the United States, at the court of St. James. Early in September, he received the instructions of the American government, pertaining to the attack on the Chesapeake, and was required to demand reparation for that attack, and, as an

essential part of that reparation, security against future impressments from American ships. The British minister, Mr. Canning, however, protested against conjoining the *general question* concerning the impressment of persons from neutral merchant ships, with the *particular affray* between the Leopard and the Chesapeake.

As Mr. Monroe was not authorized to treat these subjects separately, further negotiation between these two ministers was suspended, and Mr. Rose was appointed, by the British government, as a special minister to the United States, empowered to treat concerning the *particular* injury complained of, but not to discuss the *general* question of impressing persons from merchant ships.

Sec. 16. While such measures were taking in England, in relation to the affair of the Chesapeake, congress, which had been summoned before the regular time, by proclamation of the president, met on the 27th of October.

In his message to congress at this time, the president entered fully into the state of our relations with Great Britain—informed them of a treaty which had been negotiated with the British government, by Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney, but which he had rejected, principally because it made no sufficient provision on the subject of impressments—stated the affair of the attack on the Chesapeake—his proclamation to British armed vessels to quit the waters of the United States—his instructions to the American minister at London, in relation to reparation expected from the British government, and his expectation of speedily hearing from England the result of the measures which had been taken.

Sec. 17. On the 11th of November, were issued at London, the celebrated *British Orders in Council*, retaliatory upon the French government

for the Berlin decree of November, 1806. By these orders in council, France and her allies, all nations at war with Great Britain, and all places from which the British flag is excluded, were declared to be under the same restrictions in point of trade and navigation, as if the same were in a state of blockade.

Sec. 18. Before the arrival of Mr. Rose, congress was sedulously employed in considering the state of the nation, and in making provision for putting the country in a posture of defence. Acts passed, appropriating one million of dollars to be employed by the president in equipping one hundred thousand of the national militia; eight hundred and fifty-two thousand five hundred dollars for building one hundred and eighty-eight gun-boats; one million of dollars for building, repairing, and completing fortifications, and for raising six thousand six hundred men, infantry, riflemen, artillery, and dragoons, as an addition to the standing army. On the 22d of December, an act passed, laying an *embargo* on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States.

Sec. 19. On the 17th of December, Bonaparte, by way of retaliating the British orders in council, issued a decree, called "*the Milan decree*," declaring every vessel denationalized, which shall have submitted to a search by a British ship; and every vessel a good prize, which shall sail to or from Great Britain, or any of its colonies, or countries, occupied by British troops.

Sec. 20. Mr. Rose arrived in America on the 25th of December. The American minister was soon after informed, that he, Mr. Rose, was expressly forbidden by his government to make

any proposal, touching the great subject of complaint, so long as the president's proclamation of July 2d, excluding British armed vessels from the waters of the United States, should be in force.

For a time, the president refused to annul this proclamation, till the atonement was not only solemnly offered, but formally accepted; but, in order to elude this difficulty, he finally agreed to revoke his proclamation, on the day of the date of the act, or treaty, by which reparation should be made for the recent violence. This concession, however, was built on two conditions: first, the terms of reparation which the minister was charged to offer, must be previously made known; and, secondly, they must be such as by the president should be accounted satisfactory.

But as the British minister declined to offer, or even to mention, the redress of which he was the bearer, till the American proclamation was recalled, and the president deeming its recall inexpedient, the controversy, for the present, closed.

The controversy respecting the Chesapeake was finally adjusted in November, 1811, at which time the British minister communicated to the secretary of state, that the attack on the Chesapeake was unauthorized by his majesty's government; that the officer, at that time in command on the American coast, had been recalled; that the men taken from the Chesapeake should be restored; and that suitable pecuniary provision should be made for those who suffered in the attack, and for the families of the seamen that fell. To these propositions the president acceded.

Sec. 21. The difficulties with France and England, regarding commerce, still continuing, and the existing embargo having failed to coerce these powers, as was anticipated, into an acknowledgment of our rights, a more complete

stop to our intercourse with them was deemed advisable by congress. Accordingly, on the 1st of March, congress interdicted, by law, all trade and intercourse with France and England.

Sec. 22. Mr. Jefferson's second term of office expired on the 3d of March. Having previously declined a re-election, James Madison was chosen president, and George Clinton vice-president.

NOTES.

Sec. 23. MANNERS. The bitterness of party spirit, which had now raged in the United States for some years, began to have a visible effect upon society. It interrupted, to no small extent, the general harmony, and even restrained the intercourse of friends and neighborhoods. The strife for power, also introduced a disposition to intrigue; political cunning became fashionable, and political duplicity lost much of its deformity. These things necessarily affected the state of manners. They withdrew the finger of derision, which used to point at meanness of all kinds, and blunted that love of honor, and manliness of conduct, which existed before. Cunning began to take the place of wisdom; professions answered instead of deeds; and duplicity stalked forth with the boldness of integrity.

Sec. 24. RELIGION. Powerful revivals of religion pervaded the country, during this period, and tended strongly to prevent open infidelity and to check the tide of pollution, which was invisibly spread over the land.

Sec. 25. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Trade and commerce made great advances about the year 1803. The European powers being involved in war, and the United States remaining neutral,

our vessels carried to Europe, not only the produce of our own country, but also the produce of other countries. This is usually called the *carrying trade*, and was very profitable to the country.

In 1805, 6, and 7, our average annual exports amounted to one hundred and two millions five hundred and sixty-seven thousand four hundred and fifty-four dollars, of which forty-four millions eight hundred and sixty-three thousand five hundred and seventeen dollars, were for domestic produce; and fifty-seven millions seven hundred and one thousand nine hundred and thirty-seven dollars, for foreign produce. The annual average of imports during these three years, amounted to about one hundred and forty millions of dollars; a large proportion of the articles forming this amount, were re-exported to the West Indies, South America, and elsewhere.

After the year 1807, the commercial restrictions laid by France and England, began to curtail our trade; and the embargo, imposed at the close of the same year, by our government, interrupted it still more essentially.

Sec. 26. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture, during a part of this period, received great encouragement from our foreign trade. Europe being involved in contentions, the people had little leisure there to cultivate the soil; they were therefore supplied from other countries, and the United States furnished them with a great amount, and were thence deriving great profits, when the commercial restrictions interrupted the trade.

The first *merino* sheep were introduced into the country, in 1802, by Robert R. Livingston, and the same year, a greater number, one hundred, by General Humphreys, then late minister to Spain. Great attention was paid to the breeding of them, and they are now numerous in the United States.

Sec. 27. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. Arts and manufactures still progressed.

Sec. 28. POPULATION. The population of the

United States, at the close of Mr. Jefferson's administration, was about seven millions.

Sec. 29. EDUCATION. The enlightened views respecting the importance of general information, entertained before, continued to prevail. New literary and scientific publications were commenced; more enlightened methods of instruction were adopted; academies were multiplied; colleges founded; and theological seminaries liberally endowed.

A theological seminary was founded at Andover, Massachusetts, in 1808. The amount, which has been contributed for its permanent use, and which was given by six families, is more than three hundred thousand dollars. This sum includes the permanent fund, library, and public buildings. In 1822, the officers were four professors, and the number of students, one hundred and thirty-two. The library contains about five thousand volumes. A majority of the students are supported, in whole or in part, by charity.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD X.

DISTINGUISHED FOR MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION,
AND THE LATE WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN,

Extending from the inauguration of President Madison, 1809, to the inauguration of James Monroe, as president of the United States, 1817

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, 1809, Mr. Madison was inducted into the office of president of the United States, according to the form prescribed by the constitution.

The situation of the United States, on the accession of Mr. Madison to the presidency, was in several respects gloomy and critical. The two great powers of Europe, France and England, were still at war, and were continuing to array against each other the most violent commercial edicts, both in contravention of the laws of nations, and of their own solemn treaties; and calculated to injure and destroy the commerce of nations, desirous of preserving a neutrality. America was also farther suffering under the restrictions of commerce, imposed by her own government. Every effort to secure the due observance of her rights, from the contending powers, had hitherto failed, and the sad alternative was presenting itself to the American people, either to suffer the evils growing out of foreign and do-

mestic restrictions, or to take up arms, and risk the consequence of a war with the belligerents.

Sec. 2. Previously to the adjournment of the last congress, under Mr. Jefferson, an act passed, as already noticed, 1st of March, repealing the then existing embargo, and interdicting commercial intercourse with France and Great Britain. Should either of these powers, however, revoke their edicts, the president was authorized to renew the intercourse.

April 18th, the British minister, Mr. Erskine, informed the secretary of state, Mr. Smith, that his majesty's government, considering the non-intercourse act, passed March 1st, as having produced an *equality* in the relations of the two belligerent powers with respect to the United States, would be willing to rescind the orders in council of January and November, 1807, so far as it respected the United States, provided the president would issue a proclamation for the renewal of intercourse with Great Britain. This proposal was readily accepted. The British minister, in consequence of this acceptance, stated himself authorized to declare that the above orders in council would be withdrawn, as it respected the United States, on the succeeding 10th of June. A proclamation by the president soon after followed, renewing the intercourse with Great Britain, from and after that time.

This event produced the highest satisfaction throughout the country; but was speedily followed by a disappointment as great. The British government denied the authority of Mr. Erskine to enter into any such stipulations, and refused its ratification. On learning this refusal, the president issued his proclamation, August

10th, renewing the non-intercourse with Great Britain.

Sec. 3. Early in September, Mr. Jackson arrived at Washington, as successor of Mr. Erskine. A correspondence was soon commenced between this minister and the secretary of state, which, after continuing several weeks, without adjusting any differences between the two countries, was suddenly closed, by the president, on account of an alledged insult on the part of Mr. Jackson.

In the course of correspondence with the secretary, Mr. Jackson had repeatedly asserted that the American executive could not but know, from the powers exhibited by Mr. Erskine, that in the above stipulations he had transcended those powers, and was therefore acting without the authority of his government. This was deemed by the executive equivalent to a declaration, that the American government did know that Mr. Erskine was exceeding his powers. The British minister denied the legitimacy of such an inference—but the executive, regarding his language as reflecting upon the honor and integrity of the American government, closed the correspondence—soon after which, Mr. Jackson was recalled, but without the censure of his government.

Sec. 4. 1810. On the 23d of March, Bonaparte issued a decree, usually called the “Rambouillet decree,” designed to retaliate the act of congress, passed March 1st, 1809, which forbade French vessels entering the ports of the United States. By the above decree, all American vessels and cargoes, arriving in any of the ports of France, or of countries occupied by French troops, were ordered to be seized and condemned.

Sec. 5. On the 1st of May, congress passed an act, excluding British and French armed vessels from the waters of the United States; but, at the same time, providing, that in case either of the above nations should modify its edicts before

the third of March, 1811, so that they should cease to violate neutral commerce, of which fact the president was to give notice by proclamation, and the other nation should not, within three months after, pursue a similar step, commercial intercourse with the former might be renewed, but not with the latter.

Sec. 6. In consequence of this act of the American government, the French minister, the Duke of Cadore, at Paris, informed the American minister, Mr. Armstrong, then in France, that the Berlin and Milan decrees were revoked, and that, from and after the 1st of November, they would cease to have effect. But, at the same time, it was subjoined, that it was "understood, that, in consequence of this declaration, the English shall revoke their orders in council," &c. About the same time, it was announced that the Rambouillet decree had also been rescinded.

Although the condition subjoined to the Duke of Cadore's declaration rendered it doubtful whether the Berlin and Milan decrees would *in fact* cease to take effect, after the 1st of November, the president issued his proclamation on the 2d of that month, declaring that those decrees were revoked, and that intercourse between the United States and France might be renewed.

Sec. 7. While the affairs of America, in relation to the belligerents, were in this posture, an unhappy engagement took place, May, 1811, between the American frigate *President*, commanded by Captain Rodgers, and a British sloop of war, the *Little Belt*, commanded by Captain Bingham. The attack was commenced by the

latter vessel, without provocation, and, in the rencontre, suffered greatly in her men and rigging.

A court of inquiry was ordered on the conduct of Capt. Rodgers, which decided that it had been satisfactorily proved to the court, that Capt. Rodgers hailed the *Little Belt* first—that his hail was not satisfactorily answered—that the *Little Belt* fired the first gun—and that it was without previous provocation, or justifiable cause, &c. &c.

Sec. 8. Congress was assembled by proclamation on the 5th of November. In his message, at the opening of the session, the president indicated the expectation of hostilities with Great Britain at no distant period, since her orders in council, instead of being withdrawn, were, when least to have been expected, put into more rigorous execution.

“I must now add,” continues the president, in his message, “that the period has arrived, which claims from the legislative guardians of the national rights, a system of more ample provision for maintaining them.”—“With” such full “evidence of the hostile inflexibility” of Great Britain, “in trampling on rights which no independent nation can relinquish, congress will feel the duty of putting the United States into an armour and an attitude demanded by the crisis, and corresponding with the national spirit and expectations.”

On the 29th, the committee on foreign relations presented their report, in which, adopting the language of the president’s message, they strongly recommended, “That the United States be immediately put into an armour and attitude demanded by the crisis, and corresponding with the national spirit and expectations.” Bills agreeable to this recommendation passed congress, preparatory to a state of hostilities, among which was one for raising twenty-five thousand men.

Sec. 8. In December, the president communicated to congress an official account of the battle of "*Tippecanoe*"—near a branch of the Wabash—fought November 7th, between an army under Gen. Harrison, governor of the Indiana Territory, and a large body of Indians, in which the latter were defeated.

The attack was commenced by the Indians, about four o'clock in the morning, while the army of Harrison were in a measure unprepared. But, notwithstanding this disadvantage, after a hard fought action, the Indians were repulsed with a loss of nearly seventy killed, and upwards of a hundred wounded. The loss of the Americans was severe, being, according to official return, one hundred and eighty-eight in killed and wounded.

Sec. 10. During the following year, 1812, LOUISIANA was admitted into the union as a sovereign state.

Until the year 1811, Louisiana comprehended that vast tract of country, which was ceded to the United States by France, in 1803. At that time, however, the *Territory of Orleans*, which was then a distinct territorial government, assumed the name of Louisiana, and was admitted the following year as a state into the Union; since which time, the remaining portion of original Louisiana has received distinct denominations.

Louisiana was first discovered in 1541, by Ferdinand de Soto. In 1683, Monsieur de la Salle, an enterprising Frenchman, sailed up the Mississippi a considerable distance, and named the country Louisiana, in honor of Louis XIV. A French settlement was begun in 1699, by M. d'Iberville, in Lower Louisiana, near the mouth of the river Perdido. The progress of the colony was slow. In 1712, although twenty-five hundred emigrants had arrived, only four hundred whites and twenty negroes were alive.

About this time, the French government made a grant of the country to M. de Crozat for a term of ten years; but after five years he relinquished his patent to the Mississippi company. In the same year, 1717, the city of Orleans was founded.

By the treaty of 1763, all Louisiana east of the Mississippi was ceded to England, together with Mobile, and all the

possessions of France in that quarter. About the same time, the possessions of France west of the Mississippi were secretly ceded to Spain. After the cession to Great Britain, that part of the territory which lay west of the Mississippi received the name of West Florida. On the breaking out of the revolutionary war, Spain, after considerable hesitation, took part with the United States, incited, probably, by the hope of regaining her possessions east of the Mississippi. In 1779, Galvo, the governor of Louisiana, took possession of Baton Rouge; and the other settlements of the English in Florida surrendered successively. By the treaty of 1783, the Mississippi was made the western boundary of the United States from its source to the 31st degree of latitude, and following this line to the St. Mary's. By a treaty of the same date, the Floridas were ceded to Spain without any specific boundaries. This omission led to a controversy between the United States and Spain, which nearly terminated in hostilities. By a treaty with Spain, however, in 1795, boundary lines were amicably settled, and New-Orleans was granted to American citizens as a place of deposit for their effects for three years and longer, unless some other place of equal importance should be assigned. No other place being assigned within that time, New-Orleans continued to be used as before.

In 1800, a secret treaty was signed at Paris, by the plenipotentiaries of France and Spain, by which Louisiana was guarantied to France, and, in 1801, the cession was actually made. At the same time, the Spanish intendant of Louisiana was instructed to make arrangements to deliver the country to the French commissioners. In violation of the treaty of Spain with the United States, the intendant, by his proclamation of October, 1802, forbade American citizens any longer to deposit merchandize in the port of New-Orleans. Upon receiving intelligence of this prohibition, great sensibility prevailed in congress, and a proposition was made to occupy the place by force; but after an animated discussion the project was relinquished, and negotiations with France were commenced by Mr. Jefferson, for the purchase of the whole country of Louisiana, which ended in an agreement to that effect, signed at Paris, April 30th, 1803, by which the United States were to pay to France fifteen millions of dollars. Early in December, 1803, the commissioners of Spain delivered possession to France; and on the 20th of the same month, the authorities of France duly transferred the country to the United

States. Congress had provided for this event, and under their act, William C. C. Claiborne was appointed governor. By an act of March, 1804, that part of the ceded country which lay south of the parallel of thirty-three degrees was separated from the rest, and called the *Territory of Orleans*. In 1811, this district was erected into a state, and in 1812, was admitted into the union by the name of *Louisiana*.

Sec. 11. On the 3d of April, 1812, congress passed an act laying an *embargo* for ninety days, on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States, agreeably to a recommendation of the president. This measure, it was understood, was preparatory to a war with Great Britain, which the executive would soon urge upon congress to declare.

Sec. 12. On the 4th of June, 1812, a bill declaring war against Great Britain, passed the house of representatives, by a majority of seventy-nine to forty-nine. After a discussion of this bill in the senate till the 17th, it passed that body also, by a majority of nineteen to thirteen, and the succeeding day, 18th,* received the signature of the president.

* The following are the orders in council, French decrees, and the consequent acts of the American government, with their respective dates, presented in one view:

- 1806, May 16th, British blockade from the Elbe to Brest.
- “ Nov. 21st, Berlin decree.
- 1807, Jan. 6th, British order in council, prohibiting the coasting trade.
- “ Nov. 11th, The celebrated British orders in council.
- “ Dec. 17th, Milan decree.
- “ Dec. 22d, American embargo.
- 1809, March 1st, Non-intercourse with Great Britain and France, established by congress.
- “ April 10th, Mr. Erskine's negotiation, which opened the trade with England.
- “ June 19th, Non-intercourse with Great Britain
- 1810, March 18th, Rambouillet decree.
- “ May 1st, Act of congress conditionally opening the trade with England and France.
- “ Nov. 2d, President's proclamation, declaring the French decrees to be rescinded.
- 1812, April 4th, American embargo.
- “ June 18th, Declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain.

The principal grounds of war, set forth in a message of the president to congress, June 1st, and farther explained by the committee on foreign relations, in their report on the subject of the message, were summarily—The impressment of American seamen by the British; the blockade of her enemy's ports, supported by no adequate force, in consequence of which, the American commerce had been plundered in every sea, and the great staples of the country cut off from their legitimate markets; and the British orders in council.

On these grounds, the president urged the declaration of war. In unison with the recommendation of the president, the committee on foreign relations concluded their report as follows:

“Your committee, believing that the freeborn sons of America are worthy to enjoy the liberty which their fathers purchased at the price of much blood and treasure, and seeing by the measures adopted by Great Britain, a course commenced and persisted in, which might lead to a loss of national character and independence, feel no hesitation in advising resistance by force, in which the Americans of the present day will prove to the enemy, and the world, that we have not only inherited that liberty which our fathers gave us, but also the will and power to maintain it. Relying on the patriotism of the nation, and confidently trusting that the Lord of Hosts will go with us to battle in a righteous cause, and crown our efforts with success, your committee recommend an immediate appeal to *arms*.”

Against this declaration of war, the minority in the house of representatives, among which were found the principal part of the delegation from New-England, in an address to their constituents, solemnly protested, on the ground that the wrongs of which the United States complained, although in some respects grievous, were not of a nature, in the present state of the world, to justify war, or such as war would be likely to remedy. On the subject of impressment, they urged, that the question between the two countries had once been honorably and satisfactorily settled, in the treaty negotiated with the British court by Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney, and although that treaty had not been ratified by Mr.

Jefferson, the arrangements might probably again be made. In relation to the second cause of war—the blockade of her enemy's ports without an adequate force—the minority replied, that this was not designed to injure the commerce of the United States, but was retaliatory upon France, which had taken the lead in aggressions upon neutral rights. In addition, it was said, that, as the repeal of the French decrees had been officially announced, it was to be expected that a revocation of the orders in council would soon follow.

In conclusion of the protest, the minority spoke as follows:

“The undersigned cannot refrain from asking, what are the United States to gain by this war? Will the gratification of some privateersman compensate the nation for that sweep of our legitimate commerce by the extended marine of our enemy, which this desperate act invites? Will Canada compensate the middle states for New-York; or the western states for New-Orleans? Let us not be deceived. A war of invasion may invite a retort of invasion. When we visit the peaceable, and to us innocent, colonies of Great Britain, with the horrors of war, can we be assured that our own coast will not be visited with like horrors?”

“At a crisis of the world, such as the present, and under impressions such as these, the undersigned could not consider the war into which the United States have in secret been precipitated, as necessary, or required by any moral duty, or any political expediency.”

As a difference of views respecting the war, which had now been declared, prevailed in congress, so the country generally was divided into two opposite parties respecting it. The friends of the administration universally commending, and its opposers as extensively censuring and condemning the measure. By the former, the war was strenuously urged to be unavoidable and just; by the latter, with equal decision, it was pronounced to be impolitic, unnecessary, and unjust.

Sec. 13. The military establishments of the United States, upon the declaration of war, were extremely defective. Acts of congress permitted the enlistment of twenty-five thousand men, but few enlisted. The president was authorized to raise fifty thousand volunteers, and to call out one hundred thousand militia, for the purpose of defending the seacoast and the frontiers. But the

want of proper officers was now felt, as the ablest revolutionary heroes had paid the debt of nature. Such was the situation of things, at the commencement of hostilities.

Sec. 14. On the 16th of August, General Hull, governor of Michigan, who had been sent, at the dead of about two thousand five hundred men, to Detroit, with a view to putting an end to Indian hostilities in that country, surrendered his army to the British general, Brock, without a battle, and with it the fort of Detroit, together with all other forts and garrisons of the United States, within the district under his command.

Some time before the declaration of war, the army of Hull, destined for Detroit, with the above object in view, was collected at Dayton, in Ohio. About the middle of June, orders having been received from the government to proceed to Detroit, the army left Dayton, and passing through Stanton and Urbana, proceeded from the latter place to the Rapids of the Miami, a distance of one hundred and twenty miles. In this march, they were obliged to remove numerous obstructions, and to make their own road; yet they reached the Rapids on the 30th of June.

On the twenty-sixth, four days previous to reaching the Rapids, Hull had received, by express, a letter from the secretary of war, written on the morning of the 18th, the very day on which war was declared. Yet, that letter contained no tidings of the actual declaration of war; but only certain expressions, from which it might be gathered, that war would soon be declared.

For the purpose of relieving his army, and facilitating their march, a vessel was hired to convey to Detroit the sick, and a considerable part of the baggage. Most unfortunately, this vessel, on board of which was a lieutenant and thirty men, fell into the hands of the British, near Malden, they having received intelligence of the declaration of war several days before it reached Hull. Among other articles taken by the British, was a trunk of public papers, by means of which they were made acquainted with the number, and condition, and objects of the army.

On the 2d of July, Gen. Hull received a letter, forwarded

by mail, from the secretary, conveying to him the intelligence of the declaration of war.

On the 5th of July, the army reached Detroit, where they rested for some days, from a wearisome march through the wilderness, the fatigues of which they had sustained with exemplary patience.

On the 9th of July, Gen. Hull received a letter from Mr. Eustis, the secretary of war, saying, that "should the force under your command be equal to the enterprise, and consistent with the safety of your posts, you will take possession of Malden,* and extend your conquests as circumstances will allow."

In reply on the same day, Hull stated to the government, that he did not think his force equal to the reduction of Malden. On the tenth, he made a similar communication; at the same time urging the importance of the reduction of Malden, saying that this fortress must be secured, or his army would soon be without provisions.

Notwithstanding he had thus communicated to the government the insufficiency of his force, for any effective operation—as early as the 12th of July, he crossed into Canada; and, taking post at Sandwich, issued from that place a proclamation, in which he boasted of a force adequate to breaking down all opposition.

The army continued at Sandwich, while detachments were sent abroad, for the purpose of reconnoitering the adjacent country, and collecting provisions. On the 15th of July, a party of Americans, under Col. Cass, attacked a party of British who were stationed to guard a bridge over the river Aux Canards, four miles from Malden. In this attack, the Americans were successful; but soon after abandoned the bridge, by order of the general, and returned to the camp.

On the first of August, intelligence was received by the American general of the fall of the fortress at Mackinaw, on the 17th of July. The garrison, at this place, consisted of but fifty-six men, under the command of Lieutenant Hanks of the artillery. The enemy amounted to more

* The fortress of Malden is situated on the river Detroit, near its entrance into Lake Erie. It was at this time garrisoned with six hundred men, and was considered the strong hold of the British, in the province of Upper Canada. The importance of taking possession of this fortress arose from the fact, that while the British held it, they could at any time land detachments on the opposite American bank, along which passed the road from Ohio to Detroit, and thus intercept supplies for the American army.

than one thousand. Until the moment of a demand to surrender, no intelligence had been received by the garrison of the declaration of war. This event justly filled Hull with surprise and consternation, as he had now no means of checking the incursions of the restless hordes of northern savages.

On the 5th of August, a council of war was held to deliberate upon the expediency of attacking the fortress of Malden. But, as the artillery had not arrived, it was decided to wait two days, and then to proceed with or without it, as the case might be.

In the mean time, however, communications were received from Generals Porter and Hall, who commanded on the Niagara frontier, that the enemy were leaving their posts, in that quarter, and were concentrating their forces at Malden. At the same time, Hull was informed, that he could not depend upon assistance from General Dearborn, the commander-in-chief, although the latter had been directed by the government to invade Canada from Niagara, and co-operate with Hull. Under all the aspects of the case, although his delayed artillery had arrived, Hull issued orders, on the afternoon of the seventh, for his army to return to Detroit.

An order to the officers and army so unexpected as this—at a moment, when they were anticipating a glorious victory, and the honors due from it—was like a thunder-bolt upon them. The murmurs of the volunteers and regular troops were loud. They upbraided their commander with pusillanimity, and even treachery; and it was with difficulty they could be restrained by their own officers, in whom they confided. The disappointment, and vexation which ensued can be better imagined than described; all confidence in their leader was evidently at an end; if treacherous, he might deliver them up to be massacred; and it was evident he was deficient in the skill and ability necessary to command. It was with much reluctance this gallant little army was compelled to abandon, almost in disgrace, the flattering hopes which they thought themselves on the point of realizing.

On the 8th of August, the American army recrossed the river, and again took post at Detroit.

On the fourteenth, a British force, under command of General Brock took a position opposite Detroit, where they proceeded to erect batteries. On the fifteenth, Brock sent a flag bearing a summons to the American general to sur-

render. The summons concluded in these words: "It is far from my inclination to join in a war of extermination; but you must be aware, that the numerous body of Indians, who have attached themselves to my troops, will be beyond my control the moment the contest commences."

To this summons, an answer was returned, that the fort would be defended to the last extremity. The British immediately opened their batteries, and continued to throw shells, during a great part of the night. The fire was returned, but with little effect, on either side. In the morning, it was discovered, that the British were landing their troops at Spring Wells, under cover of their ships. To prevent the landing from the fort, was a matter impossible; the town lying between it, and the river. But if Hull had not neglected the advice of his officers, he might have effectually prevented it, by erecting batteries on the bank, where they would be compelled to debark. A strange fatality seemed to attend this unfortunate man. The enemy having landed, about ten o'clock advanced towards the fort, in close column, and twelve deep. From the position of the fort, the enemy were enabled to approach within two hundred yards, before its guns could be brought to bear, being thus far sheltered by the town. The American force was, however, judiciously disposed to prevent their advance.

All was now silent expectation, and the hearts of the Americans were beating high, in anticipation of successful resistance. But, at this moment, what were the surprise and mortification of the Americans, at hearing orders to retire to the fort! And no sooner were they *in* their fort, than they were directed to stack their arms—immediately after which a white flag was suspended from the walls, in token of submission. A British officer rode up to ascertain the cause, for this surrender was no less unexpected to the assailants. A capitulation was agreed to, without even stipulating the terms. Words are wanting to express the feelings of the Americans, on this occasion; they considered themselves basely betrayed, in thus surrendering to an inferior force, without firing a gun, when they were firmly convinced that that force was in their power. They had provisions for at least fifteen days, and were provided with all the requisite munitions of war. They were compelled, thus humiliated, to march out, and to surrender themselves prisoners at discretion. The British took immediate possession of the fort, with all the public property it contained; amongst which there were forty barrels of powder, four

hundred rounds of fixed twenty-four pound shot, one hundred thousand ball cartridges, two thousand five hundred stand of arms, twenty-five pieces of iron cannon, and eight of brass, the greater number of which had been captured by the Americans during the revolutionary war.

The whole territory, and all the forts and garrisons of the United States, within the district of the general, were also formally surrendered; and the detachments under Colonels Cass and M'Arthur, as well as the party under Capt. Brush, were included in the capitulation.* Orders had been dispatched the evening before, for the detachment under Cass and M'Arthur to return, and they had approached almost sufficiently near to discover the movements of the enemy, whilst their accidental situation might enable them to render the most material service during the attack. They were surprised at the silence which prevailed, when every moment was expected to announce the conflict; and that surprise was changed into rage, when they learned the capitulation. A British officer was dispatched to the river Raisin, to convey the intelligence to Capt. Brush, who at first gave no credit to so improbable a tale, and actually put the officer in confinement. The melancholy story was, however, soon confirmed by some Americans, who had escaped. Captain Brush indignantly refused to submit to the capitulation, declaring that Hull had no right to include him, and determined to return to the state of Ohio. He first deliberated whether he should destroy the public stores, which he had in his possession, and which he could not carry away; but, reflecting that this might be used as a pretext for harsh treatment to his countrymen, he resolved to abandon them. The greater part of the volunteers and militia were permitted to return home; but the regulars, together with the general, were taken to Canada.

In his official dispatch, Gen. Hull labored to free his conduct from censure, by bringing into view the inferiority of his force, compared with that of the enemy—his not exceeding eight hundred effective men; that of the enemy amounting to thirteen hundred, of whom seven hundred were Indians;—and also the dangers which threatened him from numerous western tribes of Indians, who were swarming in

* The detachment under Colonels Cass and M'Arthur, here alluded to, consisted of three hundred and fifty men. They had been dispatched for the purpose of assisting Captain Brush to make his way in safety to Detroit, with supplies for the army, which had been forwarded by Gov. Meigs, of Ohio, under the direction of that officer.

the neighboring woods, and who were ready, in case of his defeat, to rush to the indiscriminate slaughter of the Americans.

Whether the views which induced this surrender of Hull were in reality justly founded or not, the public mind was altogether unprepared for an occurrence so disastrous and mortifying.

Not long after, Gen. Hull was exchanged for thirty British prisoners. Neither the government nor the people were satisfied with his excuses. The affair was solemnly investigated by a court martial. He was charged with treason, cowardice, and unofficer-like conduct. On the first charge, the court declined giving an opinion; on the two last, he was sentenced to death; but was recommended to mercy, in consequence of his revolutionary services, and his advanced age. The sentence was remitted by the president; but his name was ordered to be struck from the rolls of the army.*

Sec. 15. On the 19th of August, three days after the unfortunate surrender of Detroit, that series of splendid naval achievements, for which this war was distinguished, was commenced by Capt. Isaac Hull, of the United States' frigate *Constitution*, who captured the British frigate *Guerriere*, commanded by Capt. Dacres.

The American frigate was superior in force only by a few guns, but the difference bore no comparison to the disparity of the conflict. The loss of the *Constitution* was seven killed, and seven wounded, while that on board the *Guerriere* was fifteen killed, and sixty-three wounded; among the latter was Capt. Dacres. The *Constitution* sustained so little injury, that she was ready for action the succeeding day; but the British frigate was so much damaged, that she was set on fire and burnt.

Sec. 16. On the 13th of August, another naval victory was achieved—the United States' frigate *Essex*, Capt. Porter, falling in with and capturing the British sloop of war *Alert*, after an action of only eight minutes.

This engagement took place off the grand bank of New-

* Brackenridge's History of the War.

foundland. A single broadside from the American frigate so completely riddled the sloop, that, on striking her colours, although she had but three men wounded, she had seven feet of water in her hold. The frigate suffered not the slightest injury.

Sec. 17. Upon the declaration of war, the attention of the American commander in chief, Gen. Dearborn, was turned towards the invasion of Canada, for which eight or ten thousand men, and considerable military stores, were collected, at different points along the Canada line. Skilful officers of the navy were also dispatched, for the purpose of arming vessels on Lake Erie, Ontario, and Champlain, if possible to gain the ascendancy there, and to aid the operations of the American forces.

The American troops were distributed into three divisions—one under General Harrison, called the *North Western* army; a second under Gen. Stephen Van Rensselaer, at Lewistown, called the army of the *Centre*; and a third under the commander in chief, Gen. Dearborn, in the neighborhood of Plattsburg and Greenbush, called the army of the *North*.

Sec. 18. Early on the morning of the 13th of October, 1812, a detachment of about one thousand men, from the army of the centre, crossed the river Niagara, and attacked the British on Queenstown heights. This detachment, under the command of Col. Solomon Van Rensselaer, succeeded in dislodging the enemy; but, not being reinforced by the militia from the American side, as was expected, they were ultimately repulsed, and were obliged to surrender. The British general, Brock, was killed during the engagement.

The forces designated to storm the heights, were divided

into two columns; one of three hundred militia, under Col. Van Rensselaer; the other of three hundred regulars, under Col. Christie. These were to be followed by Col. Fenwick's artillery, and afterwards the residue of the troops.

Much embarrassment was experienced by the boats from the eddies, as well as by the shot of the enemy, in crossing the river. Col. Van Rensselaer leading the van, landed first, with one hundred men. Scarcely had he leaped from the boat, when he received four severe wounds, and, as it was then supposed, mortal.

The command now devolved upon Capt. Wool, the senior officer of the regular troops, who himself also was wounded by a ball, which, striking him sideways, passed through both his thighs. Not entirely disabled, he repaired to Van Rensselaer, and volunteered for any service which might relieve the troops of the latter, whose situation was now extremely critical. Col. Van Rensselaer directed the storming of the British battery, upon the heights. Wool immediately conducted his force silently and circuitously, leaving the battery to his right, until he had passed it, and attained an eminence which commanded it. The British finding that resistance would be in vain, left it to the Americans, and retreated down the heights of Queenstown.

Elated with their success, the Americans had fallen into disorder, when they again beheld their foe advancing. The intrepid Brock was at their head, with a reinforcement of about three hundred men from Fort George. An officer raised a white flag, in token of surrender; Wool indignantly pulled it down. To keep the enemy at bay, until he could form his men, he dispatched a body of sixty men, who advanced, but retreated without firing a gun. The British followed, and drove the Americans to the brink of the precipice. One soldier was about to descend; Wool ordered him to be shot; but as the musket was levelled, he returned. Thus prohibiting either surrender or retreat, and being ably seconded by his officers, Wool rallied, and led on his troops to the attack. The British, in their turn, gave way, and retreated down the hill. Brock attempted to rally them amidst a galling fire from the Americans; but in the attempt, this brave and gallant foe was mortally wounded. His party no longer attempted resistance, but fled in disorder.

Gen. Van Rensselaer now crossed over, for the purpose of fortifying the heights, preparatory to another attack, should the repulsed enemy be reinforced. This duty he assigned to Lieut. Totten, an able engineer.

But the fortune of the day was not yet decided. At three o'clock in the afternoon, the enemy, being reinforced by several hundred Chippewa Indians, rallied, and again advanced, but were a third time repulsed. At this moment, Gen. Van Rensselaer, perceiving the militia on the opposite side embarking but slowly, hastily recrossed the river, to accelerate their movements. But what was his chagrin, on reaching the American side, to hear more than twelve hundred of the militia positively refuse to embark. The sight of the engagement had cooled that ardor which, previously to the attack, the commander in chief could scarcely restrain. While their countrymen were nobly struggling for victory, they could remain idle spectators of the scene. All that a brave, resolute, and benevolent commander could do, Gen. Van Rensselaer did—he urged, entreated, commanded, but it was all in vain. Eight hundred British soldiers, from Fort George, now hove in sight, and pressed on to renew the attack. The Americans, for a time, continued to struggle against this force, but were finally obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

The number of American troops killed amounted to about sixty, and about one hundred were wounded. Those that surrendered themselves prisoners of war, including the wounded, were about seven hundred. The loss of the British is unknown, but it must have been severe.

Although the issue of this battle was unfortunate, seldom has American valor shone more conspicuously, or a victory been relinquished with more reluctance. Had but a small part of the "idle men" passed over at the critical moment, when urged by their brave commander, revolutionary history can tell of few nobler achievements than this would have been.

Sec. 19. On the 17th of October, another naval victory was achieved over an enemy decidedly superior in force, and under circumstances the most favorable to him. This was the capture of the brig *Frolic*, of twenty-two guns, by the sloop of war *Wasp*.

Captain Jones had returned from France two weeks after the declaration of war, and on the 13th of October, again put to sea. On the 17th, he fell in with six merchant ships, under convoy of a brig, and two ships, armed with sixteen guns each. The brig, which proved to be the *Frolic*,

Capt. Whinyates, dropped behind, while the others made sail. At half past eleven, the action began by the enemy's cannon and musketry. In five minutes, the main-top mast was shot away, and falling down with the main-top-sail yard across the larboard fore and fore-top-sail, rendered her head yards unmanageable, during the rest of the action. In two minutes more, her gaff, and mizen top-gallant-mast were shot away. The sea being exceedingly rough, the muzzles of the Wasp's guns were sometimes under water.

The English fired as their vessel rose, so that their shot was either thrown away, or touched only the rigging of the Americans; the Wasp, on the contrary, fired as she sunk, and every time struck the hull of her antagonist. The fire of the Frolic was soon slackened, and Capt. Jones determined to board her. As the crew leaped on board the enemy's vessel, their surprise can scarcely be imagined, as they found no person on deck, except three officers and the seaman at the wheel. The deck was slippery with blood, and presented a scene of havoc and ruin. The officers now threw down their swords in submission, and Lieut. Biddle, of the Wasp, leaped into the rigging, to haul down the colors, which were still flying. Thus, in forty-three minutes, ended one of the most bloody conflicts recorded in naval history. The loss, on board the Frolic, was thirty killed, and fifty wounded; on board the Wasp, five were killed, and five slightly wounded. The Wasp and Frolic were both captured the same day, by a British seventy-four, the Poictiers, Capt. Beresford.

Sec. 20. The above splendid achievement of Capt. Jones was followed on the 25th of October by another not much less splendid and decisive, by Commodore Decatur, of the frigate United States, of forty-four guns, who captured the Macedonian off the Western Isles, a frigate of the largest class, mounting forty-nine guns, and manned with three hundred men.

In this action, which continued an hour and a half, the Macedonian lost thirty-six killed, and sixty-eight wounded: on board the United States, seven only were killed, and five wounded. The British frigate lost her main-mast, main-top-mast, and main-yard, and was injured in her hull. The United States suffered so little, that a return to port was unnecessary.

An act of generosity and benevolence on the part of our brave tars, of this victorious frigate, deserves to be honorably recorded. The carpenter, who was unfortunately killed in the conflict with the Macedonian, had left three small children to the care of a worthless mother. When the circumstance became known to the brave seaman, they instantly made a contribution among themselves, to the amount of eight hundred dollars, and placed it in safe hands, to be appropriated to the education and maintenance of the unhappy orphans.

Sec. 21. December 29th, a second naval victory was achieved by the Constitution, at this time commanded by Com. Bainbridge, over the Java, a British frigate of thirty-eight guns, but carrying forty-nine, with four hundred men, commanded by Capt. Lambert, who was mortally wounded.

This action was fought off St. Salvador, and continued nearly two hours, when the Java struck, having lost sixty killed and one hundred and twenty wounded. The Constitution had nine men killed, and twenty-five wounded. On the 1st of January, the commander, finding his prize incapable of being brought in, was obliged to burn her.

Sec. 22. Thus ended the year 1812. With the exception of the naval victories already mentioned, and some others of the same kind, equally honorable to America, nothing important was achieved. Neither of the armies destined for the invasion of Canada had obtained any decisive advantage, or were in possession of any post in that territory. Further preparations, however, were making for its conquest. Naval armaments were collecting on the lakes; and the soldiers in their winter quarters, were looking forward to "battles fought and victories won."

To fill up the minute history of the campaign of 1812, it may be stated, in this place, that the call for assistance, on the part of Gen. Hull, was answered by the people of

Ohio and Kentucky, who raised ten thousand volunteers, a considerable part of which were on the march for Detroit, when intelligence of the surrender of that post reached them. Instead of repressing the ardor of these brave and patriotic men, the above intelligence stimulated them to higher zeal in the cause in which they had embarked.

On the 24th of September, William Henry Harrison, at that time governor of the Indiana territory, was appointed by congress to the command of the whole western forces. He was at this time at the river St. Mary's, with two thousand troops. Another division, equal in number, under General Winchester, had reached fort Defiance; but, being in want of provisions, were obliged to be relieved by Harrison and his troops, who marched from St. Mary's for that purpose. A junction having been formed, the whole force again took post at St. Mary's.

About this time, the Indians in Indiana territory, manifesting a hostile spirit, Governor Shelby of Kentucky issued an address, calling for the assistance of mounted volunteers for the defence of Indiana and Illinois. This call was promptly answered, and by the 2d of October, more than 2000 had assembled at Vincennes. These troops were placed under the command of General Hopkins. On the 10th they took post at Fort Harrison on the Wabash.

Deeming it important, for the safety of both the above territories, to destroy several towns, belonging to the Kickapoo Indians, the troops set forth for this purpose. General Hopkins, however, proving himself unable to repress the spirit of insubordination, which broke forth among the volunteers, the expedition was necessarily abandoned.

In November, another expedition, undertaken by the same officers, was conducted with better success. With 1000 men, he destroyed on the 19th of November the Prophet's town, and the Kickapoo village.

The issue of the expedition, under General Van Rensselaer, on the morning of the 14th of October, against the British at Queenstown, has already been noticed. Early in November, this general, having resigned his command, was succeeded by Gen. Alexander Smyth, who, affecting to believe that a happier destiny would crown a similar expedition conducted by himself, issued an inflated address to the "men of New-York," announcing his intention of planting the standard of America in a few days on the shores of Canada, and inviting them to "*come on,*" and participate in the glory which must attend the enterprise. His force

was increased by those who obeyed his call, and that of General Porter, who was associated with him, and was to command the volunteers, to 4500 men. "The morning of the 28th of November was assigned as the time for crossing. So tardy were the movements of the troops, that until afternoon, the first division was not ready to leave the American shore. The enemy appeared in force on the opposite bank. A council of officers decided, that it was inexpedient, at that time, to cross; and the troops were ordered to debark. They were disappointed and dissatisfied; but their clamor was appeased by the assurance that another attempt would speedily be made.

"The next day, they received orders to be in readiness to embark on the first of December. But their first disappointment had sensibly damped their ardor. At the appointed hour, the boats were not ready to move, and when ready but 1500 men were found willing to cross. A council of war decided unanimously against proceeding, and again the troops were ordered to debark. The plan of invading Canada was abandoned for the season. The blame of these failures was attributed by the soldiers to their commander; and so highly were they exasperated, that for several days his life was in danger from their fury.

"The army of the north, under the immediate command of General Dearborn, was stationed at Greenbush, near Albany, and at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain. From the latter post, a detachment marched a short distance into Canada, surprised a small body of British and Indians, and destroyed a considerable quantity of public stores. Other movements were anxiously expected by the people; but after the misfortunes at Detroit and Niagara, the general deemed it inexpedient to engage in any important enterprise.

"Thus ended the campaign of 1812. Although on many occasions extraordinary gallantry had been displayed, yet nothing to purpose was accomplished, and the losses sustained were numerous and heavy. They who approved of the declaration of war, felt disappointed, mortified, and dejected. They attributed most of the misfortunes of the country to the conduct of the federalists, whom they accused of endeavoring to prevent enlistments into the army, and of maintaining the most pernicious doctrines in relation to the militia. The federalists, on the other hand, attributed these repeated failures to the imbecility of the administration, and to the unwise selection of military officers. They assumed

a bolder tone of censure, and evinced a more determined spirit of opposition."*

Sec. 23. The military operations of the campaign of 1813 were considerably diversified, extending along the whole northern frontier of the United States. The location of the several divisions of the American forces was as follows: The army of the west, under Gen. Harrison, was placed near the head of Lake Erie; the army of the centre, under Gen. Dearborn, between the Lakes Ontario and Erie; and the army of the north, under Gen. Hampton, on the shores of Lake Champlain. The British forces in Canada were under the general superintendence of Sir George Provoost, under whom Colonels Proctor and Vincent had in charge the defence of the Upper Provinces; while the care of the Lower Provinces were committed to the care of Gen. Sheaffe.

Sec. 24. The head-quarters of Gen. Harrison, on the commencement of winter, were at Franklinton, in Ohio. The plan of this general had for its object to concentrate a considerable force at the Rapids, whence he designed to make an attack upon Detroit, which was still in the possession of the British. In the mean while; Gen. Winchester continued at Fort Defiance, with about 800 men, chiefly from the most respectable families in Kentucky. Early in January, intimations were received from the inhabitants of the village of Frenchtown, which is situated on the river Raisin, twenty-six miles from Detroit, that a large body of British and Indians were about to concentrate at that place. Exposed as they must be from the presence of a ferocious enemy, they sought protection from the Ameri-

* History of the United States.

can general. Contrary to the general plan of the commander in chief, Winchester resolved to send a force to their relief, and accordingly detached a body of men, with orders to wait at Presque Isle, until joined by the main body.

On reaching the latter place, it was ascertained that a party of British and Indians had already taken possession of Frenchtown. The resolution was immediately taken to attack them, without waiting for the arrival of Winchester. In this attack, the Americans were successful, and having driven the enemy from the place, they encamped on the spot, where they remained until the twentieth, when they were joined by General Winchester. The American force now exceeded 750 men.* Here, on the morning of January 22d, the Americans were suddenly attacked by a combined force of British and Indians, under Gen. Proctor. Unfortunately, the Americans were signally routed—many of them were killed, and not far from five hundred were taken prisoners, among whom was Gen. Winchester. After the surrender, nearly all the American prisoners were inhumanly butchered by the savages, although Proctor had pledged his honor, that their lives and private property should be secure.

Scarcely had the Americans surrendered, than, contrary to express stipulations, the swords of the officers were taken from them, and many of them were stripped almost naked, and robbed. The dead also were stripped and scalped, while the tomahawk put an end at once to such of the wounded as were unable to rise. The prisoners who now remained, with but few exceptions, instead of being guarded by British soldiers, were delivered to the charge of the In-

* Historians do not agree as to the number of American troops. Dr. Holmes states the number at 1100. The force of Proctor consisted, according to this author, of 300 British troops, and 600 Indians.

dians, to be conducted in the rear of the army to Malden. But few of them, however, ever reached the British garrison, being either inhumanly murdered by the Indians at the time, or reserved to be roasted at the stake, or to be ransomed at an exorbitant charge.

By this bloody tragedy, all Kentucky, observes an historian,* was literally in mourning; for the soldiers thus massacred, tortured, burnt, or denied the common rites of sepulture, were of the most respectable families of the state; many of them young men of fortune and property, with numerous friends and relatives. The remains of these brave youth lay on the ground, beat by the storms of heaven, and exposed to the beasts of the forest, until the ensuing autumn, when their friends and relations ventured to gather up their bleaching bones, and consigned them to the tomb.

A few days after the above catastrophe, Gen. Harrison dispatched a surgeon, by the name of M'Keehan, for the purpose of attending the wounded, and with money to provide such things as they might need. The surgeon, notwithstanding his flag, his sacred errand, and an open letter to any British officer, stating the object of his mission, was actually wounded and robbed, then dragged to Malden, whence he was taken to Quebec. After the sufferings of several months, dragged from place to place, from dungeon to dungeon, sufferings which could hardly occur on the banks of the Niger, he at length reached home, with a constitution totally impaired.

Sec. 24. On the 23d of January, the day following the memorable action of Frenchtown, an engagement took place between the Hornet, Capt. James Lawrence, and the British sloop of war Peacock, Captain William Peake, off South America. This action lasted but fifteen minutes, when the Peacock struck.

On surrendering, a signal of distress was discovered on board the Peacock. She had been so much damaged, that, already, she had six feet of water in her hold, and was sinking fast. Boats were immediately dispatched for the wounded, and every measure taken, which was practicable, to keep her afloat until the crew could be removed. Her guns were thrown overboard, the shot holes were plugged, and a

* Brackenridge.

part of the *Hornet's* crew, at the imminent hazard of their lives, labored incessantly to rescue the vanquished. The utmost efforts of these generous men were, however, vain; the conquered vessel sunk in the midst of them, carrying down nine of her own crew, and three of the Americans. With a generosity becoming them, the crew of the *Hornet* divided their clothing with the prisoners, who were left destitute by the sinking ship. In the action, the *Hornet* received but a slight injury. The killed and wounded, on board the *Peacock*, were supposed to exceed fifty.

Sec. 25. On the 4th of March, 1813, Mr. Madison entered upon his second term of office, as president of the United States, having been re-elected by a considerable majority, over De Witt Clinton, of New-York, who was supported by the federal electors. George Clinton was elected vice-president: he died, however, soon after, and Elbridge Gerry succeeded him.

Sec. 26. It having been communicated to the American government, that the emperor of Russia was desirous of seeing an end put to the hostilities between Great Britain and America, and had offered to mediate between the two countries, Messrs. Albert Gallatin, James A. Bayard, and John Quincy Adams, were, early in the spring, 1813, appointed commissioners to Russia, to meet such commissioners as should be sent by the British court, and were empowered to negotiate a treaty of peace and commerce with Great Britain.

Sec. 27. About the middle of April, Gen. Pike, by order of Gen. Dearborn, embarked with 1700 men on board a flotilla, under command of Commodore Chauncey, from Sacket's Harbor, for the purpose of attacking York, the capital of Upper Canada, the great depository of British military stores, whence the western posts were supplied. On the 27th, an attack was successfully made,

and York fell into the hands of the Americans, with all its stores.

The command of the troops, one thousand seven hundred, detached for this purpose, was given to General Pike, at his own request. On the 25th, the fleet under Commodore Chauncey moved down the lake, with the troops, and, on the 27th, arrived at the place of debarkation, about two miles westward from York, and one and a half from the enemy's works. The British, consisting of about seven hundred and fifty regulars, and five hundred Indians, under General Sheaffe, attempted to oppose the landing, but were thrown into disorder, and fled to their garrison.

General Pike, having formed his men, proceeded towards the enemy's fortifications. On their near approach to the barracks, about sixty rods from the garrison, an explosion of a magazine took place, previously prepared for the purpose, which killed about one hundred of the Americans, among whom was the gallant Pike.

Pike lived to direct his troops, for a moment thrown into disorder, "to move on." This they now did under Colonel Pearce; and, proceeding towards the town, took possession of the barracks. On approaching it, they were met by the officers of the Canada militia, with offers of capitulation. At four o'clock the troops entered the town.

The loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to seven hundred and fifty; the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, about three hundred.

Sec. 28. The news of the unfortunate occurrence at Frenchtown (*Sec. 24.*) reached Gen. Harrison, while on his march with reinforcements to Gen. Winchester. Finding a further advance of no importance, he took post at the Rapids, where he constructed a fort, which, in honor of the governor of Ohio, he named Fort Meigs. Here, on the first of May, he was besieged by Gen. Proctor, with a force of 1000 regulars and militia, and 1200 Indians. For nine days, the siege was urged with great zeal; but finding the capture of the place impracticable, on the 9th, Proctor raised the siege, and retreated to Malden. Gen. Harrison returned to Franklinton in

Ohio, leaving the fort under the care of General Clay.

When, at length, it was ascertained that the British were actually approaching to the siege of Fort Meigs, an express was sent to hasten the march of 1200 militia from Kentucky, who were approaching, under the command of Gen. Clay.

On the third day of the siege, and not until then, a flag was sent to the fort, and, for the first time, an officer summoned the place to surrender. The officer bearing the flag informed General Harrison, that the force of the British was so much superior to the garrison in the fort, that it would be impossible for the latter long to resist, and that it was the path of wisdom to surrender, while as yet the British commander had the power to restrain the Indians from a general massacre. To this Harrison replied, that while he had the honor to command an American fort, it should never be surrendered to a British force, supported and urged on by savage allies.

The siege now went on, and the firing was warmly maintained, on both sides. So determined were the Indians to succeed in their efforts to subdue the Americans, that they even ascended trees, adjoining the fort, from which they fired into it, and killed and wounded several.

On the 5th, it was announced that the troops under Gen. Clay were only a few miles distant. Orders were immediately dispatched from Harrison to him, to detach 800 of his men, who should cross the river, for the purpose of destroying the batteries, which the enemy had erected on that side; while a sortie should be made from the post, upon those who were on this side.

The simultaneous attack was well planned, and nobly accomplished. The batteries were taken, and the British and their Indian allies were compelled to flee, while the spirited Kentuckians, under their valiant leader, Col. Dudley, pursued them. Unfortunately for the latter, in their pursuit they came upon an ambush formed by a large body of Indians, under the celebrated Tecumseh, which body arrived just in season to surprise the now elated Kentuckians, the slaughter of whom was so terrible, that scarcely one hundred and fifty of the detachment of Dudley escaped, and even this valiant soldier was mortally wounded.

During the three following days, a cessation of hostilities took place, and prisoners were exchanged. On the ninth,

preparations were made to renew the siege; but, suddenly, the British general ordered it to be raised, and with his whole force retired.

Sec. 29. During the remainder of the spring, the war continued along the Canada line, and on some parts of the sea board; but nothing important was achieved by either power. The Chesapeake Bay was blockaded by the British, and predatory excursions, by their troops, were made at Havre de Grace, Georgetown, &c. Several villages were burnt, and much property plundered and destroyed. To the north of the Chesapeake, the coast was not exempt from the effects of the war. A strict blockade was kept up at New-York. The American frigates United States and Macedonian, and the sloop Hornet, attempted to sail on a cruise from that port, about the beginning of May, but were prevented. In another attempt, they were chased into New-London harbor, where they were blockaded by a fleet under Com. Hardy, for many months. Fort George, in Canada, was taken by the Americans. Sacket's Harbor was attacked by one thousand British, who were repulsed with considerable loss.

Sec. 30. On the first of June, the American navy experienced no inconsiderable loss, in the capture of the Chesapeake, by the British frigate Shannon, off Boston harbor—a loss the more severely felt, as on board of her fell several brave officers, among whom was her commander, the distinguished and lamented Capt. Lawrence.

Capt. Lawrence had been but recently promoted to the command of the Chesapeake. On his arrival at Boston, to take charge of her, he was informed that a British frigate was lying off the harbor, apparently inviting an attack. Prompted by the ardor which pervaded the service, he resolved to meet the enemy, without sufficiently examin-

ing his strength. With a crew, chiefly enlisted for the occasion, as that of the Chesapeake had mostly been discharged, on the first of June, he sailed out of the harbor.

The Shannon, observing the Chesapeake put to sea, immediately followed. At half past five, the two ships engaged. By the first broadside, the sailing master of the Chesapeake was killed, and Lieut. Ballard mortally wounded; Lieut. Brown and Capt. Lawrence were severely wounded at the same time. A second, and third broadside, besides adding to the destruction of her officers, so disabled the Chesapeake in her rigging, that her quarter fell on the Shannon's anchor. This accident may be considered as deciding the contest; an opportunity was given the enemy to rake the Chesapeake, and, toward the close of the action, to board her. Capt. Lawrence, though severely wounded, still kept the deck. In the act of summoning the boarders, a musket ball entered his body, and brought him down. As he was carried below, he issued a last heroic order, "*Don't give up the ship;*" but it was too late to retrieve what was lost; the British boarders leaped into the vessel, and after a short but bloody struggle, hoisted the British flag.

In this sanguinary conflict, twenty-three of the enemy were killed, and fifty wounded; on board the Chesapeake, about seventy were killed, and eighty-three wounded.

Sec. 31. The tide of fortune seemed now, for a short time, to turn in favor of Great Britain. On the 14th of August, the Argus, of eighteen guns, another of our national vessels, was captured by the Pelican of twenty guns.

The Argus had been employed to carry out Mr. Crawford, as minister to France. After landing him, she proceeded to cruise in the British channel, and, for two months, greatly annoyed the British shipping. At length, that government was induced to send several vessels in pursuit of her. On the 14th of August, the Pelican, a sloop of war, of superior force, discovered her, and bore down to action. At the first broadside Captain Allen fell severely wounded, but remained on deck for some time, when it was necessary to carry him below. After a hard fought action, the Argus was obliged to surrender, with a loss of six killed and seventeen wounded. On board the Pelican there were but three killed and five wounded. Captain Allen died soon after, in England, and was interred with the honors of war.

Sec. 32. After the loss of the Chesapeake and Argus, victory again returned to the side of America. On the 5th of September following, the British brig Boxer surrendered to the Enterprise, after an engagement of little more than half an hour.

The Enterprise sailed from Portsmouth on the 1st, and was on the fifth descried by the Boxer, which immediately gave chase. After the action had continued for fifteen minutes, the Enterprise ranged ahead, and raked her enemy so powerfully, that in twenty minutes the firing ceased, and the cry of quarter was heard. The Enterprise had one killed, and thirteen wounded; but that one was her lamented commander, Lieutenant Burrows. He fell at the commencement of the action, but continued to cheer his crew, averring that the flag should never be struck. When the sword of the enemy was presented to him, he exclaimed, "I die contented." The British loss was more considerable. Among their killed was Captain Blythe. These two commanders, both in the morning of life, were interred beside each other, at Portland, with military honors.

Sec. 33. During these occurrences on the sea board, important preparations had been made for decisive measures to the westward, and the general attention was now turned, with great anxiety, towards the movements of the north-western army, and the fleet under command of Commodore Perry, on Lake Erie.

This anxiety, not long after, was, in a measure, dispelled, by a decisive victory of the American fleet over that of the British, on Lake Erie, achieved, after a long and desperate conflict, on the 10th of September.

The American squadron consisted of nine vessels, carrying fifty-four guns; that of the British, of six vessels, and sixty-three guns. The line of battle was formed at eleven, and at a quarter before twelve, the enemy's flag ship, Queen Charlotte, opened a tremendous fire upon the Lawrence, the flag ship of Commodore Perry, which was sustained by the latter ten minutes before she could bring her carron-

ades to bear. At length, she bore up and engaged the enemy, making signals to the remainder of the squadron to hasten to her support. Unfortunately, the wind was too light to admit of a compliance with the order, and she was compelled to contend, for two hours, with two ships of equal force. By this time, the brig had become unmanageable, and her crew, excepting four or five, were either killed or wounded.

While thus surrounded with death,—and destruction still pouring in upon him, Perry left the brig, now only a wreck, in an open boat, and heroically waving his sword, passed unhurt to the Niagara of twenty guns. The wind now rose. Ordering every canvas to be spread, he bore down upon the enemy:—passing the enemy's vessels, Detroit, Queen Charlotte, and Lady Prevost, on the one side, and the Chippewa, and Little Belt, on the other, into each of which he poured a broadside—he at length engaged the Lady Prevost, which received so heavy a fire as to compel her men to retire below.

The remainder of the American squadron, now, one after another, arrived, and following the example of their intrepid leader, closed in with the enemy, and the battle became general.

Three hours finished the contest, and enabled Perry to announce to General Harrison the capture of the whole squadron, which he did in this modest, laconic, and emphatic style: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

The loss in the contest was great in proportion to the numbers engaged. The Americans had twenty-seven killed and ninety-six wounded. But the British loss was still greater, being about two hundred in killed and wounded. The prisoners amounted to six hundred, exceeding the whole number of Americans engaged in the action.

Sec. 34. The Americans being now masters of Lake Erie, a passage to the territory which had been surrendered by Gen. Hull was open to them. With a view of making a descent upon Malden and Detroit, Gen. Harrison called on a portion of the Ohio militia, which, together with 4000 Kentuckians, under Governor Shelby, and his own regular troops, constituted his force, for the above object. On the 27th of September,

the troops were received on board the fleet, and on the same day reached Malden. But to their surprise, they found that fortress and the public storehouses burned.

On the following day, the Americans marched in pursuit of Proctor and his troops; and on the 29th entered, and took possession of Detroit.

Leaving Detroit on the second of October, Harrison and Shelby proceeded with 3500 men, selected for the purpose; and, on the fifth, reached the place of Proctor's encampment, which was the Moravian village, on the Thames, about eighty miles from Detroit. The American troops were immediately formed in the order of battle, and the armies engaged with the most determined courage. In this contest, the celebrated Tecumseh was slain. Upon his fall, the Indians immediately fled. This led to the defeat of the whole British force, which surrendered, except about two hundred dragoons, which, with Proctor at their head, were enabled to escape.

Of the British, nineteen regulars were killed, fifty wounded, and six hundred made prisoners. The Indians left one hundred and twenty on the field. The loss of the Americans was upwards of fifty, in killed and wounded. On this field of battle, the latter had the pleasure to retake six brass field pieces, which had been surrendered by Hull; on two of which were inscribed the words, "Surrendered by Burgoyne, at Saratoga."

Tecumseh, who fell in this battle, was in several respects the most celebrated Indian warrior which ever raised an arm against the Americans. "He had been in almost every engagement with the whites, since Harmer's defeat, although at his death he scarcely exceeded forty years of age. Tecumseh had received the stamp of greatness from the hand of nature, and had his lot been cast in a different state of society, he would have shone one of the most distinguished of men. He was endowed with a powerful mind, with the soul of a hero. There was an uncommon

dignity in his countenance and manners; by the former, he could easily be discovered, even after death, among the rest of the slain, for he wore no insignia of distinction. When girded with a silk sash, and told by General Proctor that he was made a brigadier in the British service, for his conduct at Brownstown and Magagua, he returned the present with respectful contempt. Born with no title to command, but his native greatness, every tribe yielded submission to him at once, and no one ever disputed his precedence. Subtle and fierce in war, he was possessed of uncommon eloquence—his speeches might bear a comparison with those of the most celebrated orators of Greece and Rome. His invective was terrible, as may be seen in the reproaches which he applied to Proctor, a few days before his death, in a speech which was found among the papers of the British officers. His form was uncommonly elegant; his stature about six feet, his limbs perfectly proportioned. He was honorably interred by the victors, by whom he was held in much respect, as an inveterate, but magnanimous enemy.”*

Sec. 35. The fall of Detroit put an end to the Indian war in that quarter, and gave security to the frontiers. Gen. Harrison now dismissed a greater part of his volunteers, and having stationed Gen. Cass at Detroit, with about one thousand men, proceeded, according to his instructions, with the remainder of his forces, to Buffalo, to join the army of the centre.

Sec. 36. The result of the operations of the north-west, and the victory on Lake Erie, prepared the way to attempt a more effectual invasion of Canada.

Gen. Dearborn having some time before this retired from the service, Gen. Wilkinson was appointed to succeed him as commander-in-chief, and arrived at Sacket's Harbor, on the 20th of August. The chief object of his instructions was the capture of Kingston, although the re-

* Brackenridge.



Burning of the frigate Philadelphia by Decatur.
P. 381.



Death of Tecumseh. P. 431.

duction of Canada, by an attack upon Montreal, was the ulterior object of the campaign.

The forces destined for the accomplishment of these purposes were an army of five thousand, at Fort George; two thousand under Gen. Lewis, at Sacket's Harbor; four thousand at Plattsburg, under the command of Gen. Hampton, which latter, proceeding by the way of Champlain, were to form a junction with the main body, at some place on the river St. Lawrence; and, finally, the victorious troops of Gen. Harrison, which were expected to arrive in season to furnish important assistance.

On the fifth of September, Gen. Armstrong, who had recently been appointed secretary of war, arrived at Sacket's Harbor, to aid in the above project. The plan of attacking Kingston was now abandoned, and it was determined to proceed immediately to Montreal. Unexpected difficulties, however, occurred, which prevented the execution of the plan, and the American force under Wilkinson retired into winter quarters, at French Mills. The forces of Gen. Hampton, after penetrating the country some distance to join Wilkinson, retired again to Plattsburg. The forces of Gen. Harrison were not ready to join the expedition, until the troops had gone into winter quarters.

The forces of Gen. Wilkinson were concentrated, previous to embarkation, at Grenadier Island, between Sacket's Harbor and Kingston, 180 miles from Montreal, reckoned by the river. Owing to tempestuous weather, the fleet was detained some days after the troops were on board; but finally set sail on the 30th. On the 6th of November, having arrived within a few miles of the British Fort Prescott, and finding that it commanded the river, Gen. Wilkinson ordered the fixed ammunition to be landed, in order to its being transported with greater security to a point below

the fort, there to meet the flotilla under command of Gen. Brown, which was to attempt the passage, under cover of night. At the same time, also, the troops were landed, and were ordered to proceed to the same point, under command of Gen. Boyd.

Notwithstanding the precautions of Gen. Brown, and the advantage of night, during which he passed the fort, he suffered a heavy cannonade. But fortunately, he brought the whole flotilla, consisting of 300 boats, in safety to the appointed place of rendezvous; where, also, the troops arrived at 10 o'clock the following day.

The British governor, now perceiving that Kingston was not the object of the American army, as was at first conjectured, ordered a corps of observation from that place, where his troops were concentrated, to follow the movements of Wilkinson's army.

By this force, the Americans were seriously annoyed, and also by British militia, which assembled in considerable numbers, at the narrow parts of the river. On the 7th, Gen. Macomb, with a select corps of 1200, was dispatched to disperse the militia collected on the shores. On the 8th he was reinforced by Gen. Brown. On the 10th, having arrived at a long and dangerous rapid, the troops, excepting a number sufficient to navigate the boats, were ordered to proceed down the river by land; the troops under Gen. Brown to precede, at some distance, and to be followed by the main body, under Gen. Boyd.

On the 11th, the troops and flotilla having arrived at Williamsburg, just as they were about to proceed, a powerful body of the enemy, 2000 in number, were discovered approaching in the rear. Wilkinson, being too much indisposed to take the command, appointed Gen. Boyd to attack them, in which his troops were assisted by the brigades of Generals Covington and Swartwout.

For three hours, the action was bravely sustained by the opposing forces. Both parties, in the issue, claimed the victory; but neither could, in truth, be said to be entitled to it—the British returning to their encampment, and the Americans to their boats. In this engagement, the loss of the latter was 339, of whom 102 were killed. Gen. Covington was mortally wounded, and died two days after. The British loss was 180.

A few days previous to the battle, as Gen. Harrison had not arrived, Wilkinson dispatched orders to Gen. Hampton to meet him, with his army, at St. Regis. On the 12th, a

communication was returned from Hampton, in which he declined a compliance with the above orders, on the ground, that the provisions of Wilkinson were not adequate to the wants of both armies, and that it would be impossible to transport provisions from Plattsburg.

On the receipt of this intelligence, a council of war was summoned by Wilkinson, by which it was decided to abandon the attack on Montreal, and to go into winter quarters at French Mills.

Shortly after, Gen. Hampton, learning that the contemplated expedition against Montreal was abandoned, himself paused in his advance towards Montreal, by the way of Chateaugay, and returned to Plattsburg, where he established his winter quarters. Soon after, his health failing, he resigned his commission, and was succeeded in command by Gen. Izard.

Thus ended a campaign, which gave rise to a dissatisfaction, proportioned to the high expectations that had been indulged of its success. Public opinion was much divided as to the causes of its failure, and as to the parties to whom the blame was properly to be attached.

Sec. 37. The proposal of the emperor of Russia to mediate between the United States and Great Britain, with reference to an amicable adjustment of their differences, and the appointment of Messrs. Gallatin, Adams, and Bayard, as commissioners under that proposal, have been mentioned, (*Sec. 26.*) This proposal, however, Great Britain thought expedient to decline; but the prince regent offered a direct negotiation, either at London or Gottenburg. The offer was no sooner communicated to our government, than accepted, and Messrs. Henry Clay and Jonathan Russel were appointed, in addition to the commissioners already in Europe, and soon after sailed for Gottenburg. Lord Gambier, Henry Goulbourn, and William Adams, were appointed, on the part of the court of St. James, to meet

them. The place of their meeting was first fixed at Gottenburg, but subsequently was changed to Ghent, in Flanders, where the commissioners assembled in August.

Sec. 38. No sooner had the northern armies gone into winter quarters, as above mentioned, than the public attention was strongly attracted to interesting events at the south, growing out of a war with the Creek Indians, which the latter had declared against the United States. The motives to this war were twofold. First, a desire on the part of a considerable number of the Creeks, to abandon the modes of civilization and improvement, which the nation was fast adopting, under the influence of benevolent citizens of the United States, and the government itself, and to return to their former savage life. Secondly, the reception of arms and presents from the British government, made with a view to enlisting them against the United States in the war in which the former were now engaged with the latter.

The discontentment of the wavering part of the Creeks had been much increased, and their hostile spirit inflamed, through the influence of the celebrated Tecumseh, who, in 1812, had made them a visit, at which time he passed through the nation, with a view to persuade them to shake off the oppressions of civilized life, and to return to their former more independent and unshackled mode of living. By means of the eloquence of this savage Demosthenes, the party hostile to the United States was much increased—a civil war commenced—and a vexatious border warfare was begun upon the whites.

Sec. 39. The war, at length, declared against the United States by the Creeks, proved exceedingly sanguinary in its progress, during the year 1813, and until the close of the summer of 1814, when Gen. Jackson, who conducted it, on the

part of the Americans, having in several encounters much reduced them, and finally and signally defeated them, in the battle of Tohopeka, or Horse-Shoe-Bend, concluded a treaty with them, August 9th, on conditions advantageous to the United States. Having accomplished this service, Gen. Jackson returned to Tennessee, and was soon after appointed to succeed Gen. Wilkinson in the command of the forces at New-Orleans.

The commencement of hostilities by the Creeks was an attack upon Fort Mimms, on the 30th of August, 1813. About noon, the garrison of the fort was surprised by about 600 Indians. At first, the American troops stood upon their defence, and repulsed the savages; but, on being harangued by their chief, Weatherford, they returned with augmented fury—drove the besieged into the houses, and set them on fire. A shocking massacre ensued. Not one was spared by the savage monsters; and but a few effected their escape. Only seventeen, out of 300 men, women, and children, who had taken refuge in the fort from adjoining settlements, were left to convey the melancholy tidings to the surrounding inhabitants.

On the receipt of this disastrous intelligence, 2000 men from Tennessee, under Gen. Jackson, and 500 under Gen. Coffee, immediately marched to the country of the Creeks. On the 2d of November, Gen. Jackson detached Gen. Coffee, with 900 mounted cavalry and mounted riflemen, from his head-quarters, the Ten Islands, on the Coosa river, to attack a body of Creeks at Tallushatches. This attack was made on the morning of the 3d, and resulted in the repulse of the Indians, who lost in killed 200, and 84 were taken prisoners. The killed and wounded of the Americans were 46.

On the 7th, a friendly Indian conveyed intelligence to Gen. Jackson, that a party of friendly Creeks were besieged by a body of hostile Creeks at Talladega, 30 miles below the camp. With a body of 1200 men, he immediately marched to their relief; and on his arrival, although the resistance of the Indians, amounting to near 1000 men, was bold and determined, he gave them a signal defeat, with the loss of near 300 slain. The loss of the Americans were fifteen killed, and eighty-five wounded.

Subsequently, the Creeks suffered severely in the destruction of the Hillabee towns, (November 18th,) by a detachment under Gen. White. Of 300 inhabitants found here, 60 were killed, and the remainder taken prisoners.

On the 29th of the same month, they were more signally defeated at Autossee, by 950 Georgia militia, and 400 friendly Indians, under Gen. Floyd. During this engagement, 400 houses were burned, and 200 warriors were slain, among whom were the kings of Autossee and Tallassee. The American loss in killed and wounded was fifty—among the latter was Gen. Floyd.

On the 23d of December, Gen. Claiborne, at the head of the Mississippi volunteers, achieved an important victory over the Creeks, under their prophet Weatherford, at Eccanachaca, on Alabama river.

In January, 1814, Gen. Jackson was reinforced by 800 volunteers, designed to supply the place of the Tennessee militia, whose term of service having expired, had returned home. With this force he successfully attacked and defeated the Creeks, during the month, at Emucfau and Enotachopco.

Notwithstanding these repeated defeats and serious losses, the Creeks remained unsubdued. Still determined not to yield, they commenced fortifying the bend of Tallapoosa river, called by them Tohopeka, but by the Americans, Horse-Shoe-Bend. Their principal work consisted of a breast work, from five to eight feet high, across the peninsula, by means of which nearly one hundred acres of land were rendered admirably secure. Through this breast work a double row of port-holes were so artfully arranged, that whoever assailed it, must be exposed to a double and cross fire from the Indians, who lay behind, to the number of 1000.

Against this fortified refuge of the infatuated Creeks, Gen. Jackson, having gathered up his forces, proceeded on the 24th of March. On the night of the 26th, he encamped within six miles of the bend. On the 27th, he detached Gen. Coffee, with a competent number of men, to pass the river, at a ford three miles below the bend, for the purpose of preventing the Indians effecting their escape, if inclined, by crossing the river.

With the remainder of his force, Gen. Jackson now advanced to the front of the breastwork, and at half past ten planted his artillery on a small eminence, at only a moderate distance.

Affairs being now arranged, the artillery opened a tremendous fire upon the breastwork, while Gen. Coffee, with his force below, continued to advance towards an Indian village, which stood at the extremity of the peninsula. A well directed fire across the river, which here is but about one hundred yards wide, drove the Indian inhabitants from their houses up to the fortifications.

At length, finding all his arrangements complete, and the favorite moment arrived, Gen. Jackson led on his now animated troops to the charge. For a short time, an obstinate contest was maintained at the breastwork—muzzle to muzzle through the port-holes—when the Americans succeeded in gaining the opposite side of the works. A mournful scene of slaughter ensued. In a short time, the Indians were routed, and the whole plain was strewed with the dead. Five hundred and fifty-seven were found, and a large number were drowned in attempting to escape by the river. Three hundred women and children were taken prisoners. The loss of the Americans was twenty-six killed, and one hundred and seven wounded. Eighteen friendly Cherokees were killed, and thirty-six wounded, and five friendly Creeks were killed and eleven wounded.

This signal defeat of the Creeks put an end to the war. Shortly after, the remnant of the nation sent in their submission. Among these was the prophet and leader, Weatherford. In bold and impressive language, he said: "I am in your power. Do with me what you please. I have done the white people all the harm I could. I have fought them, and fought them bravely. There was a time, when I had a choice; I have none now—even hope is ended. Once, I could animate my warriors; but I cannot animate the dead. They can no longer hear my voice; their bones are at Tallushatches, Talladega, Emucfau, and Tohopeka. While there was a chance of success, I never supplicated peace; but my people are gone, and I now ask it for my nation and myself."

On the 9th of August, a treaty was made with them by Gen. Jackson. They agreed to yield a portion of their territory as indemnity for the expenses of the war—to allow the opening of roads through their lands—to admit the whites to the free navigation of their rivers—and to take no more bribes from the British.

Sec. 40. On the 2d of December, the fifteenth congress commenced its second session. The

principal objects to which its attention was directed were the enactment of restriction laws, (embargo and non-importation acts)—the subsequent repeal of these acts—the offer of the unprecedented bounty of one hundred and twenty-four dollars to all soldiers who should enlist for five years or during the war—and an appropriation of half a million of dollars to construct one or more floating steam batteries.

An extra session of congress had been held, extending from May 24th to August 2d, the same year. The principal business of this session was the providing of means to replenish the treasury. This it was at length decided to accomplish by a system of internal duties; and accordingly laws were passed laying taxes on lands, houses, distilled liquors, refined sugars, retailers' licenses, carriages, &c. From this source the sum of five millions and a half of dollars were expected to flow into the treasury; in addition to which, a loan of seven millions and a half was authorized.

Early in the regular session of 1813—1814, an embargo was laid upon all American vessels, with a design to deprive the enemy's ships on the coast of supplies, and to secure more effectually the American shipping from introducing British manufactures. Against such measures the opposers of the war were loud in their complaints, on the ground that they were needless, and highly injurious to the prosperity of the country. Although these acts passed, in the month of April following, owing to important changes in the relative state of the belligerent nations of Europe, they were repealed.

Sec. 41. The spring of 1814 was distinguished for the loss of the American frigate *Essex*, Commodore David Porter, which was captured on the 28th of March, in the bay of Valparaiso, South America, by a superior British force.

Commodore Porter had been cruising in the Pacific for nearly a year, in the course of which, he had captured several British armed whale ships. Some of these were equipped as American cruisers and store ships; and the *Atlantic*, now called the *Essex Junior*, of twenty guns and sixty men, was assigned to Lieut. Downes. The prizes

which were to be laid up, were convoyed by this officer to Valparaiso. On his return, he brought intelligence to Commodore Porter that a British squadron, consisting of one frigate, and two sloops of war, and a store ship of twenty guns, had sailed in quest of the *Essex*. The commodore took measures, immediately, to repair his vessel, which, having accomplished, on the 12th of December, 1813, he sailed for Valparaiso, in company with the *Essex Junior*.

“It was not long after the arrival of Commodore Porter at Valparaiso, when Commodore Hillyar appeared there in the *Phœbe* frigate, accompanied by the *Cherub* sloop of war. These vessels had been equipped for the purpose of meeting the *Essex*, with picked crews, in prime order, and hoisted flags bearing the motto, “God and our country, British sailors’ best rights: *traitors offend them.*” This was in allusion to Porter’s celebrated motto, “Free trade and sailors’ rights;” he now hoisted at his mizen, “God, our country, and liberty: tyrants offend them.” On entering the harbor, the British commodore fell foul of the *Essex*, in such a situation as to be placed completely in the power of the latter; the forbearance of Commodore Porter was acknowledged by the English commander, and he passed his word and honor to observe the same regard to the neutrality of the port.

“The British vessels soon after stood out, and cruised off the port about six weeks, rigorously blockading the *Essex*. Their united force amounted to eighty-one guns and about five hundred men, about double that of the *Essex*; but the circumstance of this force being divided in two ships, rendered the disparity still greater; and was by no means counterbalanced by the *Essex Junior*. Commodore Porter being prevented by this great disparity of force, from engaging, made repeated attempts to draw the *Phœbe* into action singly, either by manœuvring or sending formal challenges; but Commodore Hillyar carefully avoided the coming to action alone. The American commander, hearing that an additional British force was on its way, and having discovered that his vessel could outsail those of the British, determined to sail out, and, while the enemy was in chase, enable the *Essex Junior* to escape to a place of rendezvous previously appointed.

“On the twenty-eighth of March, the wind coming on to blow fresh from the southward; the *Essex* parted her starboard cable, and dragged her larboard anchor to sea. Not

a moment was lost in getting sail on the ship, as it was determined to seize this moment to escape. In endeavoring to pass to the windward of the enemy, a squall struck the American vessel, just as she was doubling the point, which carried away her main-top-mast; both ships immediately gave chase, and being unable to escape in his crippled state, the commodore endeavored to put back into the harbor; but finding this impracticable, he ran into a small bay, and anchored within pistol shot of the shore; where, from a supposition that the enemy would continue to respect the neutrality of the port, he thought himself secure. He soon found, however, by the manner in which they approached, that he was mistaken. With all possible dispatch, therefore, he prepared his ship for action, and endeavored to get a spring on his cable, which he could not accomplish before the enemy commenced the attack, at fifty-four minutes past three.

“ At first, the *Phœbe* placed herself on his stern, and the *Cherub* on his larboard bow; but the latter soon finding herself exposed to a hot fire, changed her position, and with her consort, kept up a raking fire under his stern. The American, being unable to bring his broadside to bear on the enemy, his spring cables having been three times shot away, was obliged, therefore, to rely for defence against this tremendous attack, on three long twelve pounders, which he ran out of the stern ports; which were worked with such bravery and skill, as in half an hour to do so much injury to the enemy, as to compel them to haul off and repair.

“ It was evident that Com. Hillyar meant to risk nothing from the daring courage of the Americans; all his manoeuvres were deliberate and wary; his antagonist was in his power, and his only concern was to succeed, with as little loss to himself as possible. The situation of the *Essex* was most vexatious to our brave countrymen; many of them were already killed and wounded, and from the crippled state of their ship, they were unable to bring her guns to bear upon the enemy. Her gallant crew were not disheartened; aroused to desperation, they expressed their defiance to the enemy, and their determination to hold out to the last.

“ The enemy having repaired, now placed himself, with both ships on the starboard quarter of the *Essex*, where none of her guns could be brought to bear; the commodore saw no hope but in getting under way; the flying-jib was the only sail he could set; this he caused to be hoisted, cut his

cable, and ran down on both ships, with the intention of laying the Phœbe on board. For a short time, he was enabled to close with the enemy, and the firing was tremendous; the decks of the Essex were strewed with dead, and her cockpit filled with the wounded; she had been several times on fire, and was, in fact, a perfect wreck. At this moment, a feeble hope arose, that she might still be saved, in consequence of the Cherub being compelled to haul off on account of her crippled state; she, however, kept up her fire at a distance, with her long guns. The Essex was unable, however, to take advantage of the circumstance, as the Phœbe edged off, and also kept up, at a distance, a destructive fire; the former being totally bereft of her sails, could not bring her to close quarters.

“Commodore Porter finding the greater part of his crew disabled, at last gave up all hope, and attempted to run his vessel on shore, the wind at that moment favouring his design; but it suddenly changed, drove her close upon the Phœbe, exposing her to a raking fire. The ship was totally unmanageable, but as she drifted with her head to the enemy, Commodore Porter again seized a faint hope of being able to board. At this moment, Lieutenant Downes came on board, to receive orders, expecting that his commander would soon be a prisoner. His services could be of no avail in the present deplorable state of the Essex, and finding from the enemy's putting up his helm, that the last attempt at boarding would not succeed, Downes was directed to repair to his ship, to be prepared for defending and destroying her, in case of attack.

“The slaughter on board the Essex now became horrible, the enemy continuing to rake her while she was unable to bring a single gun to bear. Still her commander refused to yield while a ray of hope appeared. Every expedient that a fertile and inventive genius could suggest, was resorted to, in the forlorn hope, that he might be able, by some lucky chance, to escape from the grasp of the foe. A hawser was bent to the sheet anchor, and the anchor cut from the bows, to bring the ship's head around. This succeeded; the broadside of the Essex was again brought to bear; and as the enemy was much crippled, and unable to hold his own, the commodore thought she might drift out of gunshot, before he discovered that the Essex had anchored; but, alas! this last expedient failed; the hawser parted, and with it went the last lingering hope of the Essex.

“At this moment her situation was awful beyond descrip-

tion. She was on fire both before and aft, the flames were bursting up her hatchway, a quantity of powder exploded below, and word was given that the fire was near her magazine. Thus surrounded by horrors, without any chance of saving his ship, he turned his attention to the saving as many of his gallant companions as he could; the distance to the shore not exceeding three quarters of a mile, he hoped that many of them would save themselves before the ship blew up. His boats being cut up, they could only hope to escape by swimming; by some, this was effected; but the greater part of his generous crew resolved to stay by the ship, and share the fate of their commander.

“They now labored to extinguish the flames, and succeeded; after this, they again repaired to their guns, but their strength had been so much exhausted, that this effort was in vain. Commodore Porter summoned a consultation of the officers of the divisions, when, to his astonishment, only one acting lieutenant, Stephen Decatur M'Night, appeared. The accounts from every part of the ship were deplorable indeed; she was in imminent danger of sinking, and so crowded with the wounded, that even her birthdeck could hold no more, and several were killed under the surgeon's hands. In the mean time, the enemy, at a secure distance, continued his fire; the water having become smooth, he struck the hull of the *Essex* at every shot. At last, despairing of saving his ship, the commodore was compelled, at twenty minutes past six, to give the painful orders to strike the colors. The enemy, probably not seeing that this had taken place, continued to fire for ten minutes after, and Porter was about to give orders that the colors should again be hoisted, under a belief that the enemy intended to give no quarters, when the firing ceased. The loss on board the *Essex* was fifty-eight killed, thirty-nine wounded severely, twenty-seven slightly, and thirty-one missing. The loss on board the British vessels was five killed, and ten wounded; but they were both much cut up in their hulls and rigging; the *Phæbe* could scarcely be kept afloat, until she anchored in the port of Valparaiso next morning.

“Commodore Porter was paroled, and permitted to return to the United States in the *Essex Junior*, which was converted into a cartel for the purpose. On arriving off the port of New-York, the vessel was detained by the *Saturn* razee, and, to the disgrace of the British navy, already dishonored by the base attack upon this gallant officer, he was compelled to give up his parole, and declare himself a prisoner of war;

and, as such, he informed the British officer, that he would attempt his escape. In consequence of this threat, the Essex Junior was ordered to remain under the lee of the Saturn; but the next morning, Commodore Porter put off in his boat, though thirty miles from shore, and notwithstanding the pursuit by those of the Saturn, arrived safely in New-York."*

Sec. 42. Two naval engagements took place about this time, both of which resulted in favor of the American flag. The first of these was between the United States' sloop of war Peacock, and the British brig Epervier, April 29th; and the second, June 28th, between the sloop Wasp, which, after capturing seven merchantmen, fell in with and captured the English brig Reindeer.

The action between the first two mentioned vessels lasted but forty-five minutes. During its continuance, the Epervier had eight men killed, and fifteen wounded. The Peacock escaped with but a single man killed, and with only two wounded. This engagement took place in lat. $27^{\circ} 47'$ north, and long. $30^{\circ} 9'$.

The action between the Wasp and Reindeer was but eighteen minutes; yet the destruction of life was much greater. The latter vessel lost her commander, Captain Manners, and twenty-seven men killed, and forty-two wounded. Twice the British attempted to board the Wasp, but were as often repulsed. At length, the American tars boarded the Reindeer, and tore down her colors. The loss of the latter, in killed and wounded, was twenty-six. Their prize was so much injured, that, on the following day, she was burned.

Sec. 43. Gen. Wilkinson continued encamped with his army at French Mills, whither he had retired in November, 1813, until February, 1814, when, by order of the secretary of war, he detached 2000 troops, under Gen. Brown, to protect the Niagara frontier; soon after which, destroying his barracks, he retired with the residue of his forces to Plattsburg.

* Brackenridge.

The British, apprised of this movement, detached a large force, under Col. Scott, which destroyed the public stores, with the arsenal of the Americans, at Malone, which had belonged to the cantonment of French Mills; but, on hearing of the approach of a large American force, they hastily retreated.

Sec. 44. The movements of Gen. Wilkinson indicating a disposition to attempt the invasion of Canada, a detachment of 2000 British, under Major Hancock, was ordered to take post, and fortify themselves at La Colle Mill, near the river Sorel, to defeat the above object. With a view of dislodging this party, Wilkinson, at the head of 4000 men, crossed the Canada lines, on the 30th of March. On the following day, he commenced a cannonade upon the works of the enemy; but finding it impracticable to make an impression on this strong building, he retired with his forces, having lost in the affray upwards of one hundred and forty in killed and wounded.

The unfortunate issue of this movement, and the equally unfortunate termination of the last campaign, brought Gen. Wilkinson into such discredit with the American public, that, yielding to the general opinion, the administration suspended him from the command, in which he was succeeded by Gen. Izard. At a subsequent day, Wilkinson was tried before a court martial at Troy, by which he was acquitted, but not without hesitation.

Sec. 45. For three months following the above movement, the armies of both nations continued inactive. On the part of the British, the war seemed to languish, the nation at home being occupied with events which were transpiring in Europe of a most extraordinary character. But when, at length, the emperor of France had abdicated his empire, and Louis XVIII. was seated upon his legitimate throne, England was at liber-

ty to direct against America the immense force which she had employed in her continental wars. Accordingly, at this time, the British forces were augmented by 14,000 veteran troops, which had fought under Wellington; and, at the same time, a strong naval force was dispatched to blockade the American coast, and ravage our maritime towns.

Sec. 46. It has been already noticed, that Gen. Brown was detached by Wilkinson, with 2000 troops, from French Mills, (*Sec. 43.*) to proceed to the Niagara frontier. For a time, he stopped at Sacket's Harbor; but, at length, proceeded with his army to Buffalo. By the addition of Towson's artillery, and a corps of volunteers, his force was augmented to 3500 effective men.

On the 2d and 3d of July, he crossed the river Niagara, and took possession of the British Fort Erie, which surrendered without resistance. At a few miles distant, in a strong position, at Chippewa, was intrenched an equal number of British troops, under command of General Riall. On the 4th, Gen. Brown approached these works. On the following day, the two armies met, in the open field. The contest was obstinate and bloody; but, at length, the Americans proved victorious, while the British retired with the loss of 514 men. The loss of the Americans was 328.

Sec. 47. Immediately after this defeat, General Riall retired to Burlington Heights. Here, Lieut. General Drummond, with a large force, joined him, and, assuming the command, led back the army towards the American camp. On the 25th, the two armies met at Bridgewater, near the cataract of Niagara, and a most desperate en-

agement ensued, about sunset, and lasted till midnight. At length, the Americans were left in quiet possession of the field.

The battle of Bridgewater, or Niagara, was one of the most bloody conflicts recorded in modern warfare. The British force engaged fell something short of 5000 men, including 1500 militia and Indians. The force of the Americans was by one third less. The total loss of the British was 878. Generals Drummond and Riall were among the wounded. The Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, 860. Among the killed, were eleven officers, and among the wounded, fifty-six. Both Generals Brown and Scott were among the latter. On receiving his wound, Gen. Brown directed Gen. Ripley to assume the command. Unfortunately, the Americans having no means to remove the British artillery which had been captured, were obliged to leave it on the field. On being apprised of this, the British forthwith returned, and took their artillery again in charge. Owing to this circumstance, the British officers had the hardihood, in their dispatches to government, to claim the victory.

Sec. 48. Gen. Ripley, finding his numbers too much reduced to withstand a force so greatly his superior, deemed it prudent to return to Fort Erie. On the 4th of August, this fort was invested by General Drummond, with 5000 men; and for 49 days the siege was pressed with great zeal; but, at length, the British general was obliged to retire, without having accomplished his object.

The American force was at this time reduced to 1600 men. On the 5th Gen. Gaines arrived at Erie from Sacket's Harbor, and took the command. On the 15th, a large British force advanced in three columns under Cols. Drummond, Fischer, and Scott, against the fort, but were repulsed with the signal loss of 57 killed, 319 wounded, and 539 missing. Among the killed were Cols. Drummond and Scott.

For some time following this rencontre, both armies were inactive. But, at length, the distressed state of the besieged Americans in the fort attracting the attention of govern-

ment, a force of 5000 under Gen. Izard was ordered from Plattsburg to proceed to their relief.

On the 17th of September, Gen. Brown, who had recovered from his wounds, and had resumed the command of the fort, ordered a sortie, in which the Americans were so successful, that Gen. Drummond was obliged to raise the siege, and to retire with the loss of a great quantity of artillery and ammunition, and of 1000 men, which were his number of killed, wounded, and prisoners.

Shortly after, the troops under Gen. Izard arriving, the Americans were able to commence offensive operations. They, therefore, leaving only a moderate garrison in the fort, now advanced towards Chippewa, where Drummond had taken post. Near this place a partial battle occurred on the 20th of October, in which the Americans so far gained the advantage as to cause the enemy to retire.

Sec. 49. While these events were transpiring in the north, the public attention was irresistibly drawn to the movements of the enemy, on the sea-board. About the middle of August, between fifty and sixty British sail arrived in the Chesapeake, with troops destined for the attack of Washington, the capital of the United States. On the 23d of August, six thousand British troops, commanded by Gen. Ross, forced their way to that place, and burnt the capitol, president's house, and executive offices. Having thus accomplished an object highly disgraceful to the British arms, and wantonly burned public buildings, the ornament and pride of the nation, the destruction of which could not hasten the termination of the war—on the 25th they retired, and, by rapid marches, regained their shipping, having lost, during the expedition, nearly one thousand men.

The troops, under Gen. Ross, were landed at Benedict, on the Patuxent, forty-seven miles from Washington. On the 21st, they moved toward Nottingham, and, the following day, reached Marlborough. A British flotilla, commanded by Cockburn, consisting of lanches and barges,

ascended the river at the same time, keeping on the right flank of the army. The day following, on approaching the American flotilla of Commodore Barney, which had taken refuge high up the river, twelve miles from Washington, some sailors left on board the flotilla for the purpose, should it be necessary, set fire to it, and fled.

On the arrival of the British army at Bladensburg, six miles from Washington, Gen. Winder, commander of the American forces, chiefly militia collected for the occasion, ordered them to engage the enemy. The principal part of the militia, however, fled, at the opening of the contest. Commodore Barney, with a few eighteen pounders, and about four hundred men, made a gallant resistance; but being overpowered by numbers, and himself wounded, he and a part of his brave band were compelled to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

From Bladensburg, Gen. Ross urged his march to Washington, where he arrived at about 8 o'clock in the evening. Having stationed his main body at the distance of a mile and a half from the capitol, he entered the city, at the head of about seven hundred men, soon after which, he issued his orders for the conflagration of the public buildings. With the capitol were consumed its valuable libraries, and all the furniture, and articles of taste and value, in that and in the other buildings. The great bridge across the Potomack was burnt, together with an elegant hotel, and other private buildings.

Sec. 50. The capture of Washington was followed, September 12th, by an attack on Baltimore, in which the American forces, militia, and inhabitants of Baltimore, made a gallant defence. Being, however, overpowered by a superior force, they were compelled to retreat; but they fought so valiantly, that the attempt to gain possession of the city was abandoned by the enemy, who, during the night of Tuesday, 13th, retired to their shipping, having lost among their killed, Gen. Ross, the commander-in-chief of the British troops.

The British army, after the capture of Washington, having re-embarked on board the fleet in the Patuxent, Ad

miral Cochrane moved down that river, and proceeded up the Chesapeake. On the morning of the 11th of September, he appeared at the mouth of the Patapsco, fourteen miles from Baltimore, with a fleet of ships of war and transports, amounting to fifty sail.

On the next day, 12th, land forces, to the number of six thousand, were landed at North Point, and, under the command of Gen. Ross, commenced their march towards the city. In anticipation of the landing of the troops, General Stricker was dispatched with three thousand two hundred men from Baltimore, to keep the enemy in check.

On the 12th, a battle was fought by the two armies. Early in the engagement, a considerable part of General Stricker's troops retreated in confusion, leaving him scarcely one thousand four hundred men, to whom was opposed the whole body of the enemy. An incessant fire was continued from half past two o'clock, till a little before four, when Gen. Stricker, finding the contest unequal, and that the enemy outflanked him, retreated upon his reserve, which was effected in good order.

The loss of the Americans, in killed and wounded, amounted to one hundred and sixty-three, among whom were some of the most respectable citizens of Baltimore.

The enemy made his appearance, the next morning, in front of the American entrenchments, at a distance of two miles from the city, showing an intention of renewing the attack.

In the mean time, an attack was made on Fort M'Henry, from frigates, bombs, and rocket vessels, which continued through the day, and the greater part of the night, doing, however, but little damage.

In the course of the night of Tuesday, Admiral Cochrane held a communication with the commander of the land forces, and the enterprise of taking the city being deemed impracticable, the troops were re-embarked, and the next day, the fleet descended the bay, to the great joy of the released inhabitants.

Sec. 51. The joy experienced in all parts of the United States, on account of the brave defence of Baltimore, had scarcely subsided, when intelligence was received of the signal success of the Americans at Plattsburg, and on Lake Champlain. The army of Sir George Prevost.

amounting to fourteen thousand men, was compelled by Gen. Macomb to retire from the former, and the enemy's squadron, commanded by Commodore Downie, was captured by Commodore Macdonough on the latter.

Towards the close of the winter of 1814, General Wilkinson, with his army, removed from their winter-quarters at French Mills, and took station at Plattsburg. General Wilkinson leaving the command of the army, Gen. Izard succeeded him at this place. By September, the troops at Plattsburg were diminished, by detachments withdrawn to other stations, to one thousand five hundred men.

In this state of the forces, it was announced that Sir George Prevost, governor general of Canada, with an army of fourteen thousand men, completely equipped, and accompanied by a numerous train of artillery, was about making a descent on Plattsburg.

At this time, both the Americans and British had a respectable naval force on Lake Champlain; but that of the latter was considerably the superior, amounting to ninety-five guns, and one thousand and fifty men, while the American squadron carried but eighty-six guns, and eight hundred and twenty-six men.

On the 11th of September, while the American fleet was lying off Plattsburg, the British squadron was observed bearing down upon it in order of battle.

Com. Macdonough, ordering his vessels cleared for action, gallantly received the enemy. An engagement ensued, which lasted two hours and twenty minutes. By this time, the enemy was silenced, and one frigate, one brig, and two sloops of war, fell into the hands of the Americans. Several British galleys were sunk, and a few others escaped. The loss of the Americans was fifty-two killed, and fifty-eight wounded; of the British, eighty-four killed, and one hundred and ten wounded.

Previously to this eventful day, Sir George Prevost, with his army, arrived in the vicinity of Plattsburg. In anticipation of this event, Gen. Macomb made every preparation, which time and means allowed, and called in to his assistance considerable numbers of the militia.

In the sight of these two armies, the rival squadrons commenced their contest. And, as if their engagement had been a preconcerted signal; and as if to raise still higher

the solemn grandeur of the scene; Sir George Prevost now led up his forces against the American works, and began throwing upon them, shells, balls, and rockets.

At the same time, the Americans opened a severe and destructive fire from their forts. Before sunset, the temporary batteries of Sir George Prevost were all silenced, and every attempt of the enemy to cross from Plattsburg to the American works* was repelled. At nine o'clock, perceiving the attainment of his object impracticable, the British general hastily withdrew his forces, diminished by killed, wounded, and deserted, two thousand five hundred. At the same time, he abandoned vast quantities of military stores, and left the inhabitants of Plattsburg to take care of the sick and wounded of his army, and the "star-spangled banner" to wave in triumph over the waters of Champlain.

Sec. 52. It has been already noticed, that the New-England representatives in congress, as well as a great portion of the people in that section of the country, were early and strongly opposed to the war with Great Britain. During the progress of the war, this opposition continued, and became confirmed. Enlistments of troops into the army from this quarter were, therefore, fewer than under other circumstances might have been expected. Dissentions also arose between the general and state governments respecting the command of the militia, called out by order of the former, to defend the sea-board. Great dissatisfaction prevailed, from an apprehension that the affairs of the general government were mismanaged, and, to many, it appeared that a crisis was forming, which, unless seasonably provided against, might involve the country in ruin.

Such apprehensions for the political safety

* The village of Plattsburg is situated on the northeast side of the small river Saranac, near its entrance into the lake, and the American works are directly opposite.

extensively prevailing throughout New-England, it was deemed important, by not a few distinguished and patriotic citizens, to take measures to remove public grievances, and to provide against anticipated evils.

Accordingly, on the 8th of October, 1814, at an extra session of the Massachusetts legislature, a committee, to whom was referred the speech of the governor, (Strong,) in the conclusion of their report, recommended the appointment of "delegates to meet and confer with delegates from the states of New-England, or any of them, upon the subjects of their public grievances and concerns"—"and also to take measures, if they shall think proper, for procuring a convention of delegates from all the United States, in order to revise the constitution thereof, and more effectually to secure the support and attachment of *all* the people, by placing *all* upon the basis of fair representation."

This resolution met with a spirited opposition from a respectable minority, both in the senate and house of representatives—but finally passed. Delegates were accordingly chosen. This example was followed by Rhode-Island and Connecticut. Vermont refused, and New-Hampshire neglected to send.

On the 15th of December, these delegates, together with two elected by counties in New-Hampshire, and one similarly elected in Vermont, met at Hartford. After a session of near three weeks, they published a report, in which, after dwelling upon the public grievances felt by the New-England states particularly, and by the country at large, in no small degree, they proceeded to suggest several alterations of the

federal constitution, with a view to their adoption by the respective states of the Union.

These alterations consisted of seven articles:—*first*, that representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned to the number of free persons;—*secondly*, that no new state shall be admitted into the union, without the concurrence of two thirds of both houses;—*thirdly*, that congress shall not have power to lay an embargo for more than sixty days;—*fourthly*, that congress shall not interdict commercial intercourse, without the concurrence of two thirds of both houses;—*fifthly*, that war shall not be declared without the concurrence of a similar majority;—*sixthly*, that no person who shall be hereafter naturalized, shall be eligible as a member of the senate or house of representatives, or hold any civil office under the authority of the United States; and, *seventhly*, that no person shall be elected twice to the presidency, nor the president be elected from the same state two terms in succession.

Sec. 53. The report of the convention concluded with a resolution, providing for the calling of another convention, should the United States “refuse their consent to some arrangement whereby the New England States, separately, or in concert, might be empowered to assume upon themselves the defence of their territory against the enemy,” appropriating a reasonable proportion of the public taxes for this purpose; or, “should peace not be concluded, and the defence of the New-England States be neglected, as it has been since the commencement of the war.”

The conclusion of a treaty of peace with Great Britain, not long after, being announced, another convention was not called; and, on the submission of the above amendments of the constitution to the several states, they were rejected.

No act of the federal party has been so bitterly reprehended by their opponents, as the formation of the Hartford Convention. It is represented by them, as a treasonable combination of ambitious individuals, who, taking advantage of the embarrassments of the national administration, arising out of the war, sought to sever the union; and were only deterred from an open attempt to accomplish their purpose,

by the unexpected conclusion of a treaty of peace with Great Britain, which disembarrassed the administration, and swept away all grounds upon which to prosecute their designs.

In defence of the convention, it is urged, that the individuals who composed it, assembled in obedience to legislative appointment; and be the formation of a convention right or wrong, they, as individuals, were not responsible for it. That the calling of the convention was right, is urged on the following grounds: at the period of its formation, the situation of the country was such as gave serious grounds of alarm to reflecting men;—the war operations had been singularly disastrous; the recruiting service languished; the national treasury was almost penniless; the national credit was shaken, and loans were effected at a ruinous discount; the New-England seaboard was left exposed to the enemy—and instead of securing the confidence of the people of the eastern states, by filling the military and civil offices under the general government, with men of known talents and character, the administration committed the interests of the nation, at a critical period, to men contemned by a vast majority of the people in those states.

The public mind, in view of this state of things, was excited to a pitch bordering on insurrection; and as their representation in congress was unheard, they looked with earnest importunity to their state legislatures. What could be done? From the earliest dates of its history, the legislatures of New-England had been accustomed to call conventions, at periods of common danger, to confer upon the public welfare. It was natural at this moment to resort to the same course; and instead of favoring the suspicion of treasonable intentions, by the character of the men selected to form this convention, the age, gravity, and established reputation of the greater part of the members of it are a fair refutation of such suspicions. There are no clear proofs to support the charge of treasonable designs, on the part of the convention; on the contrary, their *designs*, which are the only fair test of their motives, and the only just grounds upon which to form its character, and which are before the world in their report, and their secret journal, triumphantly refute such a charge. And it is further maintained, that the actual operation of the proceedings of the convention was, instead of rousing opposition to the general government, to soothe the public apprehensions, and quiet that restless anxiety which pervaded the country.

Sec. 54. As early as the month of September, indications of no dubious character were given, that notwithstanding the negotiations pending between the Americans and British commissioners at Ghent, serious preparations were making for an invasion of Louisiana. About December 5th, certain intelligence was received that a British fleet, consisting of sixty sail, was off the coast to the east of the Mississippi. In the course of the month, fifteen thousand troops were landed, under the command of Sir Edward Pakenham, and, on the 8th of January, they attacked the Americans, amounting to about six thousand, chiefly militia, in their intrenchments, before New-Orleans. After an engagement of more than an hour, the enemy, having lost their commander in chief, and Maj. Gen. Gibbs, and having been cut to pieces in an almost unexampled degree, fled in confusion, leaving their dead and wounded on the field of battle.

On the receipt of intelligence that the enemy were off the coast of the Mississippi, Com. Patterson despatched five gun boats to watch their motions. These boats being unfortunately captured, the enemy were left to choose their point of attack, entirely unmolested.

A part of the British forces were landed on the 22d of December, and several engagements took place between them and the Americans, some miles from New-Orleans, but nothing decisive was effected on either side.

During these preliminary engagements, General Jackson, now commanding at New-Orleans, had been diligently employed in preparations to defend the place. His front was a straight line of one thousand yards, defended by upwards of three thousand infantry and artillerists. The ditch contained five feet of water, and his front, from having been flooded by opening the levees, and by frequent rains, was rendered slippery and muddy. Eight distinct batteries were judiciously disposed, mounting in all twelve guns of different calibers. On the opposite side of the river was a strong battery of fifteen guns.

On the morning of the 8th of January, General Pakenham brought up his forces, amounting to twelve thousand men, to the attack. The British deliberately advanced in solid columns, over an even plain, in front of the American intrenchments, the men carrying, besides their muskets, fascines, and some of them ladders.

A solemn silence now prevailed through the American lines, until the enemy approached within reach of the batteries, which at that moment opened an incessant and destructive cannonade. The enemy, notwithstanding, continued to advance, closing up their ranks as fast as they were opened by the fire of the Americans.

At length, they came within reach of the musketry and rifles. The extended American line now unitedly presented one sheet of fire, and poured in upon the British columns, an unceasing tide of death. Hundreds fell at every discharge, and by columns were swept away.

Being unable to stand the shock, the British became disordered and fled. In an attempt to rally them, Gen. Pakenham was killed. Generals Gibbs and Kean succeeded in pushing forward their columns a second time, but the second approach was still more fatal than the first. The fires again rolled from the American batteries, and from thousands of muskets. The advancing columns again broke and fled; a few platoons only reached the edge of the ditch, there to meet a more certain destruction. In a third but unavailing attempt to lead up their troops, Gens. Gibbs and Kean were severely wounded, the former mortally.

The field of battle now exhibited a scene of extended carnage. Seven hundred brave soldiers were sleeping in death, and one thousand four hundred were wounded. Five hundred were made prisoners—making a loss to the British, on this memorable day, of near three thousand men. The Americans lost in the engagement only seven killed, and six wounded.

The enemy now sullenly retired, and on the night of the 18th, evacuated their camp, and, with great secrecy, embarked on board their shipping.

Sec. 55. The news of the victory at New-Orleans spread with haste through the United States, and soon after was followed by the still more welcome tidings of a treaty of peace, which was signed at Ghent, on the 24th of De-

ember, 1814. On the 17th of February, this treaty was ratified by the president and senate.

Upon the subjects for which the war had been professedly declared, the treaty, thus concluded, was silent. It provided only for the suspension of hostilities—the exchange of prisoners—the restoration of territories and possessions obtained by the contending powers, during the war—the adjustment of unsettled boundaries—and for a combined effort to effect the entire abolition of traffic in slaves.

But whatever diversity of opinion had prevailed about the justice or policy of the war—or now prevailed about the merits of the treaty—all parties welcomed the return of peace. The soldier gladly exchanged the toils of the camp for the rest of his home; the mariner once more spread his canvass to the wind, and, fearless of molestation, joyfully stretched his way on the ocean; and the yeomanry of the land, unaccustomed to the din of arms, gladly returned to their wonted care of the field and the flock.

Sec. 56. The treaty with England was followed, on the 30th of June, 1815, by a treaty with the dey of Algiers, concluded at Algiers at that time, by William Shaler and Com. Stephen Decatur, agents for the United States.

The war, which thus ended by treaty, was commenced by the dey himself, as early as the year 1812. At that time, the American consul, Mr. Lear, was suddenly ordered to depart from Algiers, on account of the arrival of a cargo of naval and military stores, for the regency of Algiers, in fulfilment of treaty stipulations, which the dey alleged were not such in quantity or quality as he expected. At the same time, depredations were commenced upon our commerce. Several American vessels were captured and condemned, and their crews subjected to slavery.

Upon a representation of the case, by the president, to congress, that body formally declared war against the dey in March. Soon after, an American squadron sailed for the Mediterranean, captured an Algerine brig, and a forty-four gun frigate; and, at length, appeared before Algiers.

The respectability of the American force, added to the two important victories already achieved, had prepared the way for the American commissioners to dictate a treaty, upon such a basis as they pleased. Accordingly, the mo-

del of a treaty was sent to the dey, who signed it. By this treaty, the United States were exempted from paying tribute in future; captured property was to be restored by the dey; prisoners to be delivered up without ransom, &c. &c.

Sec. 57. By the ninth article of the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, it was stipulated by the former, that measures should be immediately taken to establish a peace with the several tribes of Indians, which had been engaged in hostilities against the United States. Such measures were accordingly taken, and, in his message, December, 1815, the president communicated to congress, that a renewal of treaties had readily been acceded to by several tribes, and that other more distant tribes would probably follow their example, upon proper explanations.

Sec. 58. The treaty with Great Britain, which ended the war, left the subject of commercial intercourse between the two nations to future negotiation. In the summer following the close of the war, plenipotentiaries, respectively appointed by the two countries for that purpose, met at London, and, on the 3d of July, signed "a convention, by which to regulate the commerce between the territories of the United States, and of his Britannic majesty."

This convention provided for a reciprocal liberty of commerce between the two countries—for an equalization of duties on importations and exportations from either country to the other—and for the admission of American vessels to the principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, viz. Madras, Calcutta, Bombay, &c. Of this convention, the president spoke in terms of approbation, in his message to congress; but by a large portion of the community it was received with coldness, from an apprehension that it would operate unfavorably to America, and would seriously abridge her commerce. The convention was to be binding only for four years.

Sec. 59. By the second article of the treaty with Great Britain, it was agreed, that all vessels, taken by either power, within twelve days from the exchange of ratifications, between twenty-three degrees and fifty degrees of north latitude, should be considered lawful prizes. A longer period was stipulated for more distant latitudes. Within the time limited by this article, several actions took place, and several vessels of various descriptions were captured by each of the belligerents. The frigate *President* was taken January 15th, 1815, by a British squadron; the British ships *Cyane*, *Levant*, and *Penguin*, were captured by the Americans.

In consequence of the continued blockade of Commodore Decatur's squadron at New-London, that officer was transferred to the *President*, then at New-York. Soon after taking command of her, a cruise was contemplated by the commodore, in conjunction with the *Peacock*, *Hornet*, and *Tom Bowline*. Thinking it more safe to venture out singly, the commodore appointed a place of rendezvous for the vessels, and set sail in the *President*. Through the carelessness of the pilot, his vessel, in passing out, struck upon the bar, where she lay for two hours tossing about, by which her ballast was deranged, and her trim for sailing lost. Trusting to the excellence of his vessel, however, and not being able to return to port, the commodore put out to sea.

At daylight, he fell in with a British squadron, consisting of the *Endymion*, *Tenedos*, and *Pomone* frigates, with the *Majestic* razeed. In spite of every exertion, they gained upon him; at length, the *Endymion* came within reach, and opened her fire. Commodore Decatur determined to engage her before the other vessels should come up. This he now did, and in a short time completely silenced her. By this time, the rest of the squadron had arrived; being unwilling to sacrifice his men in a useless contest, on receiving the fire of the nearest frigate, he surrendered. Commodore Decatur was taken on board the *Endymion*, and although she was only a wreck, he was required to surrender his sword to the officer of that vessel. To this the spirit of

Decatur could not submit, and he indignantly refused to relinquish it to any one, but to the commander of the squadron.

The *Cyane*, a frigate of thirty-four guns, and the *Levant*, a sloop of eighteen thirty pound carronades, were taken by the *Constitution*, about the same time.

The *Peacock*, *Hornet*, and *Tom Bowline*, left New-York a few days after the sailing of the *President*, without having heard of her capture. On the 23d of January, the *Hornet* parted company, and directed her course towards *Tristan d'Acunha*, the place of rendezvous. On the 23d of March, she descried the British brig *Penguin*, of eighteen guns and a twelve pound carronade, to the southward and eastward of the island. Captain Biddle hove to, while the *Penguin* bore down. At forty minutes past one, the British brig opened her fire. After fifteen minutes, the *Penguin* gradually neared the *Hornet*, with an intention to board, the captain having given orders for that purpose. At this time, he was killed by a grape shot. Her lieutenant then bore her up, and running her bowsprit between the main and mizen rigging of the *Hornet*, gave orders to board. His men, however, perceiving the crew of the *Hornet* ready to receive them, refused to follow him. At this moment, the heavy swells of the sea lifted the *Hornet* ahead. The commander of the *Penguin* called out that he had surrendered, and Captain Biddle ordered his men to cease firing.

Immediately after this, an officer of the *Hornet* called to Captain Biddle, that a man in the enemy's shrouds was taking aim at him. Before he could change his position, a musket ball struck him in the neck, and wounded him severely. Two marines immediately levelled their pieces, and killed the wretch before he had brought his gun from his shoulder. The crew of the *Hornet*, indignant at this outrage, demanded to give the enemy a fresh broadside, and the vessel had nearly wore round for the purpose, before Captain Biddle could restrain the justly exasperated crew. The loss of the *Penguin* was fourteen in killed, and twenty-eight wounded. The *Hornet* had one killed and eleven wounded. The former vessel was so seriously injured, that Captain Biddle sunk her.

Sec. 60. The attention of congress, during their session in 1815—16, was called to a bill, which had for its object the incorporation of a national bank. In the discussion which followed, much

diversity of opinion was found to prevail, not only as to the constitutional power of congress to establish such an institution, but also as to the principles upon which it should be modelled. After weeks of animated debate, a bill, incorporating the "*Bank of the United States,*" with a capital of thirty-five millions of dollars, passed, and on Wednesday, April 10th, received the signature of the president.

Of the stock of the bank, seven millions were to be subscribed by the United States, the remaining twenty-eight by individuals. The affairs of the corporation were to be managed by twenty-five directors, five of whom were to be chosen by the president, with the advice and consent of the senate; the remainder to be elected by the stockholders, at the banking house in Philadelphia. The charter of the bank is to continue in force until the 3d of March, 1836.

Sec. 61. The summer of 1816 passed away, without being marked by any events of peculiar moment. The country appeared to be gradually recovering from the embarrassments induced by the war, and that asperity of feeling, which had agitated the different political parties in the United States, was visibly wearing away. Congress met in December. In the conclusion of his message, at the opening of the session, Mr. Madison, anticipating the speedy arrival of the day, when he should retire from the presidency, took occasion to express his attachment for his country, and his wishes for her future peace and prosperity:

"I can indulge the proud reflection," said he, "that the American people have reached in safety and success, their fortieth year, as an independent nation; that for nearly an entire generation, they have had experience of their present constitution, the offspring of their undisturbed deliberations and of their free choice; that they have found it to bear the trials of adverse as well as prosperous circumstances, to contain in its combination of the federate and

elective principles, a reconciliation of public strength with individual liberty, of national power, for the defence of national rights, with a security against wars of injustice, of ambition, or of vain glory, in the fundamental provision which subjects all questions of war to the will of the nation itself, which is to pay its costs, and feel its calamities. Nor is it less a peculiar felicity of this constitution, so dear to us all, that it is found to be capable, without losing its vital energies, of expanding itself over a spacious territory, with the increase and expansion of the community, for whose benefit it was established."

Sec. 62. In December, 1816, INDIANA became an independent state, and was received into the union.

Detached places in Indiana were settled by the French, upwards of a century ago. The exact period, at which the first settlement was made, is uncertain.

In 1763, the territory was ceded by France to England. By the treaty of Greenville in 1795, the United States obtained of the Indians several small grants of land within this territory; and, in subsequent years, still more extensive tracts. During the war with England, which broke out in 1812, Indiana was the scene of many Indian depredations, and of many unusually severe battles, between the hostile tribes, and the troops of the United States. Until 1801, Indiana formed a part of the great north-western territory, but, at that date, it was erected into a territorial government, with the usual powers and privileges. In December, 1815, the inhabitants amounting to sixty thousand, the legislature petitioned congress for admission into the union, and the privilege of forming a state constitution. A bill for this purpose passed congress, in April, 1816; a convention of delegates met in conformity to it, by which a constitution was adopted, and Indiana became an independent state, and a member of the union, in December following.

Sec. 63. 1817. On Wednesday, February 12th, the votes for Mr. Madison's successor were counted in the presence of both houses of congress, when it appeared that James Monroe was elected president, and Daniel D. Tompkins vice-president of the United States, for the four

years from and after the fourth of the ensuing March.

NOTES.

Sec. 64. MANNERS. The only noticeable change of manners, which seems to have taken place during this period, arose from the spirit of pecuniary *speculation*, which pervaded the country during the war. Money was borrowed with facility, and fortunes were often made in a day. Extravagance and profligacy were, to some extent, the consequence. The return of peace, and the extensive misfortunes which fell upon every part of the community, counteracted these vices, and restored more sober and industrious habits.

Sec. 65. RELIGION. During this period, extensive revivals of religion prevailed, and liberal and expanded plans were devised and commenced for the promotion of Christianity. Several theological institutions were founded, missionary and Bible societies were established, and a great call for ministers of the gospel was heard.

Sec. 66. TRADE AND COMMERCE. During this period, trade and commerce were crippled by foreign restrictions, our own acts of non-intercourse, and, at length, by the war with England. During this war our carrying trade was destroyed, nor was it restored by the peace of 1815.

On the return of peace, immense importations were made from England, the country being destitute of English merchandise. The market was soon glutted, prices fell, and extensive bankruptcies were the consequence.

Sec. 67. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture, during

this period, cannot be said to have made great advances.

An excessive disposition in the people for trade and speculation, drew off the attention of the more intelligent and active part of the community, and directed much of the capital of the country to other objects. Upon the return of peace, however, when mercantile distresses overspread the land, agriculture was again resorted to, as one of the surest means of obtaining a livelihood. Men of capital, too, turned their attention to farming; agricultural societies were established in all parts of the country; more enlightened methods of culture were introduced, and agriculture became not only one of the most profitable, but one of the most popular objects of pursuit.

Sec. 68. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. During the war which occurred in this period, the intercourse with England, and other places, being stopped, the country was soon destitute of those articles which had been supplied by English manufactories. Accordingly, the people began to manufacture for themselves. Extensive manufacturing establishments were started for almost every sort of merchandise. Such was their success at the outset, that an immense capital was soon invested in them, and the country began to be supplied with almost every species of manufacture from our own establishments. After the peace, the country being inundated with British goods, these establishments suffered the severest embarrassments, and many of them were entirely broken down. A considerable portion of them, however, were maintained, and continued to flourish.

Sec. 69. POPULATION. At the expiration of Mr. Madison's term of office, in 1817, the number of inhabitants in the United States was about nine millions five hundred thousand.

Sec. 70. EDUCATION. The pecuniary embar-

rassments experienced throughout the country, during the latter part of this period, sensibly affected some institutions devoted to science and benevolence, especially those which depend, in part, upon the yearly contributions of the patrons of learning and religion, for the means of support. In several of the higher seminaries, the number of students was for a time diminished. Nevertheless, parochial schools, academies, and colleges, upon the whole, continued to increase, and to qualify many for the common and higher professions of life.

A theological institution was established at Princeton, New-Jersey, in 1812, by the general assembly of the Presbyterian Church. In 1821, the theological seminary of the Associate Reformed Church, in New-York, was united to that of Princeton, and its library, consisting of four thousand volumes, which cost seventeen thousand dollars, was transferred to the latter place. This seminary has three professors, and in 1821 had seventy-three students.

During the same year, Hamilton College was incorporated at Clinton, New-York; it has been liberally patronised by the legislature, and by individuals.

In 1812 the American Antiquarian Society was incorporated by the legislature of Massachusetts. The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions was incorporated. Five missionaries were ordained at Salem, Massachusetts, with a view of preaching the gospel in Asia. These were the first missionaries from America destined to foreign parts. In 1814, the Medical Institution of Yale College was opened. During this year also, the American Tract Society, and the Massachusetts Baptist Education Society, were instituted. In 1816, the American Bible Society was formed at New-York.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD XI.

DISTINGUISHED FOR MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the inauguration of President Monroe, 1817, to March, 1825.

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, 1817, Mr. Monroe took the oath prescribed by the constitution, and entered upon the duties of president of the United States.

The condition of the country, on the accession of Mr. Monroe to the presidency, was in several respects more prosperous and happy, than on the accession of his predecessor. Not only had war ceased, and the political asperity excited by it given place to better feelings, but efforts were made, in every section of the union, to revive those plans of business which the war had nearly annihilated. The country had suffered too much, however, to regain immediately its former prosperity. Commerce was far from being flourishing; a considerable part of the legitimate trade was in the hands of foreigners; many ships were lying unemployed, and the ship-building in many ports had nearly ceased. The manufacturing establishments, which had not been entirely broken down, were sustaining a precarious existence. Foreign merchandise was inundating the country; and the specie, borrowed in Europe for the national bank, at an excessive premium, as well as that which was previously in the country, was rapidly leaving it to pay the balance of trade against us.* In

* The bank of the United States commenced the importation of specie in 1817, and introduced into the country seven millions three hundred and eleven thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars, at an expense of more than half a million of dollars. As fast as this specie arrived, it was

his inaugural address, however, the president spoke in animating terms of the happy state of the country, and of its prospects of regaining, at no distant period, that measure of prosperity, which, in former years, it had enjoyed.

Sec. 2. The senate having been convened at the same time, a cabinet was formed under the new administration. The department of state was intrusted to Mr. Adams. Mr. Crawford was continued in the treasury. Mr. Calhoun was appointed secretary of war, and Smith Thompson was placed over the department of the navy.

In the above nominations the president appears to have strictly adhered to certain principles, which he had prescribed for himself in a correspondence with Gen. Jackson, who had written to Mr. Monroe an advisory letter touching this important presidential prerogative.

In the above letter to Mr. Monroe, dated Nov. 12, 1816, the general remarks: "Your happiness and the nations welfare, materially depend on the selections, which are made, to fill the heads of departments. Every thing depends on the selection of your ministry. In every instance party, and party feeling, should be avoided. Now is the time to exterminate that monster called party spirit. By selecting characters conspicuous for probity, virtue, capacity, and firmness, without regard to party, you will go far to, if not entirely, eradicate those feelings which, on former occasions, threw so many obstacles in the way of government, and perhaps have the pleasure and honor of uniting a people heretofore politically divided. The chief magistrate of a great and powerful nation should never indulge in party feelings; his conduct should be liberal and disinterested, always bearing in mind that he acts for the whole, and not a part of the community. By this course you will exalt the national character, and acquire for your-

reshipped to Europe, to pay the balance of trade against the United States, or sent to India or China to purchase merchandise. With this specie went a large portion of that which was in the country at the close of the war. The exportation of specie from the United States to China alone, in three years, amounted to above seventeen millions of dollars.

Viz. :—1816-17,	\$4,572,000
17-18,	5,300,000
18-19,	7,414,000

\$17,286,000

self a name as imperishable as monumental brass. Consult no party in your choice. Pursue the dictates of that unerring judgment which has so long and so often benefited the country, and rendered conspicuous its rulers."

The advice thus confidentially imparted to Mr. Monroe was acknowledged by the latter to be salutary, but he deemed the time not to have arrived when the object could be fully accomplished. "I agree with you decidedly," he says, "that the chief magistrate of the country ought not to be the head of a party, but of the nation itself. In deciding, however, how a new administration is to be formed, many considerations claim attention, as on a proper estimate of them much may depend of the success of that administration, and even of the republican cause. We have heretofore been divided into two great parties; the contest between them has never ceased from its commencement to the present time, nor do I think it can be said now to have ceased. To give effect to a free government, and secure it from future danger, ought not its decided friends, who stood firm, to be principally relied on? Would not the association of any of their opponents in the administration, itself wound their feelings, or at least of very many of them, to the injury of the republican cause? Might it not be considered by the other party as an offer of compromise with them, and have a tendency to revive that party, on its former principles? My impression is, that the administration should rest strongly on the republican party, indulging towards the other a spirit of moderation, and evincing a desire to discriminate between its members, and to bring the whole into the republican fold, as quietly as possible. The first object is to save the cause, which can be done by those who are devoted to it, only, and of course by keeping them together; or in other words by not disgusting, by too hasty an act of liberality to the other party, thereby breaking the generous spirit of the republican party, and keeping alive that of the federal. The second is to prevent the reorganization and revival of the federal party; which, if my hypothesis is true, that the existence of party is not necessary to a free government, and the other opinion which I have advanced is well founded, that the great body of the federal party are republican, will not be found impracticable. To accomplish both objects, and thereby exterminate all party divisions in our country, and give new strength and stability to our government, is a great undertaking, and not easily executed. I agree perfectly with you in the grand

object, that moderation should be shown to the federal party, and even a generous policy adopted towards it; the only difference between us seems to be, how far shall that spirit be indulged in the outset.

“In the formation of an administration, it appears to me that the representative principle ought to be respected, in a certain degree, at least that a head of a department, there being four, should be taken from the four great sections of the union, the east, the middle, the south; and the west. This principle should not always be adhered to; great emergencies and transcendent talents, would always justify a departure from it, but it would produce a good effect, to attend to it when practicable. Each part of the union would be gratified by it, and the knowledge of local details and means, which would thereby be brought into the cabinet, would be useful. I am in no wise compromitted, in respect to any one, but free to act according to my judgment.”

Sec. 3. In the summer and autumn following his inauguration, the president made a tour through the northern and eastern states of the union.

The objects of this tour were connected with the national interests. Congress had appropriated large sums of money for the fortification of the sea coast, and inland frontiers, for the establishment of naval docks, and for increasing the navy. The superintendence of these works belonged to the president. Solicitous to discharge his duty in reference to them with judgment, fidelity, and economy, he was induced to visit the most important points along the sea coast, and in the interior, from a conviction of being better able to direct in reference to them, with the knowledge derived from personal observation, than by means of information communicated to him by others. He left Washington on the first of June, accompanied by Gen. Joseph C. Swift, chief engineer of the United States, and his private secretary, Mr. Mason. Passing through Baltimore, Philadelphia, New-York, New-Haven, Hartford, New-London, and Providence, he arrived in Boston, in which place and its vicinity he spent several days.

On leaving Boston, he continued eastward to Portland, through Salem, Newburyport, and Portsmouth; and thence directed his course westward to Plattsburg, in the state of New-York. In his route thither, he passed through Dover, Concord, and Hanover, in New-Hampshire, and through

Windsor and Burlington, in Vermont. The important post of Plattsburg occupied his close attention for several days. From this latter place he continued westward to Ogdensburg, Sacket's Harbor, and Detroit. Having now effected the leading objects of his tour, he commenced his return to the seat of government, through the interior of Ohio. At the close of the day, September 17th, he entered Washington, after having been absent more than three months, and having travelled three thousand miles. In the course of his tour, the president examined the various fortifications on the sea board, and in the interior, visited public buildings and institutions devoted to the purposes of literature, the arts, and general benevolence. Although undesirous of attracting public attention on a tour whose object was the good of his country, he was met by a respectable deputation from the various places through which it was understood he would pass, and in lively and patriotic addresses was welcomed to their hospitality.

Sec. 4. Congress met on the 1st of December. In his message at the opening of the session, the president stated that the national credit was attaining a high elevation; that preparations for the defence of the country were progressing, under a well digested system; that arrangements had been made with Great Britain to reduce the naval force of the two countries on the western lakes; and that it was agreed that each country should keep possession of the islands which belonged to it before the war; and that the foreign relations of the country continued to be pacific. The message concluded with recommending the surviving officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army to the special notice of congress, and the repeal of the internal duties, on the ground that the state of the treasury rendered their longer continuance unnecessary.

Sec. 5. On the 11th, the state of MISSISSIPPI was acknowledged by congress as sovereign and independent, and was admitted to the union.

The first European who visited the present state of Mis-

Mississippi, appears to have been Ferdinand de Soto, a native of Badajoz, in Spain, who landed on the coast of Florida on the 25th of May, 1539. He spent three years in the country searching for gold, but at length died, and was buried on the banks of the Mississippi, May, 1542.

In 1683, M. de Salle descended the Mississippi, and gave the name of Louisiana to the country. In consequence of this, the French claimed to have jurisdiction over it. In 1716, they formed a settlement at the Natchez, and built a fort, which they named Rosalie. Other settlements were effected in subsequent years. The French settlements were, however, seriously disturbed by the Indians, particularly by the Natchez, once the most powerful of all the southern tribes.

The French retained an acknowledged title to the country on the east side of the Mississippi, until the treaty of 1763, when they ceded their possessions, east of that river, to the English. By the treaty of 1783, Great Britain relinquished the Floridas to Spain, without specific boundaries; and at the same time ceded to the United States all the country north of the thirty-first degree of latitude. The Spaniards retained possession of the Natchez and the ports north of the thirty-first degree, until 1793, when they finally abandoned them to the United States.

In the year 1800, the territory between the Mississippi and the western boundary of Georgia, was erected into a distinct territorial government. By treaty at Fort Adam, in 1801, the Choctaw Indians relinquished to the United States a large body of land, and other cessions have since been made. On the 1st of March, 1817, congress authorized the people of the western part of Mississippi territory to form a constitution and state government. A convention met in July, 1817, by which a constitution was formed, and in December following, Mississippi was admitted into the union as a separate state.

Sec. 6. In the course of the same month, an expedition which had been set on foot by a number of adventurers from different countries, against East and West Florida, was terminated by the troops of the United States. These adventurers claimed to be acting under the authority of some of the South American colonies, and had formed an establishment at Amelia Island

a Spanish province, then the subject of negotiation between the United States and Spain. Their avowed object being an invasion of the Floridas, and of course an invasion of a part of the United States, the American government deemed itself authorized, without designing any hostility to Spain, to take possession of Amelia Island, their head-quarters.

A similar establishment had previously been formed at Galvezton, a small island on the coast of the Texas, claimed by the United States. From both of these places privateers were fitted out, which greatly annoyed our regular commerce. Prizes were sent in, and by a pretended court of admiralty, condemned and sold. Slaves, in great numbers, were shipped through these islands to the United States, and through the same channel extensive clandestine importations of goods were made. Justly apprehending the results of these establishments, if suffered to proceed unmolested, the executive took early measures to suppress them. Accordingly, a naval force, with the necessary troops, was dispatched, under command of Captains Henly and Bankhead, to whom Amelia Island was surrendered, on the 24th of December, without the effusion of blood. The suppression of Galvezton followed soon after.

Sec. 7. Several bills of importance passed congress, during their session, in the winter of 1817, 1818; a bill allowing to the members of the senate and house of representatives, the sum of eight dollars per day, during their attendance; a second, in compliance with the recommendation of the president, abolishing the internal duties; and a third, providing, upon the same recommendation, for the indigent officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army.

The compensation bill, as it was called, excited much sensation throughout the nation, on the ground that the sum was unnecessarily enhanced, and gave occasion to long and animated debates on the floor of the house of representatives. By a portion of the representatives, strenuous efforts were made to fix the per diem allowance at six dollars,

while others attempted to raise it to nine or ten. After a protracted discussion of the subject, it was fixed at eight dollars.

Against the repeal of the internal duties, few objections were urged. The recommendation of the president to repeal them was anticipated, and on taking the vote in the house of representatives, one hundred and sixty were found in favor of the bill, and but five voices against it.

In calling the attention of congress to the happy situation of the United States, the president, in his message, adverted, with much sensibility, to the surviving officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army, who, by their services, had laid the foundation of American glory. Most of those who survived the achievement of our independence, said he, have paid the debt of nature. Among the survivors there are some who are reduced to indigence, and even to real distress. These men have a claim on the gratitude of their country, and it will do honor to their country to provide for them. The lapse of a few more years, and the opportunity will be lost for ever, as they will all have gone to the grave. In compliance with this recommendation, a bill was introduced into congress, which, after some amendments, passed, granting to *indigent* officers of the revolutionary army the sum of twenty dollars per month, during life; and of eight dollars per month, during life, to *indigent* non-commissioned officers and privates.

Sec. 8. In April, 1818, ILLINOIS adopted a state constitution, and in December following was admitted as a member of the union.

Illinois derives its name from its principal river, which, in the language of the Indians, signifies, *the river of men*. The first settlements, like those of Indiana, were made by the French, and were the consequence of the adventurous enterprises of M. de la Salle, in search of the Mississippi. The first settlements were the villages of Kaskaskia and Cahokia. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, the settlements of Illinois were represented to have been in a flourishing condition. But subsequently they in a great measure declined.

From the beginning to the middle of the eighteenth century, little was heard of the settlements of the French on the banks of the Illinois. About 1749, the French began to fortify the Wabash and Illinois, in order to resist the British. In 1762, all the country to the east of the Missis-

Mississippi was ceded to the latter power, and consequently Illinois passed under the British dominion. At the peace of 1783, Great Britain renounced its claims of sovereignty over this country, as well as over the United States. Virginia, however, and some other states, claimed the whole country north and west of the Ohio; but at the instance of congress, a cession of these claims was made to the general government. Illinois remained a part of Indiana until 1809, when a distinct territorial government was established for it. In 1818, the people formed a constitution, and it is now one of the United States.

Sec. 9. Early after the conclusion of this session of congress, the president, in pursuance of his determination to visit such parts of the United States as were most exposed to the naval and military forces of an enemy, prepared to survey the Chesapeake bay, and the country lying on its extensive shores.

In the month of May, he left Washington, accompanied by the secretary of war, and the secretary of the navy, with other gentlemen of distinction. On his arrival at Annapolis, the president and his suite minutely examined the waters contiguous, in reference to their fitness for a naval depot. Embarking at this place on board a vessel, he farther examined the coast, and thence proceeded to Norfolk. Having at length accomplished the principal object of his tour, in the examination of the Chesapeake bay, he returned to Washington, June 17th, through the interior of Virginia. The respectful and affectionate demonstrations of attachment paid to him during his northern tour, were renewed in this.

Sec. 10. On the 27th of May, 1818, a treaty, concluded with Sweden, at Stockholm, on the 4th of September, 1816, by Mr. Russel, minister plenipotentiary to that court, was ratified by the president and senate, on the part of the United States. The same was ratified by the king of Sweden on the 24th of the following July.

This treaty provided for maintaining peace and friendship between the two countries—reciprocal liberty of commerce—equalization of duties, &c. &c. The treaty was to

continue in force for eight years from the exchange of ratifications.

Sec. 11. During the year 1818, a war was carried on between the Seminole Indians and the United States, which terminated in the complete discomfiture of the former.

The history of this war is rendered the more interesting by the conspicuous part which the hero of New-Orleans bore in it, and the decisive, though novel measures, which he adopted in prosecuting it.

The Indians, denominated Seminole Indians, inhabited a tract of country, partly within the limits of the United States, but a greater part of which lies within the boundaries of the Floridas. They originally consisted of fugitives from the northern tribes, resident within the limits of the United States. After the treaty of 1814 with the Creek Indians, a considerable addition was made to these fugitives from the Creeks, numbers of whom, being dissatisfied with the provisions of that treaty, withdrew to the Seminoles, carrying with them feelings of hostility against the United States. These feelings seem to have been much strengthened by foreign emissaries, who had taken up their residence among them for the purposes of trade, among whom, as the most conspicuous, were two Englishmen, Alexander Arbuthnot and Robert C. Ambrister. Many outrages were perpetrated, from time to time, by the Indians, upon the border inhabitants, and several murders, under aggravated circumstances, were committed. Moreover, with a demand by General Gaines, the United States' officer in that quarter, to deliver up the offenders, the Indians refused to comply, alleging that the first and greatest aggressions had proceeded from the whites. In consequence of this refusal, Gen. Gaines was instructed, by the secretary of war, to remove, at his discretion, such Indians as were still on the lands ceded to the United States by the Creeks in 1814.

Pursuant to this discretionary authority, Gen. Gaines detached a party of near three hundred men, under command of Major Twiggs, to take an Indian village called Fowl Town, about fourteen miles from Fort Scott, and near the Florida line. In executing this order, one man and one woman were killed, and two women made prisoners. A few days after, as a second detachment were on a visit to the town, to obtain property, they were fired upon, and a skirmish ensued, in which several on both sides were killed

and wounded. Shortly after this event, Lieutenant Scott, with a detachment of forty men, seven women, and some children, ascending the Appalachicola with supplies for the garrison at Fort Scott, were attacked, and the whole party killed, excepting six men, who made their escape, and a woman who was taken prisoner.

From this time, the war became serious. The Indians, in considerable numbers, were embodied, and an open attack was made on Fort Scott, to which General Gaines, with about six hundred regular soldiers, was for a time confined. Information of this state of things being communicated to the department of war, General Jackson was ordered, Dec. 26, to take the field, and directed, if he should deem the force with General Gaines, amounting to one thousand and eight hundred men, insufficient to cope with the enemy, "to call on the executives of the adjacent states for such an additional militia force as he might deem requisite." On the receipt of this order, General Jackson prepared to comply; but instead of calling upon the executives of the neighboring states, especially upon the governor of Tennessee, who lived near his residence, he addressed a circular to the patriots of West Tennessee, inviting one thousand of them to join his standard.*

At the same time he wrote to the governor of Tennessee, M'Minn, informing him of the appeal he had made to the men whom he had led to victory on the plains of Talledega, Emuckfau, and Tohopeko, and added, "should the appeal prove inefficacious, I will embrace the earliest opportunity of making the requisition on you for a like number of drafted militia." The call of General Jackson was promptly obeyed, and the thousand volunteers, officered by the general, † or by the volunteers themselves, were ordered to Fort Scott.

* The apology offered by General Jackson for not calling upon the governor of Tennessee was, that at the time the order was issued, for him to take the field, the governor was either at Knoxville, or in the Cherokee nation; and that to have waited the result of the usual process of drafting, would have produced the two evils of much loss of valuable time, and the raising of a force reluctant in disposition, and inefficient in character and equipment.

† It has been denied that *General Jackson* appointed the officers of the volunteer corps. "It is true," however, says his defence, (see *Niles' Register*, Vol. 16, p. 52.) "that he appealed to the officers who had gallantly fought with him in the wilderness of the Creek nation, and on the plains of New-Orleans, and again roused them to the defence of their frontiers. But their appointments to command were, in all cases, made by the choice of the men whom they (the officers to whom General Jackson had appealed) brought into the field."

Before taking up his march, he wrote, Jan. 12th, to the secretary of war, apprising him of the appeal he had made to the Tennesseans, assigning as his reason for such a step, that he deemed the force with General Gaines, one thousand eight hundred, insufficient, and "that the greater portion of this number were drafted militia from Georgia, who might apply for their discharge at the expiration of three months from the time they were mustered," about the time he should probably reach Fort Scott. To this communication the secretary replied—"I have the honor to acquaint you of the entire approbation of the president, of all the measures which you have adopted to terminate the rupture with the Indians."

With these troops, and a number of friendly Creeks, under Gen. M'Intosh, raised by General Gaines, Jackson entered upon the Seminole war.

As a considerable number of these Indians dwelt in Florida, it became necessary to pursue the enemy thither. Anticipating the necessity of this measure, the secretary of war issued an order to General Gaines, while he was in command, to pursue them into Florida if necessary, "and to attack them within its limits, unless they should shelter themselves under a Spanish fort. In this last event you will immediately notify this department."

Deeming it necessary for the subjugation of the Seminoles, to enter Florida, General Jackson marched upon St. Marks, a feeble Spanish garrison, in which some Indians had taken refuge. Of this garrison, General Jackson quietly took possession, and occupied it as an American post.* At St. Marks was found Alexander Arbuthnot, who was taken prisoner, and put in confinement. At the same time were taken two Indian chiefs, one of whom pretended to possess the spirit of prophecy; they were hung without trial.† St. Marks being garrisoned by American troops,

* This disobedience of the orders which had been given to General Gaines, not to attack a Spanish fort, but to notify the secretary of war, should any Indians take shelter under one, was defended by General Jackson, on the ground, that orders issued to one officer could not be construed as orders to his successor without a *special* reference to the first:—that his orders were *general* and *discretionary*:—and that the circumstances contemplated by the orders to General Gaines never existed. The Indians not being found *under the guns* of a Spanish fort, but *sheltered within its walls*.

† In the defence of General Jackson, already alluded to, it is stated that Francis, the prophet, had long been a dire and dangerous foe to the United States, that he had a brigadier's commission from Great Britain, and by his superstitious influence instigated his brethren to deeds of rapine and

the army marched to Suwaney river, on which they found a large Indian village, which was consumed, after which the army returned to St. Marks, bringing with them Robert C. Ambrister, who had been taken prisoner on their march to Suwaney. During the halt of the army for a few days at St. Marks, a general court martial was called, upon whose result General Jackson issued the following general order. "At a special court martial, commenced on the 26th instant at St. Marks, and continued until the night of the 28th, of which brevet Major General E. P. Gaines was president, was tried A. Arbuthnot, on the following charges and specifications, viz :

"Charge 1st, Exciting and stirring up the Creek Indians to war against the United States and her citizens, he, A. Arbuthnot, being a subject of Great Britain, with whom the United States are at peace.

"Charge 2d, Acting as a spy; aiding, abetting, and comforting the enemy, and supplying them with the means of war.

"Charge 3d, Exciting the Indians to murder and destroy William Hambly and Edmund Doyle, confiscate their property, and causing their arrest, with a view to their condemnation to death, and the seizure of their property, they being citizens of Spain, on account of their active and zealous exertions to maintain peace between Spain, the United States, and the Indians.

"To which charges the prisoner pleaded not guilty,

"The court, after mature deliberation on the evidence adduced, find the prisoner, A. Arbuthnot, guilty of the first charge, and guilty of the second charge, leaving out the words 'acting as a spy;' and, after mature reflection, sentence him, A. Arbuthnot, *to be suspended by the neck until he is dead.*

"Was also tried, Robert C. Ambrister, on the following charges, viz.

"Charge 1st, Aiding, abetting, and comforting the enemy, and supplying them with the means of war, he being a subject of Great Britain, who are at peace with the United States, and late an officer in the British colonial marines.

"Charge 2d, Leading and commanding the lower massacre. The other chief had headed the party, who, in cold blood, murdered Scott and his unhappy companions, while ascending the Appalachicola. These considerations the General deemed sufficient to justify the summary course adopted in respect to them.

Creek Indians in carrying on a war against the United States.

"To which charges the prisoner pleaded as follows: to the first charge not guilty, to the second charge guilty, and justification."

"The court, on examination of evidence, and on mature deliberation, find the prisoner, Robert C. Ambrister, guilty of the first and second charges, and do therefore sentence him to suffer *death* by being *shot*. The members requesting a reconsideration of the vote on this sentence, and it being had, they sentence the prisoner to receive fifty stripes on his bare back, and be confined with a ball and chain, to hard labor, for twelve calendar months. The commanding general approves the finding and sentence of the court, in the case of A. Arbuthnot, and approves the finding and *first* sentence of the court in the case of Robert C. Ambrister, and disapproves the reconsideration of the sentence of the honorable court in this case.

"It appears from the evidence and pleading of the prisoner, that he did lead and command within the territory of Spain, (being a subject of Great Britain,) the Indians in war against the United States, those nations being at peace. It is an established principle of the laws of nations, that any individual of a nation making war against the citizens of any other nation, they being at peace, forfeits his allegiance, and becomes an outlaw and pirate. This is the case of Robert C. Ambrister, clearly shown by the evidence adduced.

"The commanding general orders that brevet Major A. C. D. Fanning, of the corps of artillery, will have between the hours of eight and nine o'clock, A. M., A. Arbuthnot suspended by the neck with a rope, until he is *dead*, and Robert C. Ambrister to be shot to *death*, agreeably to the sentence of the court."

From St. Marks, General Jackson addressed communications to the secretary of war, informing him that the Indian forces had been divided and scattered, and that his presence in that country could be no longer necessary; and that he should soon leave St. Marks for Fort Gadsden, where, after making all necessary arrangements to scour the country, he should retire. Information, however, was given him, some days after, that the governor of Pensacola was favoring the Indians. On learning this, General Jackson, with his forces, took up his march for the capital of that province, before which, after a march of twenty days, he appeared.

This place was taken with scarce the show of resistance.—The governor had escaped to Barancas, a fort six miles distant, to which place the army soon marched. The fortress was invested on the 25th of May, and a demand being made for its surrender, and refused, an attack upon it was made, both by sea and land, and, after a bombardment and cannonading of the place, for two days, the garrison surrendered as prisoners of war, and the officers of the government, civil and military, were transported, agreeably to the terms of capitulation, to Havana. A new government was established for the province, the powers of which were vested partly in military officers, and partly in citizens of the province. General Jackson now announced to the secretary that the Seminole war was closed, and returned to his residence at Nashville. Some time after, the American executive, deeming the longer possession of the Spanish forts unnecessary to the peace of the country, and inconsistent with good faith to Spain, directed them to be restored, and accompanied the restoration with the reasons which had led to their occupation.

The measures adopted by General Jackson in the prosecution of this war—particularly his appeal to the people of West Tennessee—his conduct in relation to the trial and execution of Arbuthnot and Ambrister—and his occupation of St. Marks and Pensacola—excited strong sensations in the bosoms of a considerable portion of the American people. During the session of congress in the winter of 1818—1819, these subjects were extensively and eloquently debated. By the military committee of the house, a report was presented censuring the conduct of General Jackson; but, after an elaborate examination of the case, the house, by a majority of one hundred and eight, to sixty-two, refused its concurrence. Towards the close of the session a report unfavorable to General Jackson was also brought forward in the senate, but no vote of censure or resolution was attached, and no discussion of its merits was had.

Sec. 12. On the 28th of January, 1819, a convention between Great Britain and the United States, concluded at London, October 20th, 1818, and ratified by the Prince Regent on the 2d of November following, was ratified by the president of the United States.

By the first article of this convention, the citizens of the

United States have liberty, in common with the subjects of Great Britain, to take fish on the southern, western, and northern coast of Newfoundland, &c. The second article establishes the northern boundaries of the United States from the Lake of the Woods, to the Stoney Mountains. By the fourth article, the commercial convention between the two countries, concluded at London, in 1815, is extended for the term of ten years longer, &c. &c.

Sec. 13. On the 22d of February, following, a treaty was concluded at Washington, by John Quincy Adams, and Luis de Onis, by which East and West Florida, with all the Islands adjacent, &c. were ceded by Spain to the United States.

By this treaty the western boundary between the United States and Spain was settled. A sum not exceeding five millions of dollars is to be paid by the United States out of the proceeds of sales of lands in Florida, or in stock, or money, to citizens of the United States, on account of Spanish spoliations and injuries. To liquidate the claims, a board was to be constituted by the government of the United States, of American citizens, to consist of three commissioners, who should report within three years.

Such were the essential provisions of the above treaty, which was ratified by the president and senate on the 24th, under a full confidence that it would, within six months, the time stipulated, be ratified by his Catholic Majesty. His majesty, however, declined the ratification, on the ground that the American government had attempted to alter one of the principal articles of the treaty by a declaration which the minister of the United States had been ordered to present, on the exchange of ratifications; and also on the ground that the government of the United States had recently tolerated or protected an expedition from the United States against the province of Texas.

In a message to congress, the president satisfactorily explained these subjects, and submitted to their consideration whether it would not be proper for the United States to carry the treaty into effect on her part, in the same manner as if it had been ratified by Spain, claiming on their part all its advantage, and yielding to Spain those secured to her. A bill, authorizing the president to take possession of Florida, was introduced into the house, but the subject was postponed to the consideration of the next congress. In October, 1820,

the king of Spain gave the treaty his signature. On the 19th of February following, 1821, the president, with the advice of the senate, finally ratified the treaty. Formal possession of the territory was given to General Jackson, as the commissioner of the United States, in the month of July following.

Sec. 14. On the 2d of March, 1819, the government of the ARKANSAS Territory was organized by an act of congress.

The earliest settlement, within the limits of the territory of Arkansas, was made by the Chevalier de Tonte, in 1685, at the Indian village of Arkansas, situated on the river of that name. Emigrants from Canada afterwards arrived, but the progress of settlement was slow. Upon the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the ceded territory was divided into two parts, *the territory of Orleans*, lying south of latitude thirty degrees, and the *district of Louisiana*, comprehending all the tract of country between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean. In March, 1805, the latter country was denominated the Territory of Louisiana. In 1812, this territory was constituted a territorial government, by the name of the Territory of Missouri. In March, 1819, the inhabitants of the northern parts were formed into a distinct district, by the name of Missouri, and soon after the southern was formed into a territorial government by the name of Arkansas. In December, 1819, an election for a delegate to congress was held for the first time.

Sec. 15. During the following summer, 1819, the president visited the southern section of the country, having in view the same great national interests, which had prompted him in his previous tour to the north.

In this tour the president visited Charleston, Savannah, and Augusta; from this latter place he proceeded to Nashville, through the Cherokee nation, and thence to Louisville and Lexington, Kentucky, whence he returned to the seat of government, early in August.

Sec. 16. On the 14th of December following, a resolution passed congress, admitting ALABAMA into the union, on an equal footing with the original states.

Alabama, though recently settled, appears to have been visited by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1539. Some scattered settlements were made within the present state of Mississippi before the American revolution, but Alabama continued the hunting ground of savages, until a much later period.

After the peace of 1783, Georgia laid claim to this territory, and exercised jurisdiction over it, until the beginning of the present century. In 1795, an act passed the legislature of Georgia, by which twenty-five millions of acres of its *western territory* were sold to companies for five hundred thousand dollars, and the purchase money was paid into their treasury. The purchasers of these lands soon after sold them at advanced prices. The sale of the territory excited a warm opposition in Georgia, and at a subsequent meeting of the legislature, the transaction was impeached, on the ground of bribery, corruption, and unconstitutionality. The records respecting the sale were ordered to be *burnt*, and the five hundred thousand dollars to be refunded to the purchasers. Those who had acquired titles of the original purchasers instituted suits in the federal courts.

In 1802, however, Georgia ceded to the United States all her western territory, for one million two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. On this event, the purchasers of the Yazoo land petitioned congress for redress and compensation. After considerable opposition, an act passed for reimbursing them with funded stock, called the Mississippi stock. In 1800, the territory which now forms the states of Mississippi and Alabama, was erected into a territorial government. In 1817, Mississippi territory was divided, and the western portion of it was authorized to form a state constitution. The eastern portion was then formed into a territorial government, and received the name of Alabama. In July, 1819, a convention of delegates met at Huntsville, and adopted a state constitution, which being approved by congress in December following, the state was declared to be henceforth one of the United States.

Sec. 17. In the ensuing year, March 3d, 1820, MAINE became an independent state, and a member of the federal union.

The separation of the District of Maine from Massachusetts, and its erection into an independent state, had been frequently attempted without success. In October, 1785, a convention met at Portland, for the purpose of considering the subject. In the succeeding year, the question was sub-

mitted to the people of Maine, to be decided in town meetings, when it was found that a majority of freemen were against the measure. The subject was renewed in 1802, when a majority appeared averse to a separation. In 1819, an act passed the general court of Massachusetts, for ascertaining the wishes of the people; in conformity to which, a vote was taken in all the towns. A large majority were found in favour of a separation. A convention was called, and a constitution adopted, which being approved, Massachusetts and Maine amicably separated, the latter taking her proper rank, as one of the United States.

Sec. 18. On the 3d of March, 1821, the sixteenth congress closed its second session. Few subjects of importance were discussed, and but little done for the advancement of public interest, or the promotion of private prosperity. Acts were passed to admit Missouri into the union conditionally; to reduce the military peace establishment to four regiments of artillery, and seven regiments of infantry, with their proper officers; and to carry into further execution the provisions of treaties with Spain and Great Britain.

Sec. 19. On the 5th, Mr. Monroe, who had been re-elected to the presidency, took the usual oath of office. The re-election of Monroe was nearly unanimous. Mr. Tompkins was again elected vice-president.

Sec. 20. August 10th, 1821, the president, by his proclamation, declared MISSOURI to be an independent state, and that it was admitted into the federal union.

The first permanent settlements in Missouri, appear to have been made at St. Genevieve and New-Bourbon, which were founded soon after the peace of 1663. In the succeeding year, St. Louis, the capital of the state, was commenced. In 1762, Louisiana, and Missouri of course, were secretly ceded by France to Spain; but the latter did not attempt to take possession of the country until some years after.

Missouri remained in possession of Spain, through the war of the revolution, until the cession of Louisiana to France, in 1801, by which latter power it was ceded to the United States in 1803.

Upon the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the district which now forms the *state of Louisiana*, was separated from the territory, and made a distinct government, by the name of the *territory of Orleans*. In 1811, the territory of Orleans became a state, by the name of *Louisiana*. The remaining part of the original province of Louisiana, extending to the Pacific, was erected into a territorial government, and called *Missouri*. In 1818-19, application was made to congress, by the people of this territory, to form a state constitution. A bill was accordingly introduced for the purpose, a provision of which forbade slavery or involuntary servitude. The bill with this provision passed the house of representatives, but was rejected in the senate, and, in consequence of this disagreement, the measure, for the time, failed. In the session of 1819-20 the bill was revived; and, after long and animated debates, a compromise was effected, by which slavery was to be tolerated in Missouri, and forbidden in all that part of Louisiana, as ceded by France, lying north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, except so much as was included within the limits of the state. In the mean time the people of Missouri had formed a state constitution. When this constitution was presented to congress, in 1820-21, a provision in it, which required the legislature to pass laws "to prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming to, and settling in the state," was strenuously opposed, on the ground that it violated the rights of such persons of that description as were citizens of any of the United States. The contest occupied a great part of the session, and it was finally determined, by a small majority, that Missouri should be admitted, upon the fundamental condition, that the contested clause should not be construed to authorize the passage of any laws, excluding citizens of other states from enjoying the privileges to which they are entitled by the constitution of the United States. It was also provided, that if the legislature of Missouri should, by a solemn public act, previously to the 4th Monday of November, 1821, declare the assent of the state to this fundamental condition, the president should issue his proclamation, declaring the admission complete. On the 24th of June, 1821, the legislature of Missouri assented to the fundamental condition; and, on the 10th of August fol-

lowing, the president's proclamation was issued, declaring the admission complete.*

Sec. 21. The first session of the seventeenth congress commenced on the 3d of December. The affairs of the nation were generally prosperous, and there seemed to be no obstacle in the way of wise and prudent measures. A spirit of jealousy, however, obtruded itself upon their deliberations, by which some beneficial measures were defeated, and the business of the session was unnecessarily delayed and neglected. Several acts of importance, however, were passed, concerning navigation and commerce;—relieving still further the indigent veterans of the revolution;—and fixing the ratio, between population and representation, at one representative for every forty thousand inhabitants.

The constitution has not limited the number, but has only provided that no more than *one* shall be sent for thirty thousand inhabitants. Public opinion seems generally to have decided that a numerous representation is an evil, by which not only the business of the nation is neglected in the conflicts of individual opinions, but the people are subjected to an unnecessary expense. The congress that signed the Declaration of Independence consisted but of fifty-six members; and no deliberative assembly excelled them in industry and public virtue. The congress that formed the confederation consisted of forty-eight; that which formed the constitution consisted of only thirty-nine, and the first congress under that constitution, of but sixty-five. After the first census, the appointment being one for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants, the house consisted of one hundred and five representatives. The same apportionment being continued under the second census, there were one hundred and forty-one representatives.—The apportionment, under the third census, allowed one for thirty-five thousand; and the house consisted of one hundred and eighty-seven members. The ratio fixed upon by the congress of 1822–3, was one for forty thousand; and the number of representatives was two hundred and twelve.

* American Atlas—Philadelphia.

Sec. 22. During the above session of congress, March 31, 1822, a territorial government was established for FLORIDA.

The name of Florida was formerly given to an immense region of country discovered by Cabot in 1497. The first visitant to the actual territory of Florida was Ponce de Leon, who landed on Easter day, 1512. Navigators from several countries visited it, and various European sovereigns attempted to appropriate the country to themselves.

Spain, however, held possession of it until 1763, when it was ceded to Great Britain. In May, 1781, Don Galvez captured Pensacola, and soon afterwards completed the conquest of the whole of West Florida, which remained in possession of Spain, until 1783, when Great Britain relinquished both provinces of Florida to Spain.

By the treaty of France, in 1803, which ceded Louisiana to the United States, it was declared to be ceded, with the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, when ceded to France. By virtue of this declaration, the United States claimed the country west of the Perdido river, and, in 1811, took possession of it, except the town and fort of Mobile, which were surrendered the following year. In 1814, a British expedition having been fitted out against the United States, from Pensacola, General Jackson took possession of the town; but, having no authority to hold it, returned to Mobile. The Seminole Indians, with whom the United States were at war, residing partly within the limits of Florida, and making their incursions thence without restraint from the Spaniards, it became necessary to cross the territorial line to chastise them. Subsequently, General Jackson took possession of Fort St. Marks and Pensacola, which the American troops held till November, 1818, when they were restored to Spain. In 1819, a transfer of the whole province was made by treaty to the United States, and, after many vexatious delays, the treaty was ratified by Spain in October, 1820, and finally by the United States in the month of February, 1821. Possession was delivered to General Jackson, as commissioner of the United States, in July, 1821.

Sec. 23. The second session of the seventeenth congress commenced at Washington on the 2d of December. In his message, at the opening of the session, the president informed congress

that in June a convention of navigation and commerce, resting essentially on a basis of reciprocal and equal advantage to the two countries, had been concluded between France and the United States;—that the prohibition, which had been imposed on the commerce between the United States and the British colonies in the West Indies and on this continent, had been removed, and that the ports of those colonies had been opened to the vessels of the United States, by an act of the British parliament.

In a second message, a few days subsequently, the president introduced to the notice of congress the interesting subject of the “multiplied outrages and depredations recently committed on our seamen and commerce, by *pirates*, in the West Indies and Gulf of Mexico,” and recommended the immediate organization of an efficient force to suppress them. A bill was accordingly introduced, authorizing the president to provide such a force, and to despatch it immediately to the protection of our persecuted seamen.

The president had mentioned the subject of piracy in his first message; but he was prompted early after to make it the subject of a special communication, in consequence of intelligence that Captain Allen, of the *Alligator*, a brave and meritorious officer, had fallen, in the neighborhood of Matanzas, by the hands of these ruthless barbarians, while attempting, in discharge of his duty, to rescue an unprotected merchant ship which had fallen into their power. Immediately after the passage of the above bill, Commodore Porter was appointed to this service, and soon after hoisting his broad pendant on board the *Peacock*, stretched his way, with a respectable force, to chastise these miscreants that regard no law, and that feel no mercy.

Sec. 24. The second session of the seventeenth congress closed on the 3d of March, 1823. Little

business of national importance had been transacted.

Sec. 25. On the 1st of December following, being the day established by the constitution, the eighteenth congress commenced its first session. In his message, at the opening of the session, the president spoke in animated terms of the prosperous condition of the country, and of the amicable state of our relations with foreign countries.

The message represented the public finances to be even more prosperous than had been anticipated; that the state of the army, in its organization and discipline, had been gradually improving for several years, and had attained a high degree of perfection; that the proposed fortifications of the country were rapidly progressing to a state of completion, and that the military academy at West Point had already attained a high degree of perfection, both in its discipline and instruction. In relation to the efforts of the executive to stop the depredations of pirates on the national commerce, the president stated, that, in the West Indies, and the Gulf of Mexico, the naval force had been augmented, according to the provisions of congress. "This armament," said he, "has been eminently successful in the accomplishment of its object. The piracies, by which our commerce in the neighborhood of the island of Cuba had been afflicted, have been repressed, and the confidence of the merchants in a great measure restored."

In the present struggle of the Greeks for liberty, the Americans have felt a lively interest. In allusion to this interesting subject, the message contained the following language—language to which every American would cordially subscribe:—"A strong hope has been long entertained, founded on the heroic struggle of the Greeks, that they would succeed in their contest, and resume their equal station among the nations of the earth. It is believed that the whole civilized world takes a deep interest in their welfare. Although no power has declared in their favor, yet none, according to our information, has taken part against them. Their cause and their name have protected them from dangers, which might ere this have overwhelmed any other people. The ordinary calculations of interest, and

of acquisition, with a view to aggrandizement, which mingle so much in the transactions of nations, seem to have had no effect in regard to them. From the facts which have come to our knowledge, there is good cause to believe that their enemy has lost, forever, all dominion over them—that Greece will again become an independent nation. That she may obtain that rank, is the object of our most ardent wishes.”

At the previous session of congress, the president had communicated the important fact, in relation to Spain and Portugal, that a great effort was making in those countries to improve the condition of the people, and that it appeared to be conducted with unusual moderation. The result, however, was widely different from what had been anticipated. Instead of an emancipation from their oppressions, their bondage, through the interference of foreign powers, had become doubly severe, and strong indications were perceived of an intention on the part of the “Holy Alliance,” to extend their “political system” to Mexico and South America.—But on this topic the executive observed, “the citizens of the United States cherish sentiments the most friendly in favor of the liberty and happiness of their fellow men on that side of the Atlantic. In the wars of the European powers, in matters relating to themselves, we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy so to do. It is only when our rights are invaded, or seriously menaced, that we resent injuries, or make preparation for our defence. With the movements in this hemisphere, we are, of necessity, more immediately connected, and by causes which must be obvious to all enlightened and impartial observers. The political system of the allied powers is essentially different, in this respect, from that of America. This difference proceeds from that which exists in their respective governments. And to the defence of our own, which has been achieved by the loss of so much blood and treasure, and matured by the wisdom of their most enlightened citizens, and under which we have enjoyed unexampled felicity, this whole nation is devoted. We owe it, therefore, to candor, and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers, to declare, that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere, as dangerous to our peace and safety. With existing colonies or dependencies of any European power, we have not interfered, and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have

declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling, in any other manner, their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States. In the war between those new governments and Spain, we declared our neutrality at the time of their recognition, and to this we have adhered, and shall continue to adhere, provided no change shall occur, which, in the judgment of the competent authority of this government, shall make a corresponding change on the part of the United States indispensable to their security.

“The late events in Spain and Portugal show that Europe is still unsettled. Of this important fact, no stronger proof can be adduced, than that the allied powers should have thought it proper, on any principles satisfactory to themselves, to have interposed, by force, in the internal concerns of Spain. To what extent such interposition may be carried, on the same principle, is a question in which all independent powers, whose governments differ from theirs, are interested; even those most remote, and surely none more so than the United States. Our policy, in regard to Europe, which was adopted at an early stage of the wars which have so long agitated that quarter of the globe, nevertheless, remains the same; which is, not to interfere in the internal concerns of any of its powers; to consider the government *de facto* as the legitimate government for us; to cultivate friendly relations with it, and to preserve those relations by a frank, firm, and manly policy, meeting in all instances the just claims of every power, submitting to injuries from none. But, in regard to these continents, circumstances are eminently and conspicuously different. It is impossible that the allied powers should extend their political system to any portion of either continent, without endangering our peace and happiness; nor can any one believe that our southern brethren, if left to themselves, would adopt it of their own accord. It is equally impossible, therefore, that we should behold such interposition, in any form, with indifference. If we look to the comparative strength and resources of Spain and those new governments, and their distance from each other, it must be obvious that she can never subdue them. It is still the true policy of the United States to leave the parties to themselves, in

the hope that other powers will pursue the same course.’

This language, so just, so patriotic, so independent, it scarcely needs be added, received the approbation of the whole American people, and called forth the warmest eulogium of the friends of rational liberty in Europe. The independent stand, thus taken by the American nation, has, thus far, had the effect upon the nations in question, to repress those aggressions upon our southern brethren, which, there is too much evidence not to believe, were designed.

On the present state of the country, the president held the following strong and eloquent language: “If we compare the present condition of our union with its actual state at the close of our revolution, the history of the world furnishes no example of a progress in improvement, in all the important circumstances which constitute the happiness of a nation, which bears any resemblance to it. At the first epoch, our population did not exceed three millions. By the last census, it amounted to about ten millions, and, what is more extraordinary, it is almost altogether native; for the emigration from other countries has been inconsiderable. At the first epoch, half the territory within our acknowledged limits was uninhabited and a wilderness. Since then new territory has been acquired, of vast extent, comprising within it many rivers, particularly the Mississippi, the navigation of which to the ocean was of the highest importance to the original states. Over this territory our population has expanded in every direction, and new states have been established, almost equal, in number, to those which formed the first bond of our union. This expansion of our population, and accession of new states to our union, have had the happiest effect on all its higher interests. That it has eminently augmented our resources, and added to our strength and respectability, as a power, is admitted by all. But it is not in these important circumstances only, that this happy effect is felt. It is manifest, that, by enlarging the basis of our system, and increasing the number of states, the system itself has been greatly strengthened in both its branches. Consolidation and disunion have thereby been rendered equally impracticable. Each government, confiding in its own strength, has less to apprehend from the other; and, in consequence, each enjoying a greater freedom of action, is rendered more efficient for all the purposes for which it was instituted.”

Sec. 26 In his message to congress, at the

opening of the session, the president, having alluded to the struggle of the Greeks for liberty, and having expressed, as the organ of public sentiment, the sympathy of the nation in their behalf, a resolution was presented to the house of representatives, by a member, providing for the expenses incident to the appointment of an agent, or commissioner to Greece, whenever the president should deem such appointment expedient. Although congress did not deem it expedient to adopt the resolution, it being indefinitely postponed, it served to call forth the warmest expressions of regard, on the floor of congress, for that oppressed people, and to elicit the attachment of the country to the principles of rational liberty.

“In offering the resolution, Mr. Webster stated, it was far from being his wish, in any manner, to commit the house, in this or any of the political contests of Europe; but the president of the United States having, in his message to congress, not only expressed a belief that the Greek nation, in its present struggle with its opposers, had the good wishes of the whole civilized world, but also advanced the opinion that the Turkish dominion over that country was lost forever; he thought that, if such were the fact, it was important that congress should act upon the subject. The main object in view was to obtain from this house an expression responsive to the sentiment of the message, in reference to the sacrifices and sufferings of that heroic people—sacrifices and sufferings, which ought to excite the sympathy of every liberal minded man in Europe, as well as in this country. But, whatever might be the case with other nations, *we* certainly ought not to be restrained from expressing, with freedom, what are our views in relation to the Greek cause, so far as may be done without committing ourselves in the contest. And he really did hope that we should show to the world, that there is, at least, one government which does entertain a proper view of that barbarous despotism, which, under the eyes of Europe, has been permitted, by a system of the foulest atrocity, to attempt to crush an interesting Christian nation.

“In most of our large towns and literary institutions,

meetings were held in reference to this subject, and resolutions adopted, expressive of sentiments alike honorable to our citizens as members of a free community, and as friends of humanity. They spoke a language worthy of the cause which called them forth, and such as the circumstances of the age require. They are a proof, too, of the existence and the energy of that principle in the American people, which removes them farther from the supporters of legitimacy than the breadth of the Atlantic, and is a safer bulwark than its billows."

To this it may be added, that, at a subsequent period, large contributions were made throughout the country, and forwarded to the constituted authorities of Greece, to aid them in achieving the liberties of that interesting people.

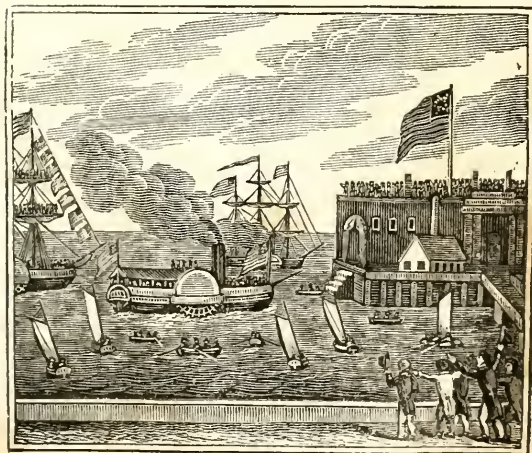
Sec. 27. On the 27th of May, 1824, the eighteenth congress closed its first session. Among the most important bills which were passed, was one for abolishing imprisonment for debt; and a second establishing a tariff of duties on imports into the country.

Each of these bills caused much debate in the national legislature, and excited no small solicitude among those classes of citizens whose interests were likely to be most affected by them. The bill for abolishing imprisonment for debt was necessarily qualified and guarded, giving no immunity to fraud, and containing the requisite checks to shield its benefits from abuse. The bill for a revision of the tariff occupied the house of representatives for ten weeks, and was at length passed only by a majority of five. On the occasion of its final decision, only two members, out of two hundred and thirteen, were absent.

Sec. 28. In the course of the summer an event occurred, which caused the highest sensations of joy throughout the union; this was the arrival of the Marquis de Lafayette, the friend and ally of the Americans, during the former war with Great Britain, and who eminently contributed, by his fortune, influence, skill, and bravery, to achieve the glorious objects of their revolutionary struggle.



Battle of Plattsburg. P. 452.



Landing of Lafayette at New-York. P. 497.



Sometime previously to his arrival, the marquis had expressed his intention of again visiting the United States. This being known, Jan. 7th, 1824, congress authorized the president "to offer him a public ship for his accommodation, and to assure him, in the name of the people of this great republic, that they cherished for him a grateful and affectionate attachment." In the following June, the legislature of Massachusetts authorized the governor of that commonwealth to make such arrangements for the honorable reception of the marquis as comported with the dignity of the state. In other parts of the country, early measures were adopted to receive with honor the man who had acted so disinterested a part towards the United States, and whose life had been devoted to the cause of rational liberty.

The delicacy of the marquis prevented his accepting the invitation of government to take passage in a public ship; but he soon after embarked on board a private vessel.

The time of his embarkation being known, the prayers of millions were offered for his safety from the dangers of the ocean. At length intelligence of his arrival was announced, and was received by every proper demonstration of joy.

He landed at New-York, on the 16th of August, accompanied by his son and M. L. Vasseur, his secretary, and was welcomed by thousands to the land where, more than forty years before, he had displayed a disinterestedness, a benevolence, a heroism, nearly unparalleled in the annals of time.

"From New-York, Lafayette passed through the country to Boston, constantly receiving the most enthusiastic congratulations of the people. Not only at every place where he stopped, but as he passed along the road, thousands came to catch a glimpse of him, and bid 'Welcome, Lafayette.' Having visited most of the principal towns in Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, he returned again to New-York. During this tour, it is impossible to convey in general terms an adequate idea of the excitement into which the country was thrown. Committees were constantly arriving from distant towns at the places where he stopped, to solicit the honor of receiving him, and to know on what day and at what hour his arrival might be expected. In some instances, gentlemen, residing at a distance from his route, directed the news of his approach to be sent them by expresses. Meantime the general was so obliging as to allow

himself to be transported with the utmost rapidity from place to place, often travelling most of the night, so as not to disappoint the anxious expectations of the people. From New-York the general went to Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, &c., constantly receiving from the people the same cordial welcome, and witnessing the same demonstrations of joy, wherever he went.

“But the feelings of the nation demanded that something more should be done for General Lafayette than could be expressed by acclamation alone. His love of liberty had been the means of depriving him of a great proportion of his fortune. When, during our revolution, the country was so exhausted as to be unable to clothe or feed her little army, Lafayette not only gave all his pay to government, but advanced money, which never was refunded; so that, in addition to the debt of gratitude, the nation owed him for advancements made during her necessities. It was the exercise of the same leading principle, (the love of liberty,) which occasioned the confiscation of his estates in France, when the jacobin faction controlled the kingdom.

“Under every consideration, the nation was bound to show Lafayette, and the world, that, in the prosperity of his adopted country, his former services were remembered with too much gratitude to be passed over without some permanent mark of national beneficence.

“The president of the United States, therefore, in his message to congress recommended, in appropriate terms, the subject to that body, upon which a committee was raised to consider the services of General Lafayette, and to report on the expediency of making him at least a partial remuneration.

“At a subsequent day, that committee reported a bill appropriating the sum of two hundred thousand dollars, and a complete township of land. This bill was, at length, passed, and when the intelligence of its passage was conveyed to Lafayette, he returned his warmest acknowledgments both to congress and to the nation, for the munificent favor which they had conferred upon him.

“The visit of Lafayette to the United States occupied about a year; during which he visited each of the 24 states, and was every where hailed as a father. When the time arrived which he had fixed as the termination of his visit, it was thought most fitting that his departure from the country should take place from the capital. A frigate was prepared at that place, and named, in compliment to him, the Bran-

dywine, to transport him to his native country. The few weeks spent upon the invitation of the president, as the guest of the nation, in the national palace, were appropriated to taking leave of those venerable men who had shared with him both in establishing the independence of the country, and in receiving all the appropriate honors which the people could bestow. He had previously visited and taken leave of the venerable Adams; he now, in succession, took leave of the other ex-presidents; the illustrious author of the Declaration of Independence; the able supporter and advocate of the federal constitution; and the soldier of the revolution who had shed his blood in the same cause with Lafayette.

"These preliminary visits being paid, he now prepared for his departure. The 7th of September, which was the day appointed for that purpose, the civil authorities of the district of Columbia assembled at the president's house to take leave of him. About noon he entered the great hall, where he was addressed by the president in terms manly, patriotic, and affectionate. In a similar manner Lafayette replied, concluding as follows: 'God bless you, sir, and all who surround us. God bless the American people, each of their states, and the federal government. Accept this patriotic farewell of an overflowing heart; such will be its last throb when it ceases to beat.'

"Then taking an affectionate leave of each individual present, the general left the hospitable mansion of the president. He was attended to the vessel by the whole population of the district. All business was suspended, and the vast multitude which lined the shores, witnessed his embarkation with a deep silence, highly indicative of the feelings that the American people cherished towards Lafayette. In passing Mount Vernon, he landed to pay a farewell visit to the tomb of Washington, whence, re-embarking, a prosperous voyage soon safely landed him on his own paternal soil."*

Sec. 29. The second session of the eighteenth congress began on the 6th of December, 1824; on which occasion the president represented the country to be highly prosperous and happy, both in respect to its internal condition and foreign relations.

“Our relations with foreign powers,” said he, “are of a friendly character, although certain interesting differences remain unsettled. Our revenue, under the mild system of impost and tonnage, continues to be adequate to all the purposes of government. Our agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and navigation, flourish. Our fortifications are advancing, in the degree authorized by existing appropriations, to maturity, and due progress is made in the augmentation of the navy to the limit prescribed by law.”

The president also stated that the convention of navigation and commerce concluded between the United States and France in 1822, still continued;—that our commercial intercourse with the British dominions in Europe and the East Indies, resting on the basis of reciprocity, which had been arranged by a convention in 1815, was confirmed and continued for ten years, by treaty in 1818; but that the trade with the British colonies in the West Indies had not as yet been settled to the satisfaction of the executive;—that our commerce with Sweden had been placed on a footing of perfect reciprocity, by treaty, and with Russia, the Netherlands, Prussia, and the free Hanseatic cities, the dukedom of Oldenburg, and Sardinia, by internal regulations on each side, founded on mutual agreement between the respective governments; and that the great and extraordinary changes which had happened in Spain and Portugal within the last two years, had not seriously affected the friendly relations subsisting between them and the United States; although they had presented obstacles to the adjustment of the particular subjects of discussion which have arisen with each. With the remaining powers of Europe, with those on the coast of Barbary, and with all the new South American states, our relations were moreover stated to be of a friendly character. The country has ministers plenipotentiary residing with the republics of Colombia and Chili, and have received ministers of the same rank from Colombia, Guatemala, Buenos Ayres, and Mexico, and a charge d'affairs from the independent government of Brazil.

In relation to the state of the maritime force of the country, the message represented the squadron in the Mediterranean to have been maintained, and to have afforded to our commerce the necessary protection in that sea; that the force in the Gulf of Mexico, and the neighboring seas, for the suppression of piracy, had also been continued; but that such were the atrocities of the pirates in that quarter, it was important to increase, rather than to diminish, our force.

On the Pacific our commerce has much increased, and on that coast, as well as on that sea, the United States have many important stations, which require attention and protection.

“From the view above presented,” the president continued, “it is manifest that the situation of the United States is, in the highest degree, prosperous and happy. There is no object which, as a people, we can desire, which we do not possess, or which is not within our reach. Blessed with governments the happiest which the world ever knew, with no distinct orders in society, or divided interests in any portion of the vast territory over which their dominion extends, we have every motive to cling together which can animate a virtuous and enlightened people. The great object is to preserve these blessings, and to hand them down to our latest posterity. Our experience ought to satisfy us that our progress, under the most correct and provident policy, will not be exempt from danger. Our institutions form an important epoch in the history of the civilized world. On their preservation, and in their utmost purity, every thing will depend. Extending as our interests do to every part of the inhabited globe, and to every sea, to which our citizens are carried by their industry and enterprise, to which they are invited by the wants of others, and have a right to go, we must either protect them in the enjoyment of their rights, or abandon them, in certain events, to waste and desolation. Our attitude is highly interesting, as relates to other powers, and particularly to our southern neighbors. We have duties to perform with respect to all, to which we must be faithful. To every kind of danger we should pay the most vigilant and unceasing attention; remove the cause where it may be practicable, and be prepared to meet it when inevitable.”

Sec. 30. The second session of the eighteenth congress closed on the 3d of March, 1825, being limited by the constitution to that period. Among the most interesting subjects which occupied its attention during the session, were the occupation of the Oregon on the North West coast, and the suppression of piracy. The bill respecting the former, however, was lost in the senate; being indefinitely laid on the table; while that respecting piracy passed; which, however, does little more

than to authorize the building of ten additional ships of war.

The bill authorizing the occupation of the Oregon was passed by the house of representatives, but had previously been so amended as to provide only for a military occupation of the mouth of the river. This amendment was adopted, for the purpose of avoiding a violation of the treaty with Great Britain, which provides that the boundary line on that frontier shall remain unsettled ten years.

On the subject of piracy, the president, in a message to the senate, suggested three expedients; one, by the pursuit of the offenders to the settled, as well as unsettled, parts of the island from whence they issue; another, by reprisal on the inhabitants; and a third, by a blockade of the ports of those islands. These suggestions gave rise to a bill in the senate, which embraced the several expedients proposed in the message, and which, for some weeks, was a prominent topic of debate. The opposers of the bill contended that it introduces a new principle into the rights of nations, and that a resort to the measure proposed by it would be in effect a declaration of war with Spain. This objection was anticipated by the president, and obviated by him, on the ground that the Spanish authorities are utterly incapable of suppressing the practice in question. The discussion of the subject has led to a disclosure of facts, which, in respect to its atrocities and the numbers concerned in it, exceed even conjecture, and which have forced conviction upon all, that something, and something efficient, must speedily be done.

Sec. 31. The administration of Mr. Monroe closed on the 3d of March. During his presidency, the country enjoyed a uniform state of peace and prosperity. By his prudent management of the national affairs, both foreign and domestic, he eminently contributed to the honor and happiness of millions, and retired from office, enjoying the respect, and affection, and gratitude of all who were able duly to appreciate the blessings of having a wise ruler.

Sec. 32. The electors of a successor to Mr. Monroe having failed to make a choice. the election

devolved on the house of representatives. On the 9th of February, 1825, that body proceeded to the discharge of this duty, when John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected president of the United States, for the four years from and after the 4th of the ensuing March. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, had been chosen vice-president, by the electoral colleges.

The subject of a successor to Mr. Monroe, was early introduced to the notice of the public, and the excitement the several parties in the United States was both fostered and increased by the newspapers and public journals of the day. Besides Mr. Adams, Mr. Crawford, secretary of the treasury, Mr. Clay, speaker of the house of representatives, and General Jackson, a senator, were candidates for the office; each of whom had their respective friends in the country, and among the legislatures of the states, nearly all of which by a public vote declared in favor of some one of the candidates. On counting the votes of the electors, it appeared that 84 were in favor of Mr. Adams, 99 for General Jackson, 41 for Mr. Crawford, and 37 for Mr. Clay. Notwithstanding General Jackson had the greatest number of votes from the electoral colleges, the house of representatives, voting by states, elected Mr. Adams. The result of the balloting was, for Mr. Adams, 13 states; for Mr. Jackson, 7 states; for Mr. Crawford, 4 states. By the constitution, only the three highest on the list could be candidates for the office in the house of representatives. Mr. Clay therefore was not voted for; but is supposed by his influence to have determined the question in favor of Mr. Adams, in opposition to Mr. Crawford, who had been nominated by a caucus at Washington; and to General Jackson, who had received the highest vote by the electors

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD XII.

DISTINGUISHED FOR ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, Mr. Adams, in the presence of the senate, house of representatives, heads of department, foreign ministers, and a numerous assemblage of citizens and strangers, took the oath prescribed by the constitution, and entered upon the duties of president of the United States.

On the occasion of his inauguration, Mr. Adams, in compliance with usage, delivered an address, in which he unfolded the principles by which he should be guided in the fulfilment of the duties of his office. Among other things he said, "our political creed is, without a dissenting voice that can be heard, that the will of the people is the source, and the happiness of the people the end, of all legitimate government upon earth—That the best security for the beneficence, and the best guaranty against the abuse of power, consist in the freedom, the purity, and the frequency of popular elections—That the general government of the union, and the separate governments of these states, are all sovereignties of limited powers; fellow-servants of the same masters, uncontrolled within their respective spheres, uncontrollable by encroachments upon each other—That the firmest security of peace is the preparation, during peace, of the defences of war—That a rigorous economy, and accountability of public expenditures, should guard against the aggravation, and alleviate, when possible, the burden of taxation—That the military should be kept in strict subordination to the civil power—That the freedom of the press and of religious opinion should be inviolate—That the policy

of our country is peace, and the ark of our salvation union, are articles upon which we are all agreed."

Sec. 2. On the day of Mr. Adams' induction into office, the senate was convened by the executive, for the purpose of confirming nominations to office under the new administration. Henry Clay, of Kentucky, was appointed secretary of state; Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania, secretary of the treasury; and James Barbour, of Virginia, secretary of war.

The new administration had scarcely entered upon its operations, before it was apparent that it was destined to meet with a systematic and organized opposition. Those who arrayed themselves against the administration, without reference to its measures, urged, as reasons for their hostility, that Mr. Adams' election was the result of a bargain between Mr. Clay and himself; and his election of Mr. Clay, as secretary of state, was relied upon as conclusive proof of the bargain; that he was elected against the expressed will of the people; and that congress, by not taking General Jackson, the candidate having the highest number of votes, had violated the constitution, and disobeyed their constituents.

Those who were friendly to the administration, or disposed to judge of it by its *acts*, replied to these objections, that Mr. Clay, as a representative, was obliged to decide between three candidates for the presidency, and that his vote was in accordance with all his previous declarations; that Mr. Crawford was virtually withdrawn from the list of candidates by his ill health, and that, in respect to the remaining two, Mr. Clay had always expressed himself decidedly in favor of the character and qualifications of Mr. Adams, which rendered it impossible for him to vote for General Jackson without the most gross inconsistency. Besides, the experience, the learning, the talents, the diplomatic skill of Mr. Adams, decidedly entitled him to the office in preference to any other candidate. As to the election of Mr. Clay to be secretary of state, this was vindicated on the ground that his situation as speaker of the house, and his long and intimate acquaintance with our national affairs, made him the most prominent candidate for that station. The refusal of this appointment by Mr. Clay, it was urged, would have argued an improper distrust of his own character and of

public opinion, and would have in a measure confirmed the suspicion of an improper alliance between himself and Mr. Adams.

Of the other objections urged by the opponents of the administration, it is sufficient in this place to say, that they were answered by the same zeal, and, to the minds of the supporters of the administration, with even more force than that with which they had been offered. It is but justice to add, that the charge of a bargain between Mr. Adams and Mr. Clay has not been satisfactorily supported. On the contrary, it seems now to be generally admitted, that no alliance had been formed between these gentlemen previously to the election which issued in Mr. Adams' accession.

Sec. 3. About this time a controversy arose between the national government and the executive of Georgia, in relation to certain lands held by the Creek nation, but which that state claimed as belonging to herself. In the progress of this controversy so much warmth was manifested, both by Georgia and some of the neighboring states, that much anxiety was felt by persons in different parts of the Union as to the consequences. The prompt and vigilant measures of the national executive, however, sanctioned as they ultimately were by congress, settled the controversy without disturbing the peace of the Union.

This controversy grew out of a compact between the general government and the state of Georgia, in 1802. By that compact the United States agreed, in consideration of Georgia relinquishing her claim to the Mississippi territory, to extinguish, at the national expense, the Indian title to the lands occupied by them in Georgia, "whenever it could be peaceably done, upon reasonable terms." Since making that agreement, the general government had extinguished the Indian title to about fifteen millions of acres, and had conveyed the same to the state of Georgia. There still remained in that state exceeding nine millions of acres, in possession of Indians, of which about five millions belonged to the Cherokees, and the remainder to the Creek nation.

Shortly before the termination of Mr. Monroe's adminis-

tration, an effort had been made to effect a treaty with the Creeks for their portion of the above lands. The Creeks, however, having become more civilized, refused to alienate their territory, and had even passed a law making it a capital offence to sell any more land. No solicitations of the commissioners appointed to purchase their lands, could induce them to consent, and, the council breaking up, a majority of the chiefs took their departure. A few, however, who thought differently, remained, and were induced to make a treaty, by which all the lands of the Creek tribes in Georgia and Alabama were ceded to the United States. This treaty was made the 12th Feb. 1825, and was transmitted to the senate, and sanctioned by that body on the 3d of March, the last day of the session, without that examination of the circumstances which it would have had, had it been transmitted at an earlier period of the session.

When the news of the ratification of this treaty arrived among the Creeks, it produced great excitement. M'Intosh, the leader and chief of the party that assented to it, and another chief, were killed, and the treaty rejected.

In the mean time the governor of Georgia, acting upon the assumption that the treaty was valid, made provision to have the lands surveyed, and distributed among the citizens by lottery. To the Creeks the conduct of Gov. Troup was especially obnoxious, and, a war being likely to be the consequence of measures pursued, the president directed Gen. Gaines to repair to the country of the Creeks to give them the necessary protection, and directed Gov. Troup to suspend his contemplated measures until the meeting of congress.

Efforts, however, continued to be made to settle this difficulty upon amicable terms; and at length, after a long negotiation with a deputation from the Creek nation at Washington, the old treaty was declared to be void, and a new one formed, by which the Creeks were to retain all their lands in Alabama, and to receive \$217,000, and a perpetual annuity of \$20,000 for their Georgia territory. To the M'Intosh party the United States agreed to pay \$100,000, provided the party amounted to 3000; and so in proportion for a smaller number. Moreover a tract of land beyond the Mississippi was to be provided for the accommodation of such as wished to remove, and the expense of removal and the first year's subsistence to be borne by the United States.

This treaty the senate ratified by a vote of 30 to 7. On

the passage of the bill making appropriation to carry into effect the new treaty, the vote in the house of representatives stood 167 to 10. To the passage of the bill the Georgia delegation offered a protest, which was suffered to be entered on the journal of the house by a vote of 82 to 61.

The unanimity with which the conduct of the executive, in the settlement of this intricate and unpleasant controversy, was approved by congress, was as unexpected as it was satisfactory to the people in every part of the country, except in the state of Georgia, where strong and excited feelings powerfully tended to prevent a fair and impartial consideration of the question.

Sec. 4. During the recess of Congress, an inquiry was instituted into the official conduct of Captains Porter and Stewart, which resulted in the suspension of the former from the service for six months, and the honourable acquittal of the latter.

Captain Porter had been recalled from his command in the West Indies by Mr. Monroe, shortly before the termination of his administration, on account of his landing at Foxardo, a Spanish settlement, and compelling the authorities of that place to apologize for their misconduct towards one of the officers of his squadron. The circumstances attending this affair induced Mr. Monroe not only to recall Capt. Porter, but to appoint a court of inquiry. This court met at Washington, May, 1825. During its session a controversy arose between the accused and the court, which resulted in the withdrawal of Capt. Porter from the court, and a publication by him of its proceedings, with his reasons for withdrawing. The court, however, proceeded in its inquiries, and, reporting its opinion to the president, a court martial was ordered to try Capt. Porter on two charges; the first for violating his instructions, and committing acts of hostility against the subjects of Spain by landing at Foxardo, and the other for insubordinate and unbecoming conduct, growing out of his controversy with the court of inquiry. Of these charges the court martial, which met in July, found him guilty, and sentenced him to a suspension of six months. Soon after, Capt. Porter withdrew from the service of the United States, and was appointed to the command of the Mexican squadron.

The charges against Capt. Stewart were such as to touch

his fame as an officer and a man of honour; but the court, after a minute and deliberate investigation, acquitted him of any charge, and accompanied the acquittal with a high compliment to his conduct while in the Pacific.

Sec. 5. The year 1825 was characterized by a spirit of speculation, which manifested itself not only throughout the United States, but also in Europe, and which ended in the embarrassment and ruin of thousands both here and in other countries.

The principal article of speculation was cotton, which rose in a few weeks from 6*d.* to 16*d.* sterling. This increase of price was partly owing to the small quantity then in the English market, but more to a spirit of commercial gambling, which had infected the whole commercial community. Coffee, spices, and other West India produce, also rose with great rapidity. Stocks, both public and private, exceeded all former prices. In a short time, however, the fictitious wealth, which the expansions of the bubbles had created, suddenly disappeared, and the ruin of thousands followed. In England, more extensive bankruptcies occurred than had been known for many years, occasioning an universal alarm and distrust. The public funds fell rapidly. Many of the most eminent banking houses stopped payment, and the ministry were called upon to devise measures for present relief to the intense pecuniary distress. The effects of these failures extended to other countries, and, though not equal in degree, were felt on the continent and in the United States.

Sec. 6. On the 5th of December, in conformity with the provisions of the constitution, the two houses of congress assembled in their respective chambers, and commenced the first session of the nineteenth Congress.

In his message at this time, the president stated that our foreign relations had undergone no material alteration since the adjournment of the preceding congress, although important changes had taken place in the commercial system of Great Britain, the effects of which, however, were not yet fully developed. The domestic state of the country was represented to be flourishing, and its finances even more fa-

avorable than had been anticipated by the secretary of the treasury.

Sec. 7. Shortly after the opening of the session, propositions were introduced into both houses to amend that part of the constitution, which provides for the election of the executive. In the discussion of this subject, a considerable portion of the session was occupied; great warmth was manifested by the respective parties, but no plan could be devised to which a majority would give its sanction.

This subject was brought forward the first week of the session, in the house, by Mr. M'Duffie, of S. C., in the shape of a resolution to amend the constitution by establishing a uniform mode of electing the president and vice-president by districts, and declaring the sense of the house in favour of preventing the election from devolving on congress.—Subsequently, this proposition was modified by the mover as follows. That the constitution should be, so amended as to prevent the election of president and vice-president from devolving upon the house of representatives. 2dly. That a uniform system of voting by districts in each state, equal in number to the senators and representatives of that state, ought to be established, and that each district should send one. 3dly. That a select committee be appointed to report a joint resolution embracing these objects.

These resolutions were urged with great vehemence by those who were opposed to the election of Mr. Adams. The debate on both sides was animated, and sometimes angry and personal. After a discussion of the subject for seven weeks, Mr. Webster, of Massachusetts, moved to discharge the committee from any further consideration of the subject. This was acceded to; and the previous question being ordered, to prevent further debate, the decision of the house was taken upon the resolutions. On the first, which took the election from congress, the house divided, 123 in the affirmative, and 64 in the negative. The second resolution, in favour of the *districting* system, was rejected by a vote of 101 to 91.—The subject was then referred to a select committee of 24, one from each state, which, at the close of the session, reported that they had not been able to agree upon any plan to prevent the election from devolving upon congress.

In the senate, early in the session, a resolution was offered, providing for the same subject by a direct vote of the people in districts. This resolution was referred to a committee, which, on the 19th of January, made a report on the subject, accompanied by a long resolution, embracing the amendment proposed. Great ability was displayed in drawing up this report: but the subject was not taken up in the senate, and was finally lost sight of in the other more interesting topics which were soon made the object of its attentions.

The obvious effect of the above attempt to amend the constitution was to excite the feelings of the members, and to call forth that angry spirit which had been so improperly manifested at the late election of the executive. It served to array the respective parties still more against each other, and to consolidate the already organized opposition to the administration.

Sec. 8. Another subject, which occupied much of the attention of congress, was the acceptance by the president of the invitation to send commissioners to the congress of Panama, and the nomination of Richard C. Anderson and John Sargeant as ministers on the part of the United States, and William B. Rochester, of New-York, as secretary. These nominations were at length confirmed by the senate, and the necessary appropriations made by the house; not, however, without a long and angry debate, in which many reflections were cast upon the executive on account, as it was deemed, of its hasty acceptance of the above invitation.

The congress at Panama had for its object the cementing of the friendly relations of all the independent states of America, and was designed also to serve as a common council in the conflicting state of things in South America, and as an umpire in their differences. The plan of such a congress was first introduced into a treaty between Peru and Colombia in 1822. In the three succeeding years, the same subject was had in view in treaties concluded between Colombia, Chili, Guatimala, and Mexico; and the Isthmus of Panama was designated as the place of the meeting of

this great American congress. To this congress an invitation was given, by several of the above states, to the United States to send commissioners. Before the meeting of the federal congress, the invitation had been accepted by the president, and, on the meeting of that body, the above nomination of ministers was made. The message of the president to the senate, with the documents touching this subject, was referred to the committee on foreign relations; where it remained till January 16th, when a report was made condemning the mission, and ending with a resolution declaring it to be inexpedient to send ministers to Panama. This resolution was negatived after several attempts to amend it, and the nomination made by the president of the above ministers confirmed. Here it was expected the subject, at least so far as the senate was concerned, would end. A few days after, however, a resolution was offered, the import of which was, that the president was not constitutionally competent to accept the invitation from the governments of the new republics to send ministers to the Panama congress. The resolution, however, was laid upon the table by a vote of 23 to 21.

In this debate Mr. Randolph took occasion, in his desultory manner, to stigmatize the secretary of state for his vote in the late presidential election, in such terms as induced that gentleman to demand an explanation of the offensive epithets. Any explanation Mr. Randolph pertinaciously refused, when called upon by Mr. Clay; and, on the 8th of April a meeting took place between them, which, after two ineffectual fires, resulted in the reconciliation of the parties. Much regret prevailed throughout the country that Mr. Clay, occupying so high and responsible a station, should have felt himself compelled to resort to a mode of settling a controversy so revolting to reason, and so unjustifiable in the view of sound morality—a mode which at all times gives a most unreasonable advantage to the offender, and, in the present instance, put at hazard the life of a man who has talents which must command respect, and which may be most usefully employed for his country.

In the house of representatives, the committee on foreign relations reported in favor of the expediency of sending ministers, and offered a resolution to make the necessary appropriations. On the 3d of April this resolution was taken into consideration, but it was not until the 21st, and after encountering great opposition, that it passed by a vote of 133 to 61.

The house having thus assented to the policy of the mission by making the appropriation, measures were taken to carry it into effect; and orders were transmitted to Mr. Anderson, who was then in Colombia, to attend the congress which was to hold its first meeting in the month of June. In his way to Panama, however, a malignant fever, by which he was attacked, proved fatal to him. After the decision of congress, it was found too late for Mr. Sargeant to reach Panama in season to attend the first meeting of the members of the mission, and accordingly the United States were not represented.

On the 22d of June, the representatives of Peru, Mexico, Central America, and Colombia, met, and commenced their deliberations. Upper Peru and Chili were not represented. Diplomatic agents from England and the Netherlands, though these governments had not been invited, were present, but were not permitted to attend upon the deliberations of the congress.

The body continued in session until the 15th of July, having concluded between themselves, as belligerents, a treaty of friendship and perpetual confederation, offensive and defensive, to which all other American powers might accede within the year. The next meeting was ordered to be held at Tacubaya, a village near Mexico, in the month of February, 1827.

Sec. 9. During this session of congress, a bill was introduced making provision for the surviving officers of the revolution. After an animated discussion of the subject, the bill was virtually lost by being recommitted, by a vote of 90 to 85, for the purpose of ascertaining the number of revolutionary officers who ought to be provided for by law, and the amount necessary to make such provision.

A general wish, no doubt, prevailed in the country to do these heroes of the revolution justice. The visit of Lafayette had excited a strong feeling in their favor. As he passed through the country, and met the companions of his former toils and glory, a disposition seemed to prevail to recompense them for their sufferings and privations; and congress met under the influence of a general belief that some provision would be made for their declining years or at least

an ample remuneration for the depreciation of the currency in which they had been paid.

Sec. 10. On the 22d of May, 1826, congress closed its session. It was a long one, but excepting the sanction given to the Panama mission, nothing of great public interest was accomplished.

Sec. 11. On the 4th of July occurred the 50th anniversary of American independence, which was celebrated throughout the union with many demonstrations of joy. This day, rendered memorable by the event which it celebrated, was made still more memorable, in the annals of American history, by the death of the two venerable ex-presidents, ADAMS and JEFFERSON.

The public services which these eminent men rendered their country, through a long series of years, will be a sufficient apology for introducing in this place a biographical sketch of each.

JOHN ADAMS was born in Braintree, now Quincy, on the 19th of October, 1735, and was descended from the first English emigrants to Massachusetts. He entered Harvard University in 1751, where he graduated in 1755. Whether he was distinguished at college, or shared its first honors, is not now certainly known. After he left college, Mr. Adams engaged in a grammar school at Worcester, where he commenced the study of law. Being admitted to the bar in 1758, he commenced business in his profession at Braintree, his native town. His success was so rapid, and his reputation so great, that, in 1766, he removed to Boston, where he continued to attend the neighboring circuits, and was occasionally called to remote parts of the province. In 1770, he undertook the defence of the British officers and soldiers, who were indicted for the massacre on the memorable 5th of March, of that year. The same year he was elected one of the representatives of the town of Boston, in the legislature of the province, which connected him more intimately with the great leaders of the popular party, and enlisted his feelings more ardently in public affairs, which at this time were assuming a very serious aspect. The popularity he lost in advocating the cause of Capt. Preston

and the British soldiers, he soon regained by his zeal and spirited conduct in support of the popular cause. And such was his increasing reputation as a patriot and politician, that he was appointed by the assembly one of its representatives to the continental congress, held in Philadelphia, in 1774. Mr. Adams took an active part in its deliberations, and the important measures it adopted. He was a member of the committee which prepared the declaration of the rights of the colonies, and likewise of that which reported the address to the king. He was a member of the congress the next year, and made the motion to appoint George Washington the commander in chief of the forces to be raised in defence of American liberty. He continued in congress in 1776, when he was one of the committee appointed to prepare a declaration of independence, and he and Thomas Jefferson were named as a sub-committee to prepare a draft. Mr. Jefferson was the draftsman of the declaration, but Mr. Adams was its boldest and ablest defender.

In the course of this year, 1776, Mr. Adams, Dr. Franklin, and Edward Rutledge, were appointed commissioners to treat with Lord Howe for a pacification. The following year, 1777, he was appointed by congress a commissioner to the court of France, in the place of Silas Dean. In 1779 he returned from Europe; and the next year he was appointed a member of the convention which framed the constitution of Massachusetts; and he drafted a considerable part of it. Before the close of the year 1780, he was sent to Europe again, as commissioner to negotiate a general peace, and remained in Europe until 1788. He was the first minister of the United States at the court of Great Britain; and whilst residing there, in 1787, he published his *Defence of the American Constitutions*. On his return to the United States, in 1788, he was chosen the first vice-president, which situation he held during the eight years of Washington's administration, when he succeeded the father of his country in the presidential chair. Mr. Adams was succeeded by Mr. Jefferson in 1801, and retired to private life.

From this time Mr. Adams lived as became a great and wise man. His correspondence and writings were extensive, and highly interesting; although perhaps some of them are not entirely free from the peculiar bias of his feelings. In 1820, at the advanced age of 85 years, he was once more withdrawn from retirement, being first chosen an elector of president and vice-president, and then elected a member of the convention to revise the constitution of

Massachusetts. He was unanimously chosen president of the convention, but declined. Mr. Adams died on the 4th of July, 1826, the fiftieth anniversary, and the national jubilee of his country, and whilst all his fellow-citizens were assembled, commemorating that great and glorious event, with which his name is inseparably and honorably associated.

THOMAS JEFFERSON was born on the 2d of April, O. S., 1743, at Shadwell, in the county of Albemarle, in the state of Virginia, but a short distance from Monticello. His father, Peter Jefferson, was one of the commissioners for establishing the boundary line between Virginia and North Carolina, and he left his son a large estate. The Jefferson family was among the earliest settlers in Virginia. Thomas Jefferson was educated at the college of William and Mary, and received the highest honors of that institution. After leaving college, he entered upon the study of the law, under the tuition of George Wythe, the first lawyer and advocate in the state. Soon after he came of age, he was appointed justice of the peace, and this was followed by an election to a seat in the house of burgesses. In June, 1775, he was elected a member of the continental congress, in the place of Peyton Randolph, who had resigned his seat in consequence of ill health. He continued a member, and one of the brightest ornaments of this august body, until 1777.

In 1776, he was one of a committee appointed to prepare the declaration of independence. The committee were appointed by ballot, and consisted of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Adams, the two first on the committee, were named as a sub-committee to prepare the draft. It was written by Mr. Jefferson, and first submitted to Mr. Adams, who says that he made no alterations. It was then submitted to the whole committee, and some alterations were made by Franklin, and others of the committee. Some parts of it were omitted by congress after it was reported, and some slight alterations made; but its tone, spirit, and arrangement, remained the same as when reported. In 1777, Mr. Jefferson left congress, and during that and the following year he was employed, in conjunction with George Wythe and Edmund Pendleton, in revising the laws of Virginia. Mr. Jefferson is entitled to the principal merit of securing the rights of conscience, and establishing religious liberty in Virginia. No part of the conduct of Mr. Jefferson made him more enemies, or brought on him more censure, than his exertions in favor of religious

freedom; and perhaps in no other particular were his efforts more extensively useful.

In 1779, Mr. Jefferson succeeded Patrick Henry as governor of Virginia, and was in that station when the state was invaded by the British. In 1783, he was again elected a member of the continental congress, and took his seat in that body; and in May, 1784, he was commissioned as minister plenipotentiary, with Franklin, John Adams, Jay, and Laurens, to negotiate treaties with several European powers. In 1785, he was appointed resident minister at the French court, and remained in France until October, 1789, when, having obtained leave of congress, he returned home, just at the commencement of the tremendous revolution in that country, which agitated all Europe. On his return home, when the new government was going into operation, he was named, by President Washington, secretary of state. Mr. Jefferson's great ability as a writer, his extensive attainments, and perfect knowledge of European politics, as well as those of his own country, peculiarly qualified him for this situation, and justly procured him the reputation of one of the most distinguished statesmen of the age. He continued in the office of secretary of state until December, 1793, when he resigned, and remained in retirement for several years. In 1797, when John Adams was elected president, Mr. Jefferson was chosen vice-president, and to facilitate the discharge of the duties of president of the senate, he composed his *Manual of Parliamentary Practice*. In 1801, there having been no choice by the electors, he was chosen president of the United States by the house of representatives, after an alarming and memorable contest. The most important measure of his administration was the acquisition of the immense territory of Louisiana by purchase, which alone cannot fail of rendering it illustrious to the latest posterity.

Although the opposition to his administration was violent beyond any example, yet such was the change in public sentiment, that, at the expiration of his first term, he was re-elected with an expression of public opinion approaching to unanimity. In 1809, this illustrious patriot retired from political life, carrying with him the respect and affections of a large portion of his fellow-citizens. But in retirement he did not, and indeed could not, abstract himself from public objects, and the interests of his beloved country. His extensive correspondence contributed to diffuse his sentiments, as much perhaps as he was enabled to do at any other period of

his life. Mr. Jefferson's talent at epistolary composition was peculiarly happy, and perhaps unrivalled. But his correspondence and other literary employments did not occupy his whole attention. At this advanced period of life, his active mind, always intent on promoting the best interests of his race, led him to engage in a work of great and lasting utility. We allude to the establishment of the university of Virginia, of which he was rector and visiter, and which occupied a large share of his attention during the last years of his life. All his useful and great labors on earth being finished, his end seemed to be approaching. He viewed it with calmness and serenity, and seemed to manifest some uneasiness in waiting for his departure. He however had one wish, which was granted him. This cannot be expressed so well as in the language of one of his eulogists:* "That day was at hand which he had helped to make immortal. One wish, one hope—if it were not presumptuous—beat in his fainting breast. Could it be so—might it please God—he would desire once more to see the sun—once more to look abroad on the scene around him, on the great day of liberty, Heaven in its mercy fulfilled that prayer. He saw that sun—he enjoyed its sacred light—he thanked God for this mercy, and bowed his aged head to the grave." He expired at Monticello, at one o'clock in the afternoon, on the 4th of July, 1826, the half century anniversary of that day, which is first in the annals of his country, and in his own fame.

Sec. 12 The second session of the nineteenth congress commenced on the fourth of December, 1826. The message of the president on the following day contained a minute and flattering detail of the concerns of the nation, both foreign and domestic.

During this session several subjects were presented to the consideration of the national legislature, a rapid view of which will be given in this place.

The first of these related to the West India trade. For a time this trade had been interrupted, and negotiations with the British government had been suspended on the following point, viz. : that the produce of the United States should be admitted into the West Indies, on the same terms with that of the Canadas. This point Mr. Gallatin, at this

* Webster's Address.

time representing the American government at the court of St. James', was authorized to relinquish. But the British minister, Mr. Canning, replied, that all further negotiations on the subject would be useless. This being communicated to congress, the subject was referred, both in the senate and house of representatives, to their respective committees on commerce, which united in recommending a bill prohibiting all intercourse with the colonies, either in British or other vessels, until the trade should be placed on a footing of reciprocity. Owing, however, to some disagreement between the houses, neither bill became a law, and here the subject ended until the administration of 1829 appointed a new minister, with instructions to renew the negotiations. This was done, and the trade has been partially restored; but with concessions on the part of the Americans, which are considered by the opposers of the administration to be both humbling and indefensible.

Another subject of much interest discussed by the congress of 1826 was the duty on woollens, laid by the tariff of 1824, which was found to have failed to afford the expected protection to American manufactures, in consequence of an almost total repeal on the part of Great Britain of their duty on the raw material. Hence, a bill was introduced by the committee on manufactures for an increase of the duty on wool and woollens, with a view to afford the encouragement originally intended. After a protracted discussion, the bill passed the house on the 9th of February, 1827; ayes 106, noes 95. In the senate it was laid on the table, on the 28th of February, by the casting vote of the vice-president.

The above failure of the woollens bill induced the Pennsylvania society for the promotion of manufactures, to take measures for a general convention of the friends of the American system, at Harrisburg, on the 30th of July, 1827, to deliberate on the measures proper to be taken to encourage domestic industry. This convention consisted of one hundred members from thirteen states, including all north and east of Virginia, inclusive, excepting the state of Maine, and the states of Kentucky and Ohio. This convention agreed on a memorial to congress, praying an increase of duties on woollen manufactures, and the raw material; also, on the manufactures of hemp, flax, and cotton, and on iron, steel, and distilled spirits.

The convention of Harrisburg being viewed with great jealousy by the south, a counter convention was summoned

at Columbia, in South Carolina, at which the governor of the state presided, and by which the power of congress to impose duties to protect domestic industry was denied, and the policy reprobated in the most unqualified terms.

Sec. 13. On the 4th of December, 1827, the first meeting of the twentieth congress commenced. The revision of the tariff, with a view to afford adequate protection to American manufactures, was by far the most interesting subject which presented itself to the deliberations of the legislature at this session. On the 22d of April, a bill for that purpose passed the house of representatives, and on the 13th of May the senate, which, however, was by no means conformable to the wishes of the advocates of the protecting system.

In his annual report to the house, at the commencement of the session, the secretary of the treasury, in a labored discussion, maintained a system of protecting duties to be essential to the prosperity and independence of the nation. The subject was referred in the house to the committee on manufactures. The chairman of that committee was Mr. Mallory, of Vermont, an able and zealous advocate for the protecting system. A majority of the committee was opposed to it, and a bill, such as the majority directed, was presented to the house on the 31st of January. In regard to wools, the duty on the manufacture compared to that on the raw material, placed the manufacturer in a worse situation than under the tariff of 1824, and seemed likely to destroy the establishments, and with them the production of the raw material.

Pending the discussion of this bill, meetings were held in various parts of the United States to express the views of different classes of the community upon the subject. To the principle of protection the south was universally opposed, and generally importing merchants throughout the country. In the east, north, and west, the farmers, manufacturers, and mechanics, supported the principle of protection, but were opposed to many of the leading features of the bill.

On the final passage of the bill, the ayes in the house were 105, noes 94. In the senate, ayes 26, noes 21. To

the country at large the measure gave little satisfaction, and those for whose benefit it was professedly enacted, predicting its short continuance, slowly and cautiously adapted their business with a view to avail themselves of its provisions.

Sec. 14. During the year 1828, the approaching presidential election was the all engrossing topic of political discussion. The two candidates were Mr. Adams and General Jackson. Their claims to the presidency were urged by their respective parties by a zeal which led to the most unwarrantable scrutiny of private life, and an unjustifiable attack upon private character. The result of the contest was a large majority in the electoral colleges for General Jackson; 178 being for him, and only 83 for Mr. Adams.

The administration of Mr. Adams, from its very commencement, met with a powerful opposition. The circumstance of his not having been elected by the people, united to the small majority by which he was elected to his office in congress, was sufficient to call forth loud complaints, on the part of his opponents, and to justify, in their view, a more than usual watchfulness over his administration. Great pains were early taken to render him and his measures unpopular. The charge of a corrupt bargain between the president and secretary of state continued to be pertinaciously adhered to, and to be republished from mouth to mouth. The Panama mission was represented as a measure weak and injudicious, and the failure to obtain a participation in the British West India trade was averred to be in consequence of culpable mismanagement. Besides, it was charged upon his administration that it was wasteful and extravagant.

Whatever might be the injustice of these accusations, and of a host of others, they were published abroad with the manifest design of preventing Mr. Adams' re-election. With what effect they were urged, the election of 1829 revealed. On canvassing the votes of the electoral colleges, it was apparent that the friends of General Jackson had obtained as triumphant a victory, as those of the existing administration had experienced a mortifying defeat.

It has been well observed, and with the remarks of the writer we quote, we conclude, "That the events attending the political change of 1829, evince that when a prize of such magnitude as the presidency of the United States is set up, free to be contended for by all their citizens, the struggle will be arduous. All the human passions will be called into operation; the character of the means will not be regarded, provided they conduce to the end. In other nations, struggles for the supreme power have ever been attended with bloodshed. In this, the same passions operating, the virtue and intelligence of the people, with the most alarming examples in their own hemisphere before them, have hitherto stopped short of the last resort; whether, with the increasing magnitude of the object, this will continue to be the case, is as yet problematical, and dependant upon the good sense, virtue, and moderation, of the American people."

NOTES.

Sec. 15. MANNERS. Two centuries have elapsed since the first settlements were commenced in the United States by Europeans, yet the people have not acquired that uniform character, which belongs to ancient nations, upon whom time and the stability of institutions have imprinted a particular and individual character. Although partial changes have occurred, which have been noticed in the progress of this work, yet, so far down as the present time, the *essential* variations which have taken place are few. The general physiognomy is nearly as varied as the origin of the population is different.

A marked distinction undoubtedly exists between the inhabitants of the commercial and maritime towns and the villages of the country. The former, in a more considerable degree, as to luxury and vice, resemble the great towns of Europe. Those of the country, who lead an agricultural life, preserve much of the simplicity, with something of the roughness, of former days; but they enjoy all that happiness which proceeds from the exercise of the social virtues in their primitive purity. Their affections are constant; felicity crowns the conjugal union; parental authori-

ty is sacred; infidelity on the part of the wife is almost unknown; crime is rare, mendicity and theft uncommon.

The people generally are enterprising, industrious, persevering, and submissive to government. They are also intelligent, brave, active, and benevolent, and possess a strength and agility of body which are seldom united in so great a degree. With somewhat of the appearance of apathy, and under a sober exterior, strong feelings, and a capacity for the most lively sallies, are concealed. As the benefits of education are extensively diffused, the ingenuity and intelligence of the people have been displayed to advantage, if not in the higher walks of literature, yet in the useful branches of knowledge, and in the arts which multiply the comforts of life.

From the perfect freedom and equality which are possessed, and the interest taken in political discussions, a tendency to dissoluteness in our manners is undoubtedly to be perceived; but the barrier created by education will, it is hoped, keep in check the unwelcome tide. In the amusements of the people, there are evidently some changes for the better, indicating more correct ideas of humanity and taste. Upon the whole, the manners of the people of the United States, especially among the more cultivated classes, are, probably, a medium between an honest bluntness on the one hand, and a sickly delicacy on the other, or between a low and the highest degree of refinement. The latter, indeed, is not to be expected in a country where there is no court, and no hereditary nobility, whose leisure and inclination might lead them to substitute the affected and burdensome politeness of countries for the present manly ease of freemen.

Sec. 16. RELIGION. The principal religious denominations, at present, in the United States, are Presbyterians, and Congregationalists, Baptists, Friends, Episcopalians, and Methodists. The two first of these, unitedly, have more than twenty-five hundred congregations; the number of Baptist congregations exceeds two thousand; the Friends have five hundred, and the Episcopalians about three hundred. The Methodists also are numerous.

For the effectual employment of those who wish to be en

gaged in the Christian ministry and in missions, peculiar facilities have been devised; and the plans of benevolence, mentioned under the last period, have been continued and greatly augmented. The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, the American Bible Society, the American Education Society, together with a society for the colonization of free blacks in Africa, have risen in respectability and resources. Missionaries in considerable numbers are sent, not only into vacant and destitute parts of our own country, to the south and west, and among the Indians; but also to Southern Asia, to Palestine, and to the Islands of the Pacific Ocean.

It is not to be disguised that much irreligion and vice, and some opposition to the above named objects, prevail, and that a spirit of infidelity exists, though in a form more concealed than formerly, and under more decent names. Nor does it become us to deny, that in a time of so much religious action and religious news, by which attention is occupied, there is danger of a superficial acquaintance with the doctrines of the Bible, among the mass of professors. Yet, whatever may be the danger from this source, we are persuaded that such exertions are altogether congenial with the precepts of the gospel, and will in the end produce a vastly counterbalancing good. The exigencies of the church, and of the times, require precisely such a spirit of benevolent enterprise, to be increased, we trust, with the growth of the nation.

The attention, which is now paid to biblical learning, and to a more systematic instruction in theology, by those who are to become Christian teachers, forms an era in the history of religion, in this country. This will be a means, in due time, of counteracting that tendency to religious dissipation, and to a superficial doctrinal knowledge, among professing Christians, which have been mentioned. Indeed, the good consequences of such preparatory studies begin to be felt in other respects, at least; and the call for a learned and efficient, as well as a pious ministry is doubly increasing. Morality, which is a component part of religion, has taken deep root, and the increased means of Christian instruction just noticed, form a striking contrast to the effects, which proceed from a dearth of the spirit and of the word of God, in less favored parts of the country. It is worthy of notice, also, that some vigorous attempts have been made, by means of the association of individuals, in various places, to prevent the progress of vice, and, of course,

to promote the interests of Christian virtue. Intemperance, which is the most alarming symptom of the times, has, by this means, received a partial, though, it must be confessed, inadequate restraint.

Sec. 17. TRADE AND COMMERCE. The commerce of the United States consists, principally, in the exchange of agricultural produce for the manufactures of other parts of the world, and the productions of the tropical climates. The principal articles of domestic produce, exported, are cotton, wheat flour, biscuit, tobacco, lumber, rice, pot and pearl ashes, Indian corn and meal, dried and pickled fish, beef, rye, pork, &c.

Of these, cotton* is the most considerable article, and has increased, regularly, from one hundred thousand pounds, the amount exported in 1790, to more than 264 millions of pounds, in 1829, the value of which was 26 millions of dollars. Next to cotton, wheat flour, and biscuit, are exported in the greatest quantities.—Tobacco and rice are on the decline, the attention of planters being directed to the more profitable cultivation of cotton.

Of these exports, New-England and New-York are the great carriers. To them belong nearly two thirds of all the shipping of the United States. The states south of the Potomac own only one eighth part. Our staple articles are principally the growth of the southern states, and are carried coast wise, from the southern to the middle states, whence they are sent to foreign countries, almost entirely, in ships owned by northern merchants, and navigated by northern seamen. In 1820, there were about seventy thousand persons, in the United States, engaged in commerce, of which thirteen thousand, or nearly one sixth, belonged

* The greater attention to the cultivation of cotton is to be ascribed to the invention of a machine for cleaning upland cotton from its seeds. For this machine we are indebted to Mr. Whitney, of New-Haven, Connecticut. Before the invention of this machine, it was so difficult to cleanse cotton, that the cultivation of it was extremely limited. It is now cultivated, to great extent, in the states south of Virginia, and Kentucky. The wheat and flour exported are raised, principally, in the middle and western states; tobacco in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina; lumber is chiefly from the forests of Maine, New-Hampshire, and the low countries of the Carolinas and Georgia. Rice is mostly raised in the Carolinas, Georgia, and Louisiana, &c.

to Massachusetts alone. Nearly half of the whole number belonged to the New-England states, and New-York.

The exports from the United States are sent to various countries, but the British dominions always receive the largest portion of our domestic produce, particularly cotton. The Spanish, Portuguese, and French dominions, have usually received the most, next to the British. During the period in which the United States enjoyed the carrying trade, that is, from 1796 to 1807, when the wars, which succeeded the French revolution, existed, and during which the United States was the principal neutral power, the nations for which she carried embraced nearly all Europe; but those for which she carried the most were the Dutch, French, and Spaniards. Since the return of peace, in 1815, the nations of Europe have been chiefly their own carriers. Of course, the foreign produce, exported from this country, has been small, compared with its amount from 1802 to 1812. In the year ending the 30th of September, 1822, the total value of exports from the United States was seventy-two millions one hundred and sixty thousand two hundred and eighty-one dollars. Of this sum, but about twenty-two millions were foreign exports, leaving nearly fifty millions for domestic exports. Almost half of the domestic exports were sent to England, Scotland, and Ireland. During the same year, the total value of imports was eighty-three millions two hundred and forty-one thousand five hundred and forty-one dollars, of which thirty-two millions were from England alone.*

The goods received in return for exports, are, generally, the manufactures of those countries to which the exports are carried. From Great Britain are imported vast quantities of woollen and cotton goods, and manufactures of iron, steel, brass, copper, glass, earthen ware, silk, &c. From China we receive tea and silk; from Russia iron and hemp. Coffee comes from the colonies of the European powers in America, and the East Indies; sugar from the East and West Indies; rum from the British and Danish West Indies. Wines are, principally, from France, Spain, Portugal, Madeira, and the Canary Isles; brandy from France, Spain, Italy, &c. Notwithstanding the large amount of cotton, tobacco, lumber, &c. sent to Great Britain, yet the

* The total value of imports into the United States during the year ending the 30th of Sept., 1830, exceeded 70,000,000 of dollars. The value of exports exceeded 73,000,000. Of these latter, 14,000,000 were of foreign produce, and 59,000,000 of domestic.

balance with that country is, and always has been, against us. It is also against us in respect to China, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and France, because these countries, from which we import largely, have occasion for very little of our surplus produce.

As to the tonnage of the United States, it may be observed, that it annually increased from 1790, at which time it was nearly half a million, to the year 1810, when it arrived at its maximum, and amounted to more than one million and four hundred thousand tons; an amount far greater than that of any other nation in the world, except Great Britain. In 1819, the tonnage employed in the coasting trade amounted to nearly six hundred thousand tons, having increased in thirty years more than five fold.

The tonnage employed in the fisheries has not progressed with the same rapidity. During the revolutionary war, the fisheries were destroyed, and for many years afterwards they did not regain their original importance. To encourage them, congress, in 1792, granted a bounty to the owners and seamen employed in the bank, or cod fisheries, and, in 1814, this bounty was considerably increased. During the late war, our fishermen suffered heavy losses, but, since the return of peace, they have resumed their occupations, and the fisheries are now in a more flourishing state than they have been at any period since the declaration of our independence. In 1818, there belonged to New Bedford and Nantucket seventy-two vessels, engaged in the whale fishery, whose aggregate tonnage was about seventeen thousand tons. This number has since increased. Massachusetts is the principal state concerned in this fishery. No state south of New-York ever owned a single vessel employed in the whale fishery.

Nearly connected with commerce is the revenue of the country. This has almost entirely arisen, ever since the establishment of the present government, from duties paid on tonnage, and on foreign goods imported into the United States. Internal duties and direct taxes have, occasionally, been resorted to, as was the case during the administration of Mr. Adams, and during the late war, but upon these, the government ordinarily place no dependence. Several millions of dollars are annually received from the sale of public lands, and the sum is yearly increasing. In 1815, the revenue was much greater than it had been at any former period, owing to the immense importations of foreign goods into the country. It continued to decrease, however until

1821, since which time it has been again slowly rising. It may now be estimated, in ordinary years, at about twenty millions of dollars.

It will not be foreign to this article to add a few remarks upon the public debt. This debt was contracted in support of the war of independence. In 1791, it amounted to about seventy-five millions of dollars. From this date to the year 1812, owing to the great prosperity of the country, the debt was gradually diminished to about one half. But, on the recurrence of war, it again increased, and, in 1816, amounted to one hundred and twenty-three millions. It has been since diminishing, and, on the first of January, 1823, was about ninety millions of dollars.*

Sec. 18. AGRICULTURE. Until within a few years, agriculture, as a science, received but little attention in the United States. Few, if any, valuable improvements were attempted. Indifference and uncommon apathy seem to have pervaded society. A new era, however, has recently commenced, and agriculture, both as a science and an art, is receiving much of that attention which its acknowledged importance demands. It is beginning to be regarded, as it should be, not only as the basis of subsistence and population, but as the parent of individual and national opulence.

Men of enlightened minds, and of distinguished wealth, are, in many parts of the country, devoting themselves to the study of the art, and to new and useful experiments. Agricultural societies abound; at the head of which may be seen some of the most scientific and practical men, combining their powers in favor of agriculture, for the collection and diffusion of information, and for the excitement of industry and emulation. The exhibitions which annually take place, in almost every county, of cattle, and

* The public debt, it is expected, will be entirely extinguished before the close of the year 1833.

of the productions of the soil, the learned and often eloquent addresses, which these exhibitions call forth, have a strong tendency to awaken the attention of our countrymen to a pursuit more favorable to health, virtue, and peace, than any other.

The proportion of the inhabitants of the United States, devoted to agricultural pursuits, is large. By the census of 1820, it appears that this proportion is more than one fifth of the whole population, or two millions. This number includes only those who are thus engaged by actual occupation, children and females generally being excluded. It embraces, therefore, about two thirds of all the males over ten years of age. The slave holding states are the most agricultural, the proportion being usually from one quarter to one third of the whole population, while in the other states it generally falls below one fifth.

Of the several states, New-York has the greatest number engaged in agriculture; Virginia next; and next to those states, North Carolina, South Carolina, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, and Georgia, in order. But the proportion of those devoted to agriculture, in the respective states, to their population, is different. Louisiana has the greatest proportion, or about thirty-five per cent.; South Carolina has thirty-two; Georgia and Mississippi, each twenty-nine; North Carolina twenty-seven; while New-York has but eighteen, and Pennsylvania but thirteen per cent. No state in the union has so small a proportion as Massachusetts.

Sec. 19. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. The manufacturing establishments in the United States are considerably various and numerous; and though less prosperous than during the late war, are gradually rising from the depression which they experienced immediately after the return of peace, in consequence of the excessive importations of foreign goods, which were then made.

By the friends of these establishments vigorous efforts are making to induce congress to increase the duties on certain articles, now extensively imported, with reference

to their being manufactured at home, and thereby giving more encouragement to those of our citizens who have invested their capital in establishments of this kind. A strong opposition, however, to an increase of the duties on foreign goods has appeared, particularly in the south, on the ground that to foster manufacturing establishments, considerably beyond the encouragement given them by the existing tariff, must be at the expense of commerce, revenue, and general prosperity. What will be the issue of the above efforts, time only will disclose.

The number of persons employed in manufactures in the United States, as appears by the census of 1820, is three hundred and forty-nine thousand two hundred and forty-seven. Rhode-Island has a greater proportion of population engaged in manufactures than any other state, and next in order are Massachusetts and Connecticut. Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, also rank high as manufacturing states.

Sec. 20. The population of the United States, according to the census of 1830, was twelve millions eight hundred and fifty-six thousand one hundred and sixty-five. Of this number, two millions ten thousand four hundred and thirty-six were slaves.

The following observations, respecting the population of the country, have been found to be true by a late respectable writer:* 1. That the inhabitants of the United States double in about twenty-five years. 2. That taking the whole United States together, the whites increase faster than the blacks; but that in the states in which the blacks are very numerous, they have almost uniformly increased faster than the whites, in those states. In Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky, the blacks, for the last thirty years, have increased much faster than the whites. In North Carolina and Tennessee, they have increased more than as fast again, and in South Carolina, during the last ten years, they have increased three times as fast. In the northern states, on the contrary, the black population is almost stationary, and in Maine, New-Hampshire, and Rhode Island, it is diminishing. 3. That in all our great cities, the females are more

* S. E. Morse, who has recently published a valuable geography, to which the author is indebted for many important facts in these notes.

numerous than the males, while in the whole United States the reverse is true. The average of all the cities gives nearly one hundred and nine females to one hundred males, whereas, in the whole United States, the average of females is but ninety-seven to one hundred males.

Sec. 21. EDUCATION. The education of youth, which is so essential to the well being of society, and intimately connected with the political prosperity of a republican government, has received, as has been noticed in the progress of this work, considerable attention in the United States, in every period since their settlement. The present state of our primary and higher schools, of our colleges, universities, and other establishments of education, is more flourishing than at any former period; their number is annually increasing, and a more liberal spirit, in respect to their endowment, is prevailing.

In all the New-England states, excepting Rhode Island, common schools are supported by law. In this latter state, however, academies are established in all the principal towns, and private schools are extensively maintained during the winter months. In the new state of Maine, a sum, exceeding one hundred thousand dollars, is raised by tax, and appropriated to the support of a school master for every two hundred inhabitants. The number of school houses is estimated at fifteen hundred.

In Connecticut the common schools are supported by a fund, arising from the sale of lands in Ohio, which formerly belonged to the state. This fund amounted in May, 1821, to one million and seven hundred thousand dollars, the yearly income of which, together with twelve thousand dollars of the public taxes, is annually devoted to the maintenance of common school masters, in every town in the state. The amount paid to the towns from this fund, in 1818, was more than seventy thousand dollars, a greater sum by twenty-two thousand dollars than the whole state tax amounted to in the year preceding.

A common school fund exists, also, in the state of New-York. In 1822, it consisted of more than one million one hundred thousand dollars, and twenty-five thousand acres

of land. The sum which this fund annually yields, is nearly eighty thousand dollars, and it assists to give instruction to nine tenths of the children of that populous state, between the ages of five and fifteen years. Besides the common schools and colleges, there are nearly fifty incorporated academies. There is also a literary fund of nearly one hundred thousand dollars, the interest of which is annually distributed to the several colleges and academies of the state.

In Virginia, a literary fund has recently been created by the legislature, consisting of moneys received from the United States, for military services during the late war. It amounted, in December, 1818, to about one million and one hundred thousand dollars, to which is yet to be added a balance due from the United States. The interest of this sum, with the addition of fines, forfeitures, &c., which have also been appropriated to the same object, will, in the opinion of the directors, yield an annual income of nearly ninety thousand dollars. Of this sum, forty-five thousand dollars annually have been appropriated to the support of primary schools, and fifteen thousand dollars to the endowment of a university.

Until within a few years, the subject of education has received but little attention in North Carolina. Much zeal, however, has recently been displayed in the establishment of academies and schools. Previously to 1804, there were but two academies in the state; there are now fifty, and the number is still increasing.

In South Carolina, academies are numerous; the legislature annually appropriates thirty thousand dollars for the support of free schools. In 1817, the state of Georgia gave one hundred thousand dollars for the same object. In the states of Alabama, Ohio, and Illinois, provision has been made, by the United States, for the education of youth, one section, or a thirty-sixth part of every township, being granted by the act of congress that admitted these states to the union, for the support of common schools; and in addition, one, and in some states, two townships, for the support of a college. Till recently, education has been much neglected in Louisiana, and many of the inhabitants are unable either to read or write. Lately, the attention of the government has been directed to this subject, and schools and higher seminaries of learning are established in various parts of the state.

Several universities and colleges have been added to the literary institutions in the United States, within a few years.

Of universities, two have recently commenced operations in the state of Ohio, one at Athens, on the Hockhocking, by the name of the Ohio University; the other at Oxford, near the southwest corner of the state, by the name of the Miami University. The former of these has two townships of land, or forty-six thousand acres, and an annual income of two thousand three hundred dollars; the latter has one township, which yields about two thousand dollars.

Besides these, there is a flourishing college at Cincinnati, which was incorporated in 1819. and which has funds amounting to thirty thousand dollars. A medical college is connected with it. Worthington college was incorporated during the same year. In 1818, Transylvania university, in Lexington, Kentucky, was re-organized, and placed upon a more liberal foundation. The number of students now exceeds three hundred. A college was established in 1819 at Danville, about thirty miles southwest from Lexington.

A university has recently been commenced at Charlottesville, in Albemarle county, Virginia. The plan contemplates ten professorships; and the buildings, consisting of ten pavilions for the professors, five hotels for dieting the students, with one hundred and four dormitories, sufficient for two hundred and eight students, are already finished, in an elegant style of architecture. A college has gone into operation in the District of Columbia. It is situated three miles from the capitol. A Baptist Theological Seminary is connected with the institution. Besides these institutions, there are several others, viz. a charity school at Bangor, Maine, whose object is to prepare young men for the ministry, in a shorter time than is usual at other seminaries; a Baptist literary and theological seminary at Waterville, on the Kennebeck; and one at New-York, belonging to the Protestant Episcopal Church. A Theological institution has also been established at Auburn, New-York, by the Presbyterians. Several others are in contemplation in the country.

The foregoing facts, in relation to the state of our common and higher institutions of learning, no American, in whose bosom glows the spirit of the patriot, will regard with indifference. Like the light of heaven, science cheers, beautifies, and adorns. To its influence are we indebted for much of the civil and religious freedom which we enjoy, and intimately connected with its progress are the future honor and happiness of our country. An intelligent people

will select intelligent rulers, and intelligent rulers will manage safely the government confided to their trust. "There is scarcely one instance brought," says Bacon, "of a disastrous government, where learned men have been seated at the helm."

The general diffusion of knowledge tends also to make peaceable citizens. "It causes men," in the language of a periodical work of our own country, "to have just views of the nature, value, and relations of things, the purposes of life, the tendency of actions, to be guided by purer motives, to form nobler resolutions, and to press forward to more desirable attainments. Knowledge smooths down the roughness, and tames the native ferocity of man." Our ancestors knew these things; they were aware of the importance of knowledge among the people to the strength of the social and political fabric, which they were commencing; they, therefore, when they laid the foundations of their dwellings, almost simultaneously laid the foundations of our common and higher seminaries of learning.

A steady, though too slow an advance, has been making in relation to science, through the whole period of our history. The importance of it is more generally admitted, and greater favor is shown towards those institutions which are devoted to its cultivation. Far distant be the day, when the prevalence of ignorance shall expose us to anarchy, and leave us to become the victims of some ambitious, turbulent, faithless spirit, who may rise to wield the sword of despotism. On the contrary, may knowledge continue to increase, and with it that love of justice, virtue, and religion, which, under the blessing of heaven, will make our beloved country perpetually the seat of peace and freedom.

REFLECTIONS.

Sec. 22. Upon concluding this history of our country, we can scarcely refrain from asking, who of our ancestors anticipated results from their toils, so stupendous as those which we behold? Who of them predicted, while they were laying up the pines of the forest for a shelter, that they were commencing an empire, which, within two centuries, would extend thousands of miles, and embrace, within its bosom, ten millions of the human race? Who then thought of cities, with their busy population, a thousand miles from the waters of the Atlantic?—or of fleets, on inland seas, proceeding to, and returning from distant voyages? or of navies pouring forth their thunder and their flame? Such results

entered not into sober calculation, and were beyond even the dreams of fancy. Yet two centuries have brought them to pass.

The branch which our fathers planted, under the fostering care of heaven, rose, extended, invigorated. It acquired stability by oppression, and gathered importance from the efforts which were made to crush it. In the progress of our history, we have seen the American people, while sustaining only the character of colonists, and struggling with the discouragements and difficulties of new settlements, maintaining at their own expense, and bringing to prosperous conclusion, wars, which a selfish and jealous mother country, by her pride and imprudence, had occasioned. We have seen these colonies, amidst all the oppressions which they experienced, through exactions, and calumnies, loss of charters, and one abridgment of liberty after another, still maintaining their loyalty—still indulging the feelings, and adopting the language of affection, until justice and patriotism and religion, bid them rise to assert those rights, which the God of nature designed for all his rational offspring.

Through a long and trying war, in which inexperience had to contend with discipline, and poverty with wealth, we see them pledging their fortunes, liberties, and lives, to one another, and to the astonishment of the world, accomplishing their emancipation. And when emancipated, and transformed into an independent nation, we see them calmly betaking themselves to the organization of a government, under a constitution as wise as it was singular, and whose excellency and competency the experience of more than thirty years has confirmed. Simultaneously with these events, what extensive conquests have been made on the wilderness! Deserts have put on beauty and fruitfulness and a way been constantly extending towards the waters of the Pacific, for the advance of civilization and religion.

Had we the spirit of prophecy, in respect to the future condition of America, this would not be the place to indulge it. No nation, however, ever possessed, in a higher degree, the means of national prosperity. Our territory is ample—our soil fertile—our climate propitious—our citizens enterprising, brave, and persevering. A sea coast of three thousand miles—inland seas, numerous canals, facilitate foreign and domestic trade. Being free and independent of other nations, we can frame our laws, and fashion our institutions, as experience and an enlightened policy shall dictate. Our universities and colleges are yearly qualifying numbers for

the higher professions of life, while our academies and schools are diffusing intelligence, to an unparalleled extent, among our virtuous yeomanry. The Bible and the institutions of Christianity are with us, and are presenting to us all the blessings which religion can impart. Thus circumstanced, what should prevent our country from advancing to that eminence of national happiness, beyond which national happiness cannot extend?—"Manufactures may here rise—busy commerce, inland and foreign, distribute our surplus produce, augment our capital, give energy to industry, improvement to roads, patronage to arts and sciences, vigor to schools, and universality to the institutions of religion; reconciling civil liberty with efficient government; extended population with concentrated action; and unparalleled wealth with sobriety and morality."

Let but the spirit, the practical wisdom, the *religious integrity* of the first planters of our soil, prevail among rulers and subjects—let God be acknowledged, by giving that place to his word and institutions which they claim—and all these blessings are ours. We shall enjoy peace with nations abroad, and tranquillity at home. As years revolve, the tide of our national prosperity will flow broader and deeper. In the beautiful language of inspiration—"our sons will be as plants grown up in their youth, and our daughters as corner stones, polished after the similitude of a palace. Our garners will be full, including all manner of stores, our sheep will bring forth by thousands and ten thousands; our oxen will be strong to labor, and there will be no breaking in, or going out, or complaining in our streets.—Happy is that people that is in such a case, yea, happy is that people whose God is the Lord."

CHRONOLOGICAL LIST

OF

OFFICERS BELONGING TO SIX SUCCESSIVE ADMINISTRATIONS.

FIRST ADMINISTRATION;—1789 to 1797;—8 years.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,	Virginia,	April 30, 1789.	President.
John Adams,	Massachusetts,	do. 1789.	Vice-President.
		<i>Appointed.</i>	
Thomas Jefferson,	Virginia,	Sept. 26, 1789.	} Secretaries of State.
Edmund Randolph,	do.	Jan. 2, 1794.	
Timothy Pickering	Pennsylvania,	Dec. 10, 1795.	
Alexander Hamilton,	New-York,	Sept. 11, 1789.	} Secretaries of the Treasury.
Oliver Wolcott,	Connecticut,	Feb. 3, 1795.	
Henry Knox,	Massachusetts,	Sept. 12, 1789.	} Secretaries of War.
Timothy Pickering,	Pennsylvania,	Jan. 2, 1795.	
James M'Henry,	Maryland,	Jan. 27, 1796.	
Samuel Osgood,	Massachusetts,	Sept. 26, 1789.	} Post Masters General.
Timothy Pickering,	Pennsylvania,	Nov. 7, 1791.	
Joseph Habersham,	Georgia,	Feb. 25, 1795.	
Edmund Randolph,	Virginia,	Sept. 26, 1789.	} Attorneys General.
William Bradford,	Pennsylvania,	Jan. 27, 1794.	
Charles Lee,	Virginia,	Dec. 10, 1795.	

Speakers of the House of Representatives.

Frederick A. Muhlenberg,	Pennsylvania,	1st Congress	1789.
Jonathan Trumbull,	Connecticut,	2d do.	1791.
Frederick A. Muhlenberg,	Pennsylvania,	3d do.	1793.
Jonathan Dayton,	New-Jersey,	4th do.	1795.

SECOND ADMINISTRATION;—1797 to 1801;—4 years.

JOHN ADAMS,	Massachusetts,	March 4, 1797.	President.
Thomas Jefferson,	Virginia,	do. 1797.	Vice-President.
		<i>Appointed.</i>	
Timothy Pickering,	Penn.	(continued in office,)	} Secretaries of State.
John Marshall,	Virginia,	May 13, 1800.	

538 FEDERAL GOVERNMENT—1797 TO 1817.

Oliver Wolcott, Samuel Dexter,	Conn. (<i>continued in office</i>), Massachusetts, Dec. 31, 1800. }	Secretaries of the Treasury
James M'Henry, Samuel Dexter, Roger Griswold,	Md. (<i>continued in office</i>), Massachusetts, May 13, 1800. Connecticut, Feb. 3, 1801. }	Secretaries of War.
George Cabot,* Benjamin Stoddert,	Massachusetts, May 3, 1798. Maryland, May 21, 1798. }	Secretaries of the Navy.
Joseph Habersham,	Georgia, (<i>continued in office</i>),	Post Master General
Charles Lee,	Virginia, (<i>continued in office</i>),	Attorney General.

Speakers of the House of Representatives.

Jonathan Dayton,	New-Jersey,	5th Congress,	1797.
Theodore Sedgwick,	Massachusetts,	6th do.	1799.

THIRD ADMINISTRATION;—1801 to 1809;—8 years.

THOMAS JEFFERSON,	Virginia,	March 4, 1801.	President.
Aaron Burr, George Clinton,	New-York, New-York,	do. 1801. do. 1805. }	Vice-Presidents.
<i>Appointed.</i>			
James Madison,	Virginia,	March 5, 1801.	Secretary of State.
Samuel Dexter, Albert Gallatin,	Mass. (<i>continued in office</i>), Pennsylvania,	Jan. 26, 1802. }	Secretaries of the Treasury.
Henry Dearborn,	Massachusetts,	March 5, 1801.	Secretary of War.
Benjamin Stoddert, Robert Smith,†	Maryland, (<i>continued in office</i>), Maryland,	Jan. 26, 1802. }	Secretaries of the Navy.
Joseph Habersham, Gideon Granger,	Georgia, (<i>continued in office</i>), Connecticut,	Jan. 26, 1802. }	Post Masters General.
X Levi Lincoln, John Breckenridge, Cæsar A. Rodney,	Massachusetts, Kentucky, Delaware,	March 5, 1801. Dec. 23, 1805. Jan. 20, 1807. }	Attorneys General.

Speakers of the House of Representatives.

Nathaniel Macon,	North Carolina,	7th Congress,	1801.
Joseph B. Varnum,	Massachusetts,	8th do.	1803.
Nathaniel Macon,	North Carolina,	9th do.	1805.
Joseph B. Varnum,	Massachusetts,	10th do.	1807.

FOURTH ADMINISTRATION;—1809 to 1817;—8 years.

JAMES MADISON,	Virginia,	March 4, 1809.	President.
George Clinton, Elbridge Gerry,	N. Y. 1809, (<i>d. April 20, 1812</i>). Mass. 1813, (<i>d. Nov. 23, 1814</i>). }		Vice-Presidents.
<i>Appointed.</i>			
Robert Smith, James Monroe, James Monroe,†	Maryland, Virginia, Virginia,	March 6, 1809. Nov. 25, 1811. Feb. 28, 1815. }	Secretaries of State.

* Mr. Cabot declined the appointment. The Navy Department was established in 1798.
† Robert Smith was appointed Attorney General, and Jacob Crowninshield, of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Navy, on the 2d of March, 1805, but they both declined these appointments; and Mr. Smith continued in the office of Secretary of the Navy, till the end of Mr. Jefferson's administration.

† James Monroe was recommissioned, having for some time acted as Secretary of War.

Albert Gallatin, George W. Campbell, Alexander J. Dallas,	Penn. (continued in office.) Tennessee, Feb. 9, 1814. Pennsylvania Oct. 6, 1814.	} Secretaries of the Treasury.
William Eustis, John Armstrong, James Monroe, William H. Crawford,	Massachusetts, March 7, 1809. New-York, Jan. 13, 1813. Virginia, Sept. 27, 1814. Georgia, March 2, 1815.	} Secretaries of War.
Paul Hamilton, William Jones, Benj. W. Crowninshield,	South Carolina, March 7, 1809. Pennsylvania, Jan. 12, 1813. Massachusetts, Dec. 19, 1814.	} Secretaries of the Navy.
Gideon Granger, Return J. Meigs,	Conn. (continued in office.) Ohio, March 17, 1814.	} Post Masters General.
Cæsar A. Rodney, William Pinkney, Richard Rush,	Delaware, (continued in office.) Maryland, Dec. 11, 1811. Pennsylvania, Feb. 10, 1814.	} Attorneys General.

Speakers of the House of Representatives.

Joseph B. Varnum,	Massachusetts,	11th Congress,	1809.
Henry Clay,	Kentucky,	12th do.	1811.
Henry Clay,	Kentucky,	} 13th do.	} 1812.
Langdon Cheves,	South Carolina,		
Henry Clay,	Kentucky,	14th do.	1815.

FIFTH ADMINISTRATION ;—1817 to 1825 ;—8 years.

JAMES MONROE,	Virginia,	March 4, 1817.	President.
Daniel D. Tompkins,	New-York,	do. 1817.	Vice-President.
		<i>Appointed.</i>	
John Q. Adams,	Massachusetts,	March 5, 1817.	Secretary of State.
William H. Crawford,	Georgia,	March 5, 1817.	Secretary of the Treas.
Isaac Shelby,* John C. Calhoun,	Kentucky, South Carolina,	March 5, 1817. Dec. 16, 1817.	} Secretaries of War.
Benj. W. Crowninshield, Smith Thompson, Samuel L. Southard,	Mass. (continued in office.) New-York, New-Jersey,	Nov. 30, 1818. Dec. 9, 1823.	} Secretaries of the Navy.
Return J. Meigs, John M'Lean,	Ohio, Ohio,	(continued in office.) Dec. 9, 1823.	} Post Masters General.
Richard Rush, William Wirt,	Penn. (continued in office.) Virginia,	Dec. 16, 1817.	} Attorneys General.

Speakers of the House of Representatives.

Henry Clay,	Kentucky,	15th Congress,	1817.
Henry Clay,	Kentucky,	} 16th do.	} 1819.
John W. Taylor,	New-York,		
Philip P. Barbour,	Virginia,	17th do.	1821.
Henry Clay,	Kentucky,	18th do.	1823.

SIXTH ADMINISTRATION ;—1825 to 1829 ;—4 years.

JOHN Q. ADAMS,	Massachusetts,	March 4, 1825.	President.
John C. Calhoun,	South Carolina,	do. 1825.	Vice-President.
		<i>Appointed.</i>	
Henry Clay,	Kentucky,	March 8, 1825.	Secretary of State.

* Isaac Shelby declined the appointment.

540 FEDERAL GOVERNMENT—1825 TO 1829.

Richard Rush,	Pennsylvania,	March 7, 1825.	Sec'y of the Treasury
James Barbour,	Virginia,	do. 1825.	} Secretaries of War.
Peter B. Porter,	New-York,	May 26, 1828.	
Samuel L. Southard,	N. Jersey,	(continued in office,)	Secretary of the Navy.
John M'Lean,	Ohio,	(continued in office,)	Post Master General.
William Wirt,	Virginia,	(continued in office,)	Attorney General.

Speakers of the House of Representatives.

John W. Taylor,	New-York,	19th Congress,	1827.
Andrew Stevenson,	Virginia,	20th do.	1827.

NOTE.—The dates of the appointments of the principal executive officers, in the several administrations, above exhibited, are the times when the several nominations, made by the presidents, were confirmed by the senate, as stated in the "Journal of the Executive Proceedings of the Senate of the United States."









71.2009.084.00604

