

morning, the sun was just showing its broad red disc above the tree tops. He found the breakfast upon the table, waiting for him. He finished the morning meal, settled his account, and commenced his travels the second day. One thing, simply, attracted his observation—the road was exceedingly uniform—but the fact excited no surprise. At noon he called at a snug little house, and asked a lad who was gazing out of a window—

“Who lives here, my son?”

“Mr. Sampson, sir.”

Our traveller paused a moment, reflected, and seemed to be counting over some matter or circumstance in his mind; and at last he said—

“Are there many by the name of Sampson on this road, my son?”

“A good many,” said the boy.

“I thought so. Can you give me dinner here?”

“Certainly, sir—walk in.”

Mr. Sampson stepped in, swallowed his dinner, and once more took to the road. When night came on, he of course stopped at the first house in his way. A youth sat upon a wheelbarrow at the door, whistling.

“Who lives here, my son?”

“Mr. Sampson, sir.”

“Mr. Sampson? By Jupiter! I should think they were all Sampson’s on this road. I got dinner at one Mr. Sampson’s yesterday, slept at another Mr. Sampson’s last night, and here I am at Mr. Sampson’s again to-night. Besides, the houses I have seen upon this road all look alike—it is very queer.”

“Very queer,” replied the boy, with a leer, which seemed to say, “You can’t fool me, old fellow.”

“Can you give me supper and lodging?” said the traveller.

“Certainly—walk in.”

“I’m dazed if this isn’t a queer country,” said the old man as he went to bed; “this looks exactly like the room I slept in last night—but I suppose it’s all right.”

It was full two o’clock next day, when, after travelling at least six hours, Mr. Smith stopped at a comfortable dwelling with the intention of securing his dinner. A boy stood in the door.

“How d’ye do?” said the boy.

“Nicely, my son, who lives here?”

“Mr. Sampson. I’ve told you that half a dozen times already.”

“The devil you have. I haven’t been here before, have I?”

“I reckon you have—but ain’t you travelling on a bet?”

“Travelling on a bet!—no—what put that in your head?”

“Why, you’ve been walking round the race course here for two days and a half, and I don’t suppose you were doing it for fun.”

For the first time, now Mr. Smith took a survey of things, and to his astonishment, discovered that the boy had been telling him the truth. He drew his hat over his forehead and started for home—decision again.—*Evening Journal.*

From the Cultivator.

STATISTICS—STATE OF THE COUNTRY.

A knowledge of the products of the country, their separate values, the relation they bear to each other, the number of persons employed in each department of industry, and the various results arising from each, would seem requisite to all who would understand the true condition of the nation, or of each individual interest. Above, we give a general report of the productive wealth of the country, so far as the earth is concerned; and we now give some tables, most of which we find prepared to our hand by the ac-  
 termined never to venture upon a pedestrian excursion will show more fully than the former the relative values of these several products. Without such condensed tables, it is difficult to approximate to the truth in such matters; and the interest that makes the most noise, the product that is kept most constantly before the public eye, is very apt to assume an undue importance in the estimate of productive industry, or the aggregate of a nation’s wealth. Labor is some form, either in the production of the raw material, its manufacture, or its exchange, is the only source of wealth; and it is time that this great truth was universally felt and acknowledged. The proceeds of labor in the United States, according to the last census, may be stated as follows:

Agriculture,	\$694,453,000
Manufactures,	395,300,000
Mines,	59,868,000
Forests,	17,615,000
Fisheries,	11,206,000
Horticulture,	3,119,000
Total,	1,282,941,000

This is truly a surprising product, but there is no reason to believe it is overrated; if, erroneously, the error most likely be the other way. An annual product from the departments of labor of thirteen hundred millions of dollars, one half of which belongs to agriculture. Suppose we examine some of the items of this aggregate. 91 million bushels of wheat, 37 million bushels of corn. No one can estimate the value of these two items at less than 250 millions of dollars. Cotton comes next, to the amount of 64 millions of dollars. And here we may remark, that in the estimates made of the product of America labor, cotton is almost placed at the head; and why? Not because of its actual value, but because other nations are graciously pleased to permit us at the present time to export the article; and hence the word cotton is continually before the eye. One fact will show that the relative position of cotton in the scale of value is wrong. The cotton crop is less than one-twelfth part of the agricultural production of the United States; less than one-sixth part of the manufacturing products, and less than one-hundredth part of the annual production of the United States. In actual value to the country, both wheat and corn are before cotton; and this fact should not be forgotten by political economists.

Cotton,	\$64,142,000
Total of agriculture,	694,000,000
Total of manufactures,	434,000,000

The difference in the estimate of manufactures in this and the first table given is owing to the fact, that the product of iron is placed under the head of mines; when it should, with the exception of the ore, have been placed to the credit of manufactures. It may be well in this place to give a few of the most important items of manufactures as shown by the census, as it will afford the means of comparing them with those already given of agriculture.

Cotton goods,	\$46,350,000
Woolen,	20,696,000
Flax,	822,000
Mixed,	6,525,000
Machinery,	10,150,000
Hardware,	6,451,000
Leather,	8,176,000
Hats and caps,	8,704,000
Soap,	82,400,000
Candles,	2,657,000
Sugar,	3,250,000
Paper, and other,	6,155,000

Cordage,	4,078,000
Iron, bar and castings,	39,316,000
Furniture,	7,552,000

A glance at our products will show that we have all the elements of independence and national prosperity among ourselves; and the fact of our indebtedness to other nations shows a disgraceful disregard to the most common principles of economy, or the encouragement of home industry. With such vast agricultural resources, with such an amount of the products of the soil, with the means of increasing these products to any extent, is it not astonishing that our imports so much exceed our exports! Is it not strange that instead of paying our foreign debts in our own agricultural products, and purchasing foreign goods in the same way, we allow ourselves to be drained of the precious metals, our currency deranged? These things would be strange, were not the cause one which cannot be mistaken. It is useless to deny that we are hewers of wood and drawers of water to the manufacturers of other nations, and made so by their protective and restrictive systems. Confident in our capabilities and our resources, we have pushed our free trade principles to the verge of absurdity, if not of ruin; we have found that the free trade of the old world is like the handle of a jug—all on one side; that preaching such doctrines is a very different thing from practicing them, and that system of reciprocity must be adopted, or the pressure and suffering the country is now experiencing must continue. All that Americans ask is equality of rights, a reciprocity of trade; that other, would do by us as we are doing by them. That such is not the fact, the following table, showing the rate of duties charged on our principal articles of product in Great Britain, (and they are equally exorbitant in other European countries) will prove; while at the same time their products, paying a duty merely nominal, are forced upon us by ship loads. Such a state of things cannot continue. Nations are like individuals—they are indeed only an aggregate of individuals; and the same train of causes that produce the ruin of the one will effect that of the other.

Duty on wheat,	100 pr. ct.
do. Indian corn,	200 do.
do. oats,	300 do.
do. barley, rye and buckwheat,	200 do.
do. potatoes,	150 do.
do. beef,	150 do.
do. pork,	150 do.
do. butter,	50 do.
do. cheese,	50 do.
do. hay,	115 do.
do. cotton,	5 do.
do. rice,	150 do.
do. tobacco,	900 do.
do. timber, average,	250 do.
do. sugar,	250 do.
do. Whiskey,	2500 do.
do. fish, prohibited,	
do. fruit, average,	100 do.

One moment’s attention to the facts of the case will disclose the real cause of the distress under which this country is laboring. It is the want of reciprocity; the widely different footing on which we and other nations stand in regard to each other. The government may spend years longer in tinkering the banks, or regulating the currency, but it will do no good. The evil lies deeper. The experience of all commercial and agricultural nations prove that no sound currency can be maintained, no continued prosperity enjoyed, where the principle of reciprocity enjoyed, is departed from in their intercourse. A glance at the duties imposed on our products by Great Britain will demonstrate that in all these cases she has approached the verge of prohibition, with the sinews of her forbearance in this respect is evident. Cotton she must have, and at present, she can only obtain it in sufficient quantities from the United States. Would she receive it at the present duty could she produce it in her own dominions? This is a serious question, and one which the course of events is rapidly bringing to its answer. The rapid increase of India cottons as shown by the imports into Great Britain from that country; the vigorous and determined efforts of the Government to extend and perfect the cotton crop of that region; and the exultation of the British press at the evident success of these efforts, demonstrate what that answer will be, when the time arrives for its utterance.

From Gouge’s Journal of Banking.

THE PANIC OF 1823.

In the latter part of this number, pages 366-8 will be found some of the particulars of the panic of 1823. The effects were very serious in this country, but were trifling in comparison with what was suffered in England.

In consequence of the measures taken for the resumption of specie payments, there was a great influx of gold into Great Britain between the years 1820 and 1823. Encouraged by the prosperous appearance of things, the Bank of England in 1824, reduced its rate of discount from 4 to 5 per cent. An increase of medium was made about the same time by the country banks. The natural consequence was that the country appeared to enjoy unexampled prosperity. “Silver is with us,” said one writer, “as in the days of Solomon, counted nothing off.” This artificial plenty of money showed itself first in a rise of Government Stocks, both British and Foreign, and then in the price of land, which advanced to forty or fifty years’ purchase. It led also to the formation of seventy-six joint stock companies, requiring capitals to the amount of 174 million pounds sterling, or about 850 million dollars.

In February, 1825, stocks were raised so high, that there was no prospect of a further rise. A transfer of funds then took place from the Stock to the Commercial Exchange. And so great was the rage for speculation in colonial produce, that, on one day, four or five hundred merchants forgot or disregarded the hour of closing the London Exchange, and were locked up in it, from a quarter past four till half past five o’clock, when, on their earnest entreaty, they were released. Transactions were on the scale of the largest magnitude; and the same parcels of goods changed hands a dozen times, leaving large profits to the several purchasers.

In May the Directors of the Bank in England, finding the exchanges turned against the country, deemed it expedient to reduce the amount of notes in circulation. The first effect of this measure was to check the rage for new joint stock companies. The next was to produce a scarcity of money among merchants. This was sensibly felt in August, and continued to increase daily. In November some of the principal city bankers failed, and their bankruptcy was followed by that of the country bankers. Distress pervaded all classes.

On the 12th and 13th of December, the difficulties in the money market of London, reached their height. Speaking of these two days, Huskisson said, “That during forty-eight hours, it was impossible to convert into money to any extent, the best securities of the Government. If the difficulties

had lasted for only forty-eight hours longer, he believed that the effect would have been to put a stop to all transactions between man and man.”

On Wednesday, December 14th, the Directors of the Bank began to increase its issues. Mr. Joplin says, “The only consideration appeared to be how they could issue as fast as they could. The sovereigns they gave out by weight to save counting, and the notes as fast as they could be counted, until, in a few days, they had neither a sovereign nor a note left. On Saturday night they could not give any kind of exchange for fifteen of their one thousand pound notes, nor could change be had for them in Lombard street. The amount of the increase of their notes, according to a return furnished to Parliament, was as follows:

Nov. 19, 1825, they had	£17,591,301 in circulation.
Dec. 3, “	17,477,295 “
“ 17, “	22,942,827 “
“ 21, “	25,709,425 “
Feb. 22, “	23,899,090 “

This does not give the issues of gold, which are still unknown; but which could not have been less than four millions. Neither does it give the increase of issues which took place during the week of the panic. But it is not probable that the total amount of issues was much greater, either on the 19th of December, (the Saturday before), or on Tuesday, the day before they altered their course of proceeding. If so, it makes the increased issues of notes in the week of the panic six millions [equal to twenty-nine million dollars], the chief part of which took place in the last four days and in the week following, the further increase was two millions, being eight millions in all, more than 38 million dollars.] To this adding four millions of gold, make a total increase of twelve millions, equal to any-eight million dollars.

This certainly exhibits wonderful powers of expansion in a bank. It was a bold operation which prevented a general bankruptcy in Europe and America. Mr. Huskisson said that “of this panic no man could tell what might have been the consequence, if the Bank had not stepped in, and by its timely and liberal interference, saved the country from destruction.” Mr. Hume very correctly observed in reply, “That he must enter his protest against the praises which had been heaped on the Bank of England. It appeared to him, just as if an incendiary were to be praised, because, after he had kindled the flame, he endeavored to put it out.”

It is well worthy of remark, that the reduction in the circulation of the Bank of England, between March and November, did not exceed three millions and a half. This was sufficient to produce pressure for money, not only in England and the United States, but in France and in Holland, and the crisis of Good Hope, and at Calcutta. England being the regulating country of the commercial world, produces confusion every where, when her own affairs are in disorder. The circulation of the Bank of France was, between May and November, reduced from 237 to 185 million francs, or upwards of twenty per cent, and the reduction of the amount of loans was still more considerable. The Bank of Holland which has been established in the place of the old Bank of Amsterdam, issues notes of a less denomination than eight dollars. But, being a credit bank, it is within the influence of that galvanic by which paper money banks in all parts of the world are affected. A demand for specie on any one of them, operates with the power of a lever; and when this demand is great on the Bank of England, all the others are forced to reduce their circulation.

Rhode Island.

In the Senate, on the 17th instant, certain Resolutions offered between the President and the Rhode Island aristocracy, having been rejected, Mr. A. addressed the Senate as follows:

Mr. Allen said he proposed, before he sat down, to submit two other resolutions; and, in doing so, he would offer to the Senate some reasons upon which those resolutions were founded. He believed this had been the habitual practice in the Senate; and he hoped that, in this case, he would not be prevented from following the same practice. He would read, in the hearing of the Senate, the resolutions which he proposed to offer, in order that the Senate might judge of their propriety. He found upon the files of the Senate a document containing a series of resolutions, passed by the Legislature of the State of Rhode Island, by which the Governor of that State was requested to inform the President of the United States, and the two Houses of Congress, that a new system of Government had been adopted in that state, and was now in full operation. It had, therefore, been brought officially to the notice of the Senate that the people of Rhode Island had adopted a constitutional form of Government, and that Government is now in full operation. This communication left the Senate no alternative: they could not close their eyes to the fact that there were, at this time, two Governments in actual existence within that State—one of which must be right, and the other wrong. In this state of affairs, the President of the United States had assumed to himself the power and authority of deciding this vital and momentous question, by pledging himself to support the old form of Government established under the charter granted by Charles the Second, and against that Government determined upon and adopted by the people. This being the state of the facts, it was a question of propriety and of power with the Senate to take into consideration—when informed of these facts by authority, real or pretended, of the State of Rhode Island, and knowing the course which the President of the United States had taken in the matter, whether it was consistent with the duty which they owed to the Constitution of the country, to remain quiet spectators of a civil war, in which the powers of the Federal Government were to be brought to bear against the constitution which the people had formed for themselves, and in support of that charter which had been rendered null and void by the American Revolution, and under which, since the period of the Revolution, that state had no right to exercise the functions of an integral portion of this Union, of a sovereign State, or to send Senators or Representatives to his Congress. They had no more right to take part in the legislation of this Union, than they had to sit and legislate in the British Parliament. Sir, said Mr. A., the question is one of serious import. More—infinitely more—important is it than any question of a bank, a tariff, or any question of national policy which can arise under our form of Government. It is a question upon which rests the whole system of the civil Government of this country, and of the civil liberties of its people. The President of the United States has undertaken to decide the question for the American people—and that, too, against the people themselves. Well, sir, I said, and I repeat it, and it is with no unkind feelings towards any one—for reasons for such feeling I have none, but for the contrary feeling I have many—but to illustrate the bearing of a great truth—a truth which has shaken the globe itself, and which I hope will continue to govern the world as long as it continues its revolutions upon its axis. I say again, there was no constitutional form of government in Rhode Island by which that community could be considered

to be properly a member of this Union, until the constitutional form of government was framed and established, and brought into being on the 23d of May, 1842.

Sir, what is the state of this matter? The old thirteen States of this Confederacy consisted of what were, prior to 1776, the thirteen colonies of Great Britain, of which Rhode Island and Providence Plantations was one. A revolt took place among the colonies; that revolt assumed the form and bore the aspect of a war; as such, it was prosecuted to its final, its successful, its glorious termination. This war was so begun, prosecuted, and ended, with the express view on the part of the colonist, of abolishing themselves, in the language of the Declaration of Independence, from all allegiance to the throne of Great Britain. The war was successful; American independence was purchased by American blood. All political connexion with Great Britain ceased to exist, and it was made an essential part of that instrument by which the States were declared free, that they were to be considered also sovereign and independent. To this declaration the State of Rhode Island stands pledged, because that declaration was necessarily submitted to, and confirmed by, the Legislature of that State.

Yes, sir, the Legislature of Rhode Island confirmed that declaration by a solemn resolve, forever absolving themselves from all connexion with, or relation to, British authority. Well, sir, after the State had thus annulled the charter of Charles II. of Great Britain, by this revolution and this declaration, where did they obtain their right to have a Government independent of the people in whom, by the new constitution of these United States, the sovereignty was vested? The charter did not provide for its own amendment or for its own modification; it was an emanation from the throne of Great Britain, and could only be modified, changed, or in any way affected, by the throne itself, or by an act of the British Parliament. And it is the most extraordinary political anomaly that has characterized this extraordinary age, that sixty years after the annulling of the charter by the Revolution, the President of the American Republic is called on to give life and vitality to it again. That charter was predicated upon the allegiance of that community to the British crown; and it existed with the restriction that the laws, rules, and regulations of the Governor and Company should not contravene the laws and statutes of Great Britain; and that one fifth of the precious metals to be found in the soil was the property of the British Government, and to be paid into the British Treasury. Well, what became of their allegiance to the British Government when they lifted the sword of revolution? It was destroyed; the relation was severed, the charter was dissolved. How was this dissolution effected?—by authority of the British Crown?—No, sir; by the people themselves. And can the British charter be restored by American legislation? No, sir; because it was founded upon the existence of British supremacy. Can the State itself give vitality to the charter? I answer, no; because it would be inconsistent with American independence. And here let me be permitted to say that, inasmuch as it cannot be binding upon the State, it cannot upon any part of the State. If the whole cannot revive it, neither can a majority, and much less can a minority. It would be impossible for the people of Rhode Island, if they were unanimous, to do so, to revive it. They are bound to treat it as a dead letter; and this obligation binds the Legislature as firmly as it binds the people. If the charter still lives, it is because it is indestructible, and must live forever; and if it does not exist, as I contend, there results this appalling consequence—that the whole Government of the State of Rhode Island has been a sheer, a downright blasphemous usurpation. Yes, sir; a usurpation; for after the Revolution was accomplished, the charter was dead. The declaration of American Independence took place, and the Revolution followed; every thing that was British—every vestige of British power and authority perished. It was entirely cut off from the face of this continent. How, then, has this form of Government continued to exist? It could only be in this way: At the time when the Revolution closed, it is probable that the number of those having rights confirmed to them by the charter amounted to a majority of the population, and they were willing that the charter should stand, that they might enjoy the benefits of freeholders, and be the lords and masters of the increasing multitudes by whom the State became speedily populated. There is one peculiarity, sir, about this state of things to which an American cannot close his eyes—that is an exact inversion of our political institutions. It leaves it in the power of the Legislature to declare who shall have the privilege of voting; and consequently they may pass a law excluding every one but themselves—perpetuating to themselves and their descendants the privilege, and excluding all others. The sovereignty is thus vested in the agent, and not in the principal—in the Representatives of the people, and not in the people themselves.

Well, sir, under these circumstances, what did the people of Rhode Island gain by the Revolution? They thought they were struggling to exchange British authority for the rights of civil liberty.—Yet we see the great body of the people—three-fifths at least of the entire population—being disfranchised—left to the remaining two-fifths the power of governing. But we have seen that the people have regenerated the Government—have thrown off this usurpation, under which they have so long been deprived of their rights; and I will here ask, By what authority, under this charter, (if it does exist,) do Senators from that State occupy these seats on this floor? Does the charter authorize the State to elect Senators to the Congress of the United States? Sir, does the charter authorize a convention of the people of Rhode Island to incorporate that State into the body of the American Republic? I presume not, sir. By what authority, then, did they act, when they became a constituent part of this Union? Was it under that charter, granted more than a century before the Revolution—was it by virtue of that charter, under which the majority of the inhabitants were disfranchised, that that State took refuge, like a tempest-tost vessel, and became safely moored in the harbor of the Republic? Do you bring the charter into the Federal Constitution with you? No, sir; the people of the State of Rhode Island adopted, in solemn convention assembled, the Federal Constitution—the vital, elementary principle of civil liberty. It was recognised by all parties. Without this, the State could not have become a member of the Union, because the Constitution requires that this shall be done. This was not the work of a party; it was effected by the fathers of the Revolution, who laid down the fundamental law of civil liberty—men whose veins were drained of their life-blood in procuring that independence, and the enjoyment of that civil liberty, for their descendants. What did that convention do? They declared “that there are certain natural rights, of which men, when they form a social compact, cannot deprive or divest their posterity; among which are the enjoyment of life and liberty, with the means of acquiring, possessing, and protecting property, and pursuing and obtaining happiness and

safety;” “that all power is naturally vested in, and consequently derived from, the people; that magistrates, therefore, are their trustees and agents, and at all times amenable to them.” that the powers of soever it shall become necessary to their happiness.”

Never was there a declaration, stronger or more comprehensive than this made by the sovereign people of the State of Rhode Island. Well, sir, what have they subsequently done? Why, as soon as they got snugly established as a part of the Union, the Governor and Company of the Province effected the resumption of the sovereignty, because there was not popular power enough around them to resist. They resumed the sovereignty, meeting out to the people as much right and as much wrong as those sovereign legislators thought proper to mete out. Instead of having their own duties prescribed to them, they assumed the right to prescribe to the people, their lords and masters, how much liberty they should enjoy. Sir, the President of the United States, it seems, is now called upon to sustain this charter of a British monarch John Tyler is called on to act as Charles II. of England would have done, in enforcing this charter—by force of arms. Who ever before heard of an appeal to an American President to support British authority? And I say again, if he has the right to call in the aid of an armed force to sustain that authority, the independence of this country does not exist. Such a proceeding might be tolerated in Canada; but, in relation to one of the States of this Union, the supposition is as ridiculous as it is odious. The President declares that he feels himself bound, and that it is his duty, to employ an armed force, if it becomes necessary, in order to enforce obedience to this usurpation, which has been for half a century in existence in Rhode Island. He will march an armed force of American citizens into that State in martial array, to shoot down the people, in order to sustain that charter, which it was the main object of the Revolution to destroy. Let him try it! let him try it! The President is a man, and but a man. He is an officer of the Government, and but an officer.

The power which constitutes the President rests neither with this body nor its friends: it possesses a moral force which is superior to either. Let the President undertake to march an army into Rhode Island, to put down the liberties of the people at the point of the bayonet, and he will have done a deed of which his posterity will be ashamed—of which the nation will be ashamed. But though he threatens to do it, and stands officially pledged to do it, I tell him, as I have told him face to face, that the American people will not permit him to do it. Here is what will test the question (holding up a placard.) This I look upon as the first flash of indignation from the enraged brow of an angry people; and I warn the President to take notice of the lightning’s flash, as being the forerunner of a storm that will cover him with deep disgrace.

Yes, sir, this is a Government of principle, sustained by the sense of the people; and the man who rashly undertakes to put down popular liberty in this country, will meet with signal discomfiture. In connexion with my honorable colleague, I have the honor of representing one of the great and glorious States of this Union; and, sir, I can assure you that I speak the feelings of the great body of the people, acting only under the promptings of a bold and heroic magnanimity, when I say that they would be roused—that they would rally as one man in defence of our glorious liberties, whether invaded by foreign or domestic foes.

I now offer a resolution, which will test the sense of this body upon the vitality of our whole system. I have introduced into it nothing but what has been prompted by a natural impulse of patriotism—nothing that was not responded to by the whole body of my countrymen. Had the Senate acted upon the resolution when it was first offered, the President would have retracted; he would not now have stood pledged; the Government of the people would have gone on; the rights of all would have been protected by the votes of all.

Mr. Preston rose to a point of order. He had refrained from interrupting the Senator for a long time, though he had, from the beginning, transcended not only the rules, but the ordinary license of debate.

Mr. Allen would save the Senator from the necessity of proceeding any further, by informing him that he had risen to his point of order just in the right time—for he (Mr. Allen) had not another word to say, except to submit his resolutions, as follows:

Resolved, That it is the right of the people of Rhode Island to establish for themselves a constitutional republican form of State Government, and in any particular to alter or modify it, provided its form be left republican.

Resolved, That it is not the right of the Federal Government to interfere in any manner with the people to prevent or discourage their so doing; but that, on the contrary, it is the duty of the Federal Government to guaranty to them, as a State, such republican form of State Government, when so established, altered, or modified.

RHODE ISLAND.

There is yet much obscurity in the Rhode Island movements for the last few days. Comparing the various accounts, we think the following will be found to be the true version:

Governor Dorr returned from Washington with a determination to uphold the constitution, adopted by a majority of the people of Rhode Island, at every hazard. To that end he determined to call around him the military power of the State, (to be used only in case of absolute necessity,) to take the public property out of the possession of the Charter party, who held it in defiance of the fundamental law, and to prevent the further exercise of authority on their part, now to be considered in no other light than as a usurpation. Accordingly a movement was made on Tuesday night of last week to take possession of the arsenal at Providence, where a quantity of arms were on deposit, under charge of a Charter guard. This movement failed; but for what reason is a mystery, as those given, especially the repeated flashing of the cannon, are insufficient to account for it. The probability is, that the actual firing of the guns was never intended, the design being merely to frighten the guard into a surrender, which proving unsuccessful, the attempt to get possession of the arms without bloodshed was relinquished.

In the mean time it seems to us to have become apparent that the leading Suffrage men were not united, and that Governor Dorr became satisfied that he would not be supported in extreme measures by a considerable portion of his own party, who despaired of success in opposition to the threatened interference of the General Government. The indisposition to proceed further appears to have been strengthened by the promises of the Charter party that they would immediately call a convention, with the view of conceding all that the people demanded. Thus, menaced on one side, and encouraged on the other, it appears that a number of the leading Suffrage men, and his own family connections, entreated Governor Dorr to relinquish all further attempts to enforce the authority of the new Government, and, for a time, to leave the State. He at first resisted all entreaties to abandon the determined spirits who had rallied around him; but, satisfied at last that, in consequence of the desertion and wavering of friends, the contest must end in the destruction of the few who stood firm and true, he yielded to repeated importunities, and, without the knowledge of his own companions in arms, left