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LITTLE BROWN HANDS.

They drive home the cows from the pasture,
Up through the long, shady lane,
Where the quail whistles loud in the wheat fields
That are red with ripening grain.
They find in the thick, waving grasses,
Where the scarlet lipped strawberry grows;
They gather the earliest snow-drops,
And the first crimson buds of the rose.

They toss the new hay in the meadow,
They gather the elder-bloom white;
They find where the dusky grapes purple
In the soft-tinted October light.
They know where the apples hang ripest,
And are sweeter than Italy wines;
They knew where the fruit hangs the thickest
On the long, thorny blackberry vines.

They gather the delicate sea weeds,
And build tiny castles of sand;
They pick up the beautiful sea shells—
Fairy barks that have drifted to land.
They wave from the tall, rocking tree-tops
Where the oriole's hammock nest swings,
And at night time are folded in slumber
By a song that a fond mother sings.

Those who toil bravely are strongest;
The humble and poor become great;
And from these brown-handed children
Shall grow mighty rulers of state.
The pen of the author and statesman—
The noble and wise of the land—
The loving and motherly woman,
Who'll wisely mold all with her hand.

THE DISCOVERY OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

On the twenty-fourth of September, at St. Louis, was celebrated the two hundredth anniversary of the discovery of the Mississippi river by Marquette and Joliet. Ex-Governor Thomas C. Reynolds delivered the following address:

We assemble here to-night to celebrate the close of the second century since the discovery of the noble stream which flows in front of our city. We may well say discovery, for before the exploration made by Marquette and Joliet in 1673, the world was wholly ignorant of the Mississippi river, such as we now know it to be.

Within twenty-one years after the landing of Columbus on San Salvador, a Venetion geographer delineated on his map the delta of a river emptying into the Gulf of Mexico, on the coast of what is now the State of Louisiana. Five years later, in 1518, the northern coast of that gulf was explored by Gavay, and from a map drawn up three years later, in an official proceeding under the Spanish government, it would seem that he particularly explained the delta, and gave the river the name it subsequently bore among the Spaniards. They called it the River of the Holy Ghost (*Rio del Espiritu Santo*), but evidently they were wholly ignorant of its size and importance, and even of its general direction. About twelve years later Cabeza de Vaca, in his perilous wanderings from Florida to the Gulf of California, must have crossed the Mississippi; but in his narrative he makes no special mention of it. Possibly he may have seen it at very low water, or passed it at night time, and thus learned nothing to distinguish it from other large streams over which he crossed. The first distinct mention of a river with the characteristics of the Mississippi and as flowing in this valley, is found in the narratives of the ill-fated expedition of Hernando De Soto, in 1539. He crossed the river near the mouth of its tributary, the Arkansas. After his death his successor, Moscoso, led the survivors of his army, in 1543, in boats, down the stream to the Gulf of Mexico. In 1559 Tristan de Luna led a second expedition into the lower valley of our river; but it resulted almost as disastrously for the Spaniard as the first under De Soto. In the latter half of that century the missionaries in the northern parts of Mexico occasionally heard of the existence of a great river toward the east of them; but it gradually came to be confounded with the Rio Grande del Norte, and finally to be entirely forgotten. In the maps of the next century it is laid down as an insignificant stream, without a name. The Spaniards avoided our valley as a land of ill omen to them, and the French and the English had then not yet entered on their careers of conquest and colonization on the American continent.

It is, therefore, not surprising that in 1671 even the learned Jesuit Missionary in Canada, Father Dablon, used the words, "We have no knowledge of any great rivers which empty into the sea of Florida." The official reports, which we now have in print, of the Spanish expeditions in our valley, lay then buried in the archives of the Indies at Saville; if any of them, or of the unofficial narratives which mention the great river of the Holy Ghost, had been printed in the first half of the sixteenth century, copies of them had doubtless become exceedingly rare; and old maps had been superceded by those of the day, supposed to be more accurate. Moreover, the policy of the Spanish government had long been to conceal, rather than to communicate, whatever was known to it of its American territories. We can thus readily understand why it was that even a body so learned as the Jesuits had no information to give its missionaries in Canada of the existence of the great stream in which the body of De Soto had been buried, and which Moscoso had navigated from Arkansas to its mouth. Marquette and Joliet are as truly the discoverers of the Mississippi river as Baker and Livingstone would still be of the waters of Central Africa, even should some resurrected Egyptian papyrus disclose that subjects of the Pharaoh had preceded them three or four thousand years ago.

The period which gave to North America the French Jesuit and Franciscan missionaries, as daring and adventurous as they were learned and pious, is one of the most brilliant in the history of their native country. The usual result of civil war had attended the long contests in France, which ended soon after the accession of Louis XIV. to the throne. Talent and genius of every kind had been brought to light, and a sincere and unlimited mutual oblivion of past differences drew all of it into the service of the re united nation. Catholic and Protestant, nobleman and commoner, priest and layman, townsman and peasant, joined in friendly rivalry to increase the power and glory of France under the lead of their sagacious young monarch. Not only was the internal condition of his kingdom and its people thus favorable to his lofty ambition, but also throughout the rest of Europe the characters of the rulers, and the circumstances surrounding them, were such that it could meet with but little effective opposition. Rarely, if ever, in the history of Europe, has there been at one and the same time, such a herd of royal and noble good-for-nothings as that which ruled in nearly all of its States, in the period of nearly thirty years which intervened between the death of Oliver Cromwell and the election of William III. to fill the throne of England. Louis kept the Stuart kings as his pensioners, at poor pay. From 1665 to the end of the century the vast and rich possessions of the Spanish crown in both hemispheres were held in the feeble hands of the imbecile Charles II., and the chief of the other branch of the house of Austria, the Emperor Leopold I., of Germany, throughout his long reign of forty-eight years, found in the task of keeping his own hereditary subjects in subjection, and in aiding the Hungarians to partially expel the Turks from their country, more than enough to employ what little talent and energy he had. A succession of unwarlike Sultans feebly wielded the scimeter of Solyman the Magnificent and Mahomet II., and in this period began the decline of the Ottoman power. In Russia, the house of Romanoff, but lately elevated by a revolution to the throne, did not yet feel itself well established on it, and thus it was reserved for the next century to see the sword of Muscovy thrown into the European balance of power. It was not until 1676 that the election of John Sobieski as King of Poland mitigated the chronic anarchy of that miscalled republic. Sweden and Denmark in the north, Portugal, Venice and Genoa in the south, had ceased to be formidable powers; the Dutch republic was not far behind them in comparative decadence; the Swiss Confederation reposed upon its mountains in the political slumber from which the drums of the French republic awoke it about a century later; and even the restless house of Savoy seems to have been afflicted with the prevailing royal disease of political lethargy. The house of Medici was dying out on its petty throne at Florence, and the age of warlike Popes of the style of Julius II. had passed away, seemingly forever. During all the period before defined, there was in all Europe outside of France, but one sovereign of commanding genius for either war or government—the prince who was the real founder of the kingdom of Prussia, and to whom history has given the title of the Great Elector. He wisely occupied himself with adding both arms and diplomacy, to his inherited Marquisate of Brandenburg territory sufficient to justify his son and successor in assuming the royal title. But once during his long reign from 1640 to 1688 did this warlike but politic prince put himself in opposition to Louis XIV.; he infused energy enough into the Emperor and princes of Germany to induce them to meditate effectively between France and the Dutch republic. William III. of England, was, prior to the close of that period, merely chief magistrate of Holland. Thus the position of France at that time among the nations of Europe may almost be likened to our own country now among those of this continent. Her supremacy was an indisputable fact, and her children knew it and felt it in their hearts.

It was, therefore, very natural that at that time an extraordinary development of French energy should have exhibited itself in the settlement of this continent. While the English colonists, engaged in fierce contests with the crown for the preservation of their liberties, clung together along the Atlantic coast, and ventured not even to pass the barrier of the Alleghanies, and the Spanish colonists were sunk in that spiritless lethargy which characterized everywhere the rule of the last of their Austrian monarchs, the genius of France, the sword in one hand and the cross uplifted in the other, advanced with rapid strides up the valley of the St. Lawrence. As early as 1639, Nicolet had penetrated to the territory of the Winnebagoes, in the present State of Wisconsin. Their tradition was that they had migrated from a distant sea, and, strange to say, a salt sea. Modern research made it probable that they had wandered into the upper valley of the Mississippi all the way from the distant Pacific ocean. They spoke a language entirely different from the Huron or Algonquin, which was the common tongue of the Indians of the St. Lawrence. Nicolet entered into friendly relations with them, and, learning from them that the "great water" was distant only a three days' sail down the Wisconsin river, he eagerly jumped to the conclusion that he was near the mysterious great South sea, as the Pacific ocean was then called. First of Europeans, he set foot on the upper valley of the Mississippi; but he had to return before reaching the river itself. France, busy with the civil wars of Louis XIV.'s minority, could not look after her colonies in North America, and in 1642, the year before the death of Louis XIII., the Iroquois commenced a contest of so terrible a nature against the French that by 1650 all Upper Canada had been made a desert; six missionary priests had fallen by the hands of the savages, and all hope of extending Christianity among the red men of the upper valley of the St. Lawrence seemed extinguished. Still the fearless missionaries held on. With the first ray of peace they advanced, with a great leap, as it were, to Lake Superior. There they heard of a great river to the south, as beautiful, large, broad and deep as the St. Lawrence. Missionaries in New York heard from Iroquois warriors of the river which we now call the Ohio, and of how it flowed into the great sea, where the Indians traded with white men who had rosaries, and bells to call men to prayers. This sea the good fathers conjectured to be either the Gulf of Mexico or that of California. We may smile at the extent of the margin they took in their guesses, but we should remember that at that day the geography of our portion of North America was almost wholly unknown. In 1660, the year before Louis XIV., on the death of Cardinal Mazarin, took the government into his own hands, Father Menard founded the Ottawa mission on Lake Superior. He also soon heard of the great river, and his successor, Father Allonez, is the first to give us its name, the Mississippi. He conjectured that it emptied into the sea by Virginia.

It is easily seen from the narrative of the missionaries that the great river had become an object of intense interest to them. Some thought it might enter into the Atlantic on the shore of Virginia or into the Gulf of Mexico; but the prevalent opinion among both the missionaries and the civil authorities of Canada seems to have been that it was the long sought outlet to the great Pacific, the water path to China and the Indies. The wish was, perhaps, father to the thought, but it was the same thought which mastered the minds of Columbus, Cabot, Raleigh and Hudson; to each of them the river last heard of seemed the entrance to the Pacific; and the last faint mental echoes of that noble thought may still be heard in our own day in the persistent searches for a northwest passage to Asia, over the pole itself.

Just at this period, when the missionary mind of Canada was excited on the subject of the mysterious river, there landed, at Quebec, on September 20, 1666, a young Frenchman from the picturesque old cathedral city of Laon, in the beautiful and fertile region which lies to the north of Paris. This famed municipality had existed since the time of the Romans; his family was the most ancient in it, and as modern research has shown how wondrously the towns of Gaul, especially those which were under the immediate protection of Christian bishops, preserved their institutions intact even under the rule of the conquering Franks, it needs no great stretch of the imagination to believe that the patrician Marquettes of Laon were the descendants of Celtic nobles whom the profound policy of ancient Rome attached to her standards by leaving them in control of their ancestral territories under her almost nominal supremacy. These Marquettes were a martial race; three of them died in the French army which aided our ancestors in the war of our own revolution; and when James Marquette enlisted under the banner of the cross, he naturally assigned himself to that order to which its soldier founder gave the military title of the Company of Jesus. As chivalric courage descended to him through his father's house, so fervent devotion was his birthright from his mother. Rose de la Salle, kinswoman of John Baptiste de la Salle, founder of the educational order of the Brothers of the Christian Schools. He was twenty-nine years of age when his feet first touched American soil. After being properly drilled for active service by instruction in the Indian tongues, he was sent by his sagacious superiors, in 1668, to the very front of the church militant in that quarter, the mission of Lake Superior. About a year afterward he was transferred to the mission established to convert the Kickapoos—a tribe which, from the accounts of the missionaries, would seem to have been among the most obstinate adherents of Satan, and fit ancestors of those of the same name who now infest the borders of Texas. But despite all their wickedness they caused his heart to rejoice by giving him explicit accounts of the mysterious river, almost a league wide, running north and south, and so far that even the Illinois Indians, south of the Kickapoos, had never yet heard of its mouth; they only knew that there were very great nations below them, some of whom raised two crops of maize a year. "This great river can hardly empty in Virginia," says Marquette in his report on his mission, "and we rather believe that its mouth is in California." He continued to gather all the information that he could concerning it, and as Father Dablon, the superior of all the Canada missions at that time, assures us, "this induced him to make several efforts to undertake the enterprise of exploring that river, but always in vain. He had even given up all hopes of succeeding, when the Almighty presented him the opportunity."

The passage to the Pacific was the phantom which all colonial Governors in America followed in the seventeenth century. In 1672 it beckoned to the Count de Frontenac, Governor of Canada, and M. Talon, the intendant of the colony. They had heard of the great river, and they sagely resolved "that it was important to explore it, in order to "seek a passage to the China sea by the river which empties into the California sea." It is more than probable that but for that ignis fatuus of the South sea the exploration of the river would not have been undertaken at all. The ministry of Louis XIV. instructed Talon that "after the increase of the colony there was nothing more important for it than the discovery of a passage to the South sea, and his majesty wished him to give it his attention." Frontenac writes of Joliet's expedition as designed "to discover the South sea by the Maskoutens country, and the great river, Mississippi, which is believed to empty into the California sea."

From all the contemporary accounts of the expedition it is evident that Father Marquette was its real leader, its very soul. But, as an ecclesiastic, he could not take command of an armed force, however small; as an ambassador of Christ to foreign heathen nations he could not act as the agent of a King of France. It was accordingly arranged that the Sieur Joliet, a native of Canada, should command the expedition and that Marquette should accompany it as a missionary. The choice of Joliet was a wise and happy one. He had been a lay assistant in a Jesuit mission in his youth and was always a favorite of the order. He subsequently became an Indian trader. Frontenac wrote of him: "He is a man of experience in this kind of discovery, and has already been near the great river, of which he promises to see the mouth."

He joined Marquette on December 8, 1672, presenting him the letters of his superiors, appointing him to carry out his long cherished wish. It was the festival of the conception of the Virgin Mary, for which Marquette had always had a special devotion, and even those who do not share his faith must sympathize with the exaltation the good Father expresses at the propitious coincidence. He and Joliet passed the winter in preparations for their journey, and in these, as in almost every other successful work, the "patient industry of genius" was conspicuous. "As we were going to seek unknown countries," writes the brave missionary, "we took all possible precautions, that, if our enterprise was hazardous, it should not be foolhardy.

"For this reason we gathered all possible information from Indians who had frequented those parts, and even from their accounts traced a map of all the new country, marking down the rivers on which we were to sail, the names of the nations and places through which we were to pass, the course of the great river, and what direction we should take when we got to it. Above all," he fervently adds, "I put our voyage under the protection of the Blessed Virgin Immaculate." On the seventeenth of May, 1673, they left Mackinaw; in his simple language he says: "We were embarking on a voyage the duration of which we could not foresee. Indian corn, with some dried meat, was our whole stock of provisions. With this we set out in two bark canoes, M. Joliet, myself and five men, firmly resolved to do all and suffer all for so glorious an enterprise."

Joyously they sped along over the waters to the head of Green Bay. There the Indians endeavored to dissuade them from from pursuing their perilous journey; told of tribes still more savage than themselves, of frightful monsters that infested the great river, and of a demon who stopped the passage and engulphed all who dared approach. But these "chimeras dire" were made light of by Marquette, because, he adds, "the salvation of souls was concerned." Carrying their bark canoes over land to the Wisconsin river, they launched them upon it, and sailing slowly down its current, entered on June 17, 1673, the waters of the upper Mississippi—the first Europeans who had ever seen it.

To describe to you the further progress of this daring party would not only occupy too much of your time at present, but also be possibly construed into an attempt to forestall your enjoyment of a perusal of the original narrative of Marquette himself, or of the scarcely less interesting full accounts of his discoveries by writers of our own nation. Suffice it to say that this band of seven Frenchmen, in two frail canoes of bark, explored the Mississippi river from the mouth of the Wisconsin to the neighborhood of the Arkansas, and returned safely to the Northern lakes by the Illinois river, without the loss of a man and without any serious danger. One cannot but smile occasionally as the good Father recounts his perils.

The junction of the turbulent Missouri with the clear and tranquil upper Mississippi is a rapid "than which," he says, "I have seen nothing more frightful: a mass of large trees entire, with branches, real floating islands, came rushing from the mouth of the river Pekitanoni (the Missouri), so impetuously that we could not, without great danger, expose ourselves to pass across; the agitation was so great that the water was all muddy and could not get clear." But he was not so alarmed that he could not speculate on the posibility that the noble stream which gives its name to our State might prove to be (as it has since done), the nearest route by water to the Pacific. Some Indian spun him a pretty yarn about how it descended from a lake from which, by an easy portage, he could reach another river which emptied into the sea.

Like every other explorer of North America at that day, the good father had the South Sea "on the brain," and he accordingly says: "I have hardly any doubt that this sea is the Gulf of California, and I do not despair of one day making the discovery, if God does me this favor and grants me health, in order to be able to publish the gospel to all the nations of this new world, who have so long been plunged in heathen darkness." God denied him the favor of proclaiming the gospel along the Missouri river and to the coast of the Pacific, but it was reserved for one of his own order in our day, our own Father de Smet.

"Let us resume our route," says Marquette, "after having escaped, as best we could, the dangerous rapid caused by the obstacle of which I have spoken." It should doubtless not be a source of any mortification to us that he passed in front of the site of our city without taking even the slightest notice of it; for had he been endowed with prophetic vision to see its advantages, the same gift might have led him to mention more of our short-comings than we should like the seventeenth century to have heard of.

Before reaching the mouth of the Ohio he met the demon of which his Indian friends had given him warning—a narrow place in the river, which the traveler in our own day will recognize, from his description, as the pass of Grand Tower at low water. "It did not prevent our passing," says Marquette. The perils described by him may seem to us merely ludicrous, however defiantly he may have met them. But until we can compare his experiences with that of some courageous river-man who will venture to navigate the Mississippi in a bark canoe, we may suspend our judgment as to whether the good missionary exaggerated the dangers to his frail vessel.

Wending his way through warlike tribes who were disarmed by the weakness itself of his party, he won their confidence by his tact, judgment and intrepidity. Trusting to the sanctity of his "black gown," of which even the Indians in Missouri had heard, and to the virtues of the calumet, the pipe of peace, which was the universally recognized flag of truce in the upper and central valley of the Mississippi, he reached the village of Akamsea, which he states to be in 33° 40′ of north latitude. Modern investigation has established that he had here reached, in the present State of Arkansas, the point at or near which the discoveries of De Soto and Moscoso had begun. These were unknown to him; but the Indians told him that the sea was but ten days' journey distant; that many and warlike tribes intervened between them and it, and that they used firearms procured from white men, who, without doubt, were the Spaniards of Florida or Texas.

Marquette and Joliet were fearless, but not foolhardy. They held a consultation, and, knowing the latitude of the northern shores of the Gulf of Mexico, drew the very certain conclusions that the great river they had navigated for about fifteen hundred miles could enter neither the Chesapeake Bay nor the Gulf of California, but must have its outlet into the sea somewhere on the northern coast of the Gulf of Mexico. In short, like sensible, practical men, they ascertained that they had discovered the Mississippi as the mighty river which descends from the regions west of Lake Superior to the Belize.

The information was too certain and too precious to be risked in a further voyage in frail canoes of bark among warlike, hostile Indians on the lower Mississippi, or jealous Spaniards on the coast of Florida or Texas. They accordingly returned up the Mississippi and Illinois rivers, reaching the missions on the Northern lakes in the fall of the year 1673.

The French authorities, both in Canada and in the mother country, seem to have been so disappointed at the failure to find a passage to the Pacific and China, that they attached slight importance to the discoveries of Marquette and Joliet. Not so with a sagacious and enterprising French trader with the Indians, Robert Cavalier de la Salle. From Joliet, on his way back to Canada, he heard the particulars of the discovery. His genius for commerce grasped the idea, which is now again taking hold of the public mind, that the products of our whole valley should find their way to Europe down the Mississippi and through the Gulf of Mexico.

But it was not until 1682 that he went on his expedition, in which he navigated our great river to its mouth, reaching the sea on the ninth of April of that year. On the shore he "planted a cross, with the arms of France, amid the solemn chants of hymns and in the name of the French King took possession of the river, of all its branches and the territory watered by them, and the notary drew up an authentic act, which all signed with beating hearts, and a leaden plate, with the arms of France and the names of the discoverers, was, amid the rattle of musketry, deposited in the earth." Not many years afterward the colony of Louisiana was founded, to remain under French rule for nearly a century—except during the comparatively short period of its subjection to Spain—and finally to be united on terms of absolute equality to the American Union, of which it forms so great and invaluable a part.

I feel that this address would be incomplete without some account of the fates which befell the discoverers of the Mississippi river after their return from their daring expedition. Joliet hastened on to Quebec to make his repert to the Count de Frontenac. Unfortunately, while shooting the rapids above Montreal, his canoe turned, and he barely escaped with his life, losing all his papers. Nevertheless, he drew up a narrative of his voyage from recollection, and also sketched a map of the country through which he had passed. These Frontenac forwarded to France, and in previous dispatches had announced the discovery of the great river to the Gulf of Mexico. Joliet seems then to have fallen back into his original obscurity, and became again a trader with the Indians. The French government rewarded his services by the gift of the island of Anticosti, and all that is known of him is that after various vicissitudes of fortune he died, as it is vaguely expressed, "some years prior to 1737."

The subsequent career of Father Marquette has more in it of melancholy romance. Returning from his expedition to discover the Mississippi, he sent to his superior (as in the ordinary course of his duty as a soldier of the Company of Jesus, to report himself to his immediate commandant), a modest account of the discoveries, as it made not by himself but by the Sieur Joliet. His strength having been nearly exhausted by the great hardships of his voyage he remained to recuperate his health at the mission of St. Francis Xavier, on Green Bay, until September, 1874. Then partially recovering he set out for his mission among the Illinois Indians. On his way thither he was again taken ill and was compelled to pass the winter in a miserable open cabin on the bank of the Chicago river, but cared for by some French traders there.

In the spring of 1675 he was so far recovered as to proceed to his mission. Having performed his duties there he was returning along the eastern shore of Lake Michigan, when his strength again began to fail him. Still he persevered in his voyage until at last conscious that he was about to die, and perceiving the mouth of a small river, with an eminence on the bank which he thought suited to his burial, he caused his companions to land there with him.

On that desert coast, on the eighteenth of May, 1675, when but thirty-eight years old, with the most cheerful calmness he met his end; his last words were, "*Mater dei, memento mei.*" When his last agony was over, his two disconsolate companions buried his body according to the directions he had given, and only the summer zephyrs from off the placid surface of Lake Michigan came thither gently through the surrounding forest, to softly chant his funeral dirge. But his body was not long to remain there. The Indians whom he had instructed at Lapointe, at the extremity of Lake Superior, learning of the death of their beloved teacher, deliberately resolved to remove his bones from their desolate resting place. Placing them in a box of birch bark, they brought them, in 1677, in barbaric state, convoyed by over twenty canoes, to Mackinaw.

There, with appropriate religious ceremonies, they were deposited in a little vault in the middle of the Mission Church, "where," says the chronicler, "he reposes as the guardian angel of the Ottawa Missions." The missionaries abandoned that post in 1706, burning down their church. Another was afterward erected on its site, but that, too, has disappeared. It seems not to be known whether the missionaries took the bones of Marquette away with them or not, and thus the last resting-place of the discoverer of the Mississippi is now as unknown as that of his forerunner in its exploration, the gallant DeSoto, whose corpse was buried in its southern waters.

For a long time Marquette's fame seemed also to be as completely buried as his mortal remains. For some reason, not known to us, the Jesuits at Paris, precisely at the time when they doubtlessly received Father Marquette's narratives cease the publication of that most interesting series of letters which we know under the title of their relations. A copy of Marquette's narrative, and also that of Joliet, remained buried in the French archives at Paris until, in 1681, an imperfect transcript of the former was published at Paris by Thevenot in a collection of voyages.

The companions of La Salle, in their publications concerning his publication, were so ignorant or so meanly jealous, as to cast doubts upon the statements of Marquette, and even deny that he had ever seen the Mississippi at all. In the middle of the last century he had been completely forgotten, and all the honors of the discovery of the Mississippi were heaped upon the head of La Salle. But at that period the great work of Charlevoix on Canada partially restored him to his true place in our history. But it was reserved for American writers, Bancroft, Sparks and Shea (from whom, of course, I derive most of the facts stated in this address), to completely vindicate his character, and place beyond question his right to the illustrious position, along with, but higher, than Joliet, of having made the first real discovery of the Mississippi river.

And now that right of the humble missionary and his bold companion to that imperishable fame is fitly recognized by the ovation which this brilliant assembly, in the greatest city of the Mississippi valley, now celebrated in honor of them. "Peace hath her victories as well as war;" and whatever glories the future of our valley may add to those already illumining its history, let its people ever honor the memory of those fearless Frenchmen who first made its existence known to the civilized world.

Work on the American and British Mixed Commission.

[From the New York Tribune.]

WASHINGTON, September 30.—The American and British Mixed Commission closed their labors at Newport (to which point they removed their sessions during the summer months) just one day before the termination of the two years of their existence, as provided for in article fourteen of the treaty of Washington. During this time their labors have been very great and unremitting, and but for the excellent system which was established by the secretary, Mr. Cox, and by the executive officers of the commission, notably by Mr. Henry Howard, her majesty's agent, and Mr. James Smallwood, the work could not have been dispatched in the time allotted. The whole number of claims submitted to the commissioners was 497, claimants making reclamation in the aggregate of the enormous sum of $95,000,000. Of these only 181 were allowed, the gross sum of which awards reaches $1,929,236. In almost every case submitted, special counsel or attorneys were retained by the claimants, their work being outside the doors of the commission, which greatly aided Judge Hale and Mr. Carlisle, respective general counsel of the United States and Great Britain.

It appears by an examination of the claims which were favorably considered that awards were only made against the United States in cases where property was "taken, used or appropriated by the authorities of the United States," and in cases of illegal imprisonment of British subjects during the late war. Thus all injuries growing out of mere pillage or plunder by irregular squads of soldiers or sailors were excluded, as well as all cases where damages were claimed on account of the destruction of cotton (by reason of its being considered the sinews of war of the Southern States) by burning or otherwise at the hands of the United States. The great bulk of the cases disallowed by the commissioners may be comprehended in these classes. A large majority of the claimants, though British subjects, were living and carrying on business in this country under the protection of treaty stipulations. It will be recollected that article twelve of the treaty organizing this commission provided for the adjustment of all claims arising out of acts committed against the person or property, and during the period between the thirteenth of April, 1861, and the ninth of April, 1865, inclusive. These dates were intended to cover the war, but it will be perceived that the latter date described a period prior to the conclusion of the late war, and as there are some very large claims of British subjects growing out of acts committed by the United States subsequent to the ninth of April, 1865, but before the close of the war, they are thrown out by the board and wholly lost to the claimants, unless they shall be provided for in some subsequent agreement or treaty between the United States and Great Britain. But all other claims of British subjects or of American citizens (the Alabama claims excepted) which arose between the dates mentioned by the treaty are forever barred. The books, files, documents, and properties belonging to the commission arrived from Newport to-day. Mr. Thomas Cox, the secretary, and the other executive officers will be here to-morrow. The following is a list of the awards of $10,000 and upward made by the commissioners:

Anthony Barclay, formerly English consul, property in Georgia, damage to real estate, $18,875.

John C. Rahming, resident in New York, illegal imprisonment in the United States, $38,500.

William E. Scanlan, Tennessee, cotton taken, $16,426.

Frank R. Reading, Washington, illegal imprisonment by the United States, $15,400.

Augustin R. Macdonald, Kentucky, cotton taken on Ouachita and Arkansas rivers, $197,240.

John I. Shaw, Michigan, illegal imprisonment by United States, $32,201.

Crow & Wylie, Florida, timber taken by United States, $21,307.

James Cumming, Louisiana, cotton taken by United States, $19,781.

John B. Harris, Mississippi, sugar taken by United States, $15,691.

Heirs of John Purvis, Mississippi, merchandise taken by United States, $27,053.

Administrators of James Syme, Louisiana, drugs, etc., taken by General Butler for United States, $116,000.

William B. Booth, Louisiana, stock, produce, etc., taken by United States, $11,000.

Benjamin Whitworth, Georgia, ship Boyer, warned off Southern coast by blockaders, $32,553.

David Jacobs, South Carolina, merchandise taken by United States, $20,000.

Edwin Gerard, England, assignee, ship Sir William Peel and cargo captured by United States, $272,920.

Benjamin Thornton, Virginia, timber and wood taken by the United States, $33,957.

John Haskins, Louisiana, use and damage to cotton presses by the United States, $103,600.

Andrew E. Byrne and others, ship Monmouth, warned off Southern coast by blockaders, $10,843.

William H. Ross, England, rent, appropriation and damage to property by United States, $25,518.

William Bailey and others, New York, detention of the steamer Labaun by United States, $37,892.

Thomas Angell, Texas, bark Science, taken by United States, $15,684.

E. MacLeod, Virginia, bark Hiawatha, captured by United States, $24,300.

Henry James Barker, England, steamship Circassian, captured off the coast of Cuba, condemned by the United States, $71,428.

Overend, Gurney & Co., England, freight on Circassian, $20,540.

George F. Gauty, New York, illegal imprisonment by the United States. (Amount not given.)

Insurance companies and underwriters at Lloyds, for cargo of steamship Circassian, $133,296.

A curious coincidence in the award of damages at this time and the death of Admiral Winslow a day or two ago, is related here, to the effect that an English subject, the private secretary to a member of Congress, was in this city at the time the Alabama came out of English waters to fight the Kearsage. This gentleman was quite demonstrative on the street, and offered to bet $1000 that the Alabama would sink the Kearsage. For this and other violent language he was arrested and imprisoned by the United States government. He brought his claim before the Joint Commission, and received over $15,000 indemnity.

The *Golden Age* says: "There are two theological works which have puzzled us dreadfully. One is, 'By whom shall the world be converted? By the Rev. Daniel Baker.' The other is, 'Baptism in a Nutshell. By Rev. Charles Taylor, D. D.' One of these writers is a Methodist and the other a Baptist clergyman. If Dr. Baker converts the world, and if Dr Taylor performs baptism in a nutshell, we shall consider that the age of miracles is revived."

A fisherman at Lytham, England, found in his net one day recently a monster of unusual size and shape. It measured nearly five feet in length, the mouth, lined with a formidable set of teeth, was very far under the upper jaw, giving a most sardonic expression to its face, and the tail was divided into what may be termed two flappers, one more formidable, if possible, than the other, being much the larger of the two. It was brought ashore with difficulty.

As cool a person, under the circumstances, as was ever heard of was a young nobleman, who, in a frightful railroad accident, missed his valet. One of the guardians came up to him and said, "My lord, we have found your servant, but he is cut in two." "Aw, is he?" said the young man, with a Dundreary drawl, but still with anxiety depicted on his countenance. "Will you be gwood enough to see in which half he has gwot the key to my carpet bag?"

OFFICIAL.

TREATIES AND PROCLAMATIONS.

A PROCLAMATION.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Convention between the United States of America and Denmark—Naturalization—Concluded July 20, 1872; ratified January 22, 1873; exchanged March 14, 1873; proclaimed April 15, 1873.

Whereas a convention between the United States of America and his majesty the King of Denmark, relative to the naturalization of citizens and subjects of the two countries, was concluded and signed at Copenhagen by their respective plenipotentiaries on the twentieth day of July, 1872, the original of which convention, being in the English and Danish languages, is word for word as follows:

The United States of America and his majesty the King of Denmark being desirous to regulate the citizenship of the citizens of the United States of America who have emigrated, or who may emigrate, from the United States of America to the kingdom of Denmark, and of Danish subjects who have emigrated, or who may emigrate, from the kingdom of Denmark to the United States of America, have resolved to conclude a convention for that purpose, and have named as their plenipotentiaries; that is to say, the President of the United States of America: Michael J. Cramer, minister resident of the United States of America at Copenhagen; and his majesty the King of Denmark, Otto Ditlev Baron Rosenorn-Lehn, commander of Danebrog and Danebrogsmand, chamberlain, his majesty's minister for foreign affairs, etc.

Who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon and concluded the following articles, to wit:

ARTICLE I.

Citizens of the United States of America who have become, or shall become, and are, naturalized, according to law, within the kingdom of Denmark as Danish subjects, shall be held by the United States of America to be in all respects and for all purposes Danish subjects, and shall be treated as such by the United States of America.

In like manner, Danish subjects who have become, or shall become, and are, naturalized, according to law, within the United States of America as citizens thereof, shall be held by the kingdom of Denmark to be in all respects and for all purposes as citizens of the United States of America, and shall be treated as such by the kingdom of Denmark.

ARTICLE II.

If any such citizen of the United States, as aforesaid, naturalized within the kingdom of Denmark as a Danish subject, should renew his residence in the United States, the United States government may, on his application, and on such conditions as that government may see fit to impose, re-admit him to the character and privileges of a citizen of the United States, and the Danish government shall not, in that case, claim him as a Danish subject on account of his former naturalization.

In like manner, if any such Danish subject, as aforesaid, naturalized within the United States as a citizen thereof, should renew his residence within the kingdom of Denmark, his majesty's government may, on his application, and on such conditions as that government may think fit to impose, readmit him to the character and privileges of a Danish subject, and the United States government shall not, in that case, claim him as a citizen of the United States on account of his former naturalization.

ARTICLE III.

If, however, a citizen of the United States, naturalized in Denmark, shall renew his residence in the former country without the intent to return to that in which he was naturalized, he shall be held to have renounced his naturalization.

In like manner, if a Dane, naturalized in the United States, shall renew his residence in Denmark, without the intent to return to the former country, he shall be held to have renounced his naturalization in the United States.

The intent not to return may be held to exist when a person naturalized in the one country shall reside more than two years in the other country.

ARTICLE IV.

The present convention shall go into effect immediately on or after the exchange of the ratifications, and shall continue in force for ten years. If neither party shall have given to the other six months' previous notice of its intention then to terminate the same, it shall further remain in force until the end of twelve months after either of the contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of such intention.

ARTICLE V.

The present convention shall be ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by his majesty the King of Denmark, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Copenhagen as soon as may be, within eight months from the date hereof.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at Copenhagen, the twentieth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy-two.

MICHAEL J. CRAMER.
O. D. ROSENORN-LEHN.

And, whereas, the said convention has been duly ratified on both parts, and the respective ratifications were exchanged at Copenhagen, on the fourteenth day of March, 1873, by Michael J. Cramer, minister resident of the United States of America at Copenhagen, and Otto Ditlev Rosenorn-Lehn, Commander of Danebrog and Danebrogsmand, chamberlain, his majesty's minister for foreign affairs, etc., on the part of their respective governments:

Now, therefore, be it known that I, Ulysses S. Grant, President of the United States of America, have caused the said convention to be made public, to the end that the same, and every clause and article thereof, may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington this fifteenth day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy-three, and of the independence of the United States the ninety-seventh.

U. S. GRANT.

By the President:
HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State.

Postal Convention between the United States of America and the United Kingdoms of Sweden and Norway.

The undersigned, John A. J. Creswell, Postmaster General of the United States of America, in virtue of the powers vested in him by law, and Oluf Stenersen, Envoy Extraordinary and minister Plenipotentiary of his Majesty the King of Sweden and Norway to the United States of America, in the name of his government, and by virtue of the powers which he has formally presented to this effect, have agreed upon the following articles, to wit:

ARTICLE I.

There shall be an exchange of correspondence between the United States of America and the United Kingdoms of Sweden and Norway. This exchange of correspondence shall embrace: 1. Letters, ordinary and registered. 2. Newspapers, books, prints of all kinds (comprising maps, plans, engravings, drawings, photographs, lithographs and all other like productions of mechanical processes, sheets of music, etc.), and patterns or samples of merchandise, including grains and seeds. Such correspondence shall be exchanged whether originating in the United States and destined for either of the United Kingdoms, or vice versa; or originating in, or destined for, such foreign countries to which the contracting countries may serve as intermediaries.

ARTICLE II.

The offices for the exchange of mails shall be—on the part of Sweden—1. Goteborg; 2. The travelling postoffice No. 1 between Goteborg and Stockholm; 3. The traveling postoffice No. 2, between Malmo and Falkoping. On the part of Norway—1. Christianssand; 2. Christiania; 3. The sea postoffice on the steamboat line between Hammerfeet and Hamburg; and on the part of the United States—1. New York; 2. Chicago.

The respective postal administrations are authorized, if circumstances should require it, to discontinue any of the offices designated for the exchange of mails, or to establish others in their place.

ARTICLE III.

The postoffices of Sweden and Norway shall make their own arrangements for the dispatch of mails to the United States; and in like manner the postoffice of the United States shall make arrangements for the dispatch of mails to Sweden and Norway. The mails shall be forwarded by regular routes of communication; and each office shall, at its own cost, pay the expense of the intermediate transportation (sea and territorial) of the mails which it dispatches to the other country. It is agreed that the cost of the international, ocean and territorial transit of closed mails, exchanged in either direction, between the frontiers of the respective countries, shall be first defrayed by that one of the offices which shall have obtained from the postoffices of the intermediary countries the most favorable terms for such conveyance, and any amount so advanced by one office, for and on account of the other, shall be promptly reimbursed.

ARTICLE IV.

The standard weight for the single rate of postage shall be:

1. For letters, fifteen grammes.

2. For all other correspondence mentioned in the second paragraph of the first article, that which each office adopts for the mails which it dispatches to the other, adapted to the regulations prescribed for such correspondence in the dispatching country. Each office shall, however, give notice to the other of the standard weight it adopts and of any subsequent change thereof.

The rule of progression shall be an additional single rate for each additional single weight or fraction thereof.

The weight stated by the dispatching office shall always be accepted, except in the case of manifest error.

ARTICLE V.

The single rate of postage for letter correspondence exchanged in direct mails between the United Kingdoms and the United States shall be—

I. By closed mail, via England, without regard to the forwarding of the correspondence, whether to or from a Swedish or Norwegian seaport, or through Germany—

1. For letters from Sweden for the United States—

(*a*) When prepaid in Sweden, thirty-six ore.

(*b*) When paid in the United States, fourteen cents.

2. For letters from the United States to Sweden—

(*a*) When prepaid in the United States, nine cents.

(*b*) When paid in Sweden, fifty-six ore.

3. For letters from Norway for the United States—

(*a*) When prepaid in Norway, twelve skilling.

(*b*) When paid in the United States, fifteen cents.

4. For letters from the United States for Norway—

(*a*) When prepaid in the United States, ten cents.

(*b*) When paid in Norway, eighteen skilling.

II. By direct regular steamship communication between ports in the United Kingdoms, whether the port be Swedish or Norwegian on the one side, and ports in the United States on the other side—

1. For letters from Sweden for the United States—

(*a*) When prepaid in Sweden, twenty-four ore.

(*b*) When paid in the United States, nine cents.

2. For letters from the United States for Sweden—

(*a*) When prepaid in the United States, six cents.

(*b*) When paid in Sweden, thirty-six ore.

3. For letters from Norway to the United States—

(*a*) When prepaid in Norway, seven skilling.

(*b*) When paid in the United States, nine cents.

4. For letters from the United States for Norway—

(*a*) When prepaid in the United States, six cents.

(*b*) When paid in Norway, ten skilling.

Insufficiently prepaid letters shall be charged with the postage for unpaid letters, after deducting the prepaid amount.

On all other correspondence mentioned in the second paragraph of the first article, the rate shall be, for the mails despatched by either route, that which the dispatching office shall adopt, adapted to the regulations prescribed for such correspondence in the dispatching country. But each office shall give notice to the other of the rate it adopts, and of any subsequent change thereof.

ARTICLE VI.

The Atlantic sea rate on the correspondence sent in closed mails through England shall not exceed six cents per ounce for letter mails, and six cents per pound for other correspondence; nor shall the charge for the sea conveyance thereof, between England and the United kingdoms, exceed two cents per single letter rate, or six cents per ounce net weight of letter mails, and six cents per pound for other correspondence.

It is also agreed that the entire cost of the sea transportation between the boundaries of the respective countries, by any direct line of steamships adapted to the conveyance of mails, and employed by the respective postoffices, shall not exceed two cents for each single letter rate, or six cents per ounce, net weight, of letter mails, and six cents per pound of other correspondence.

It is further stipulated that the Atlantic sea rate on the correspondence sent in closed mails through Germany shall not exceed five cents per thirty grammes of letters, and ten cents per kilogramme of other correspondence.

It is also understood and agreed that the Norwegian postoffice shall be reimbursed for the closed mails sent through Germany, which have been forwarded by the direct steamboat line between Christianssand and Hamburg, worked on Norwegian account, by a sum corresponding to the Swedish and Danish rate of transit for closed mails sent through Sweden and Denmark.

ARTICLE VII.

Ordinary letters may be sent prepaid or unpaid, but on registered letters, and on all other correspondence mentioned in the second paragraph of the first article, prepayment shall be obligatory.

ARTICLE VIII.

Registered articles shall, in addition to the postage, be subject to a register fee of thirty ore in Sweden, of eight skilling in Norway, and of eight cents in the United States. This fee, as well as the postage, shall always be prepaid. Each office is at liberty to reduce this fee for the mails it dispatches.

ARTICLE IX.

Any correspondence may be registered, as well the international as that originating in or destined for other countries to which the postoffices of the contracting countries may serve as intermediaries for the transmission of such registered articles.

Each office shall notify the other of the countries to which it may serve as intermediary.

ARTICLE X.

The accounts on the international correspondence exchanged in either direction, shall be adjusted and settled on the following basis, viz:

I. Between Sweden and the United States: From the total amount of international postages and register fees for correspondence between Sweden and the United States, collected in Sweden, the Sweden postal administration shall deduct the amount which, without exceeding the highest rates agreed upon, has been paid for the conveyance of the mails to the frontier of the United States. From the total amount of international postages and register fees, for correspondence exchanged between Sweden and the United States, collected in the United States, the postal administration of the United States shall, in like manner deduct the amount which, without exceeding the highest rates agreed upon, has been paid for the conveyance of the mails to the frontier of Sweden (or of Norway, in case of conveyance by direct steamship communication, or through England.)

Of the amount of the two net sums thus