

Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

The Institute has attempted to obtain the best original copy available for filming. Features of this copy which may be bibliographically unique, which may alter any of the images in the reproduction, or which may significantly change the usual method of filming, are checked below.

L'Institut a microfilmé le meilleur exemplaire qu'il lui a été possible de se procurer. Les détails de cet exemplaire qui sont peut-être uniques du point de vue bibliographique, qui peuvent modifier une image reproduite, ou qui peuvent exiger une modification dans la méthode normale de filmage sont indiqués ci-dessous.

Coloured covers/
Couverture de couleur

Coloured pages/
Pages de couleur

Covers damaged/
Couverture endommagée

Pages damaged/
Pages endommagées

Covers restored and/or laminated/
Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée

Pages restored and/or laminated/
Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées

Cover title missing/
Le titre de couverture manque

Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/
Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées

Coloured maps/
Cartes géographiques en couleur

Pages detached/
Pages détachées

Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black)/
Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)

Showthrough/
Transparence

Coloured plates and/or illustrations/
Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur

Quality of print varies/
Qualité inégale de l'impression

Bound with other material/
Relié avec d'autres documents

Continuous pagination/
Pagination continue

Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin/
La reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure

Includes index(es)/
Comprend un (des) index

Title on header taken from: /
Le titre de l'en-tête provient:

Blank leaves added during restoration may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming/
Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.

Title page of issue/
Page de titre de la livraison

Caption of issue/
Titre de départ de la livraison

Masthead/
Générique (périodiques) de la livraison

Additional comments: /
Commentaires supplémentaires:

This item is filmed at the reduction ratio checked below /
Ce document est filmé au taux de réduction indiqué ci-dessous.

10X	14X	18X	22X	26X	30X
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12X	16X	20X	24X	28X	32X

Edw. Buchan

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW:
DEVOTED TO THE
CIVIL GOVERNMENT
OF
CANADA.

Vol. I.]

MAY, 1841.

[No. V.

CONTENTS:

Survey of the Ottawa Route to Lake Huron.....	273
Education	279
Agricultural Protecting Duty, No. III.	294
Emigration	297
Roads	312
The Indian Nations	318
The Elections	327
Monthly Summary	331
Notice to the Public.....	<i>Last page of Cover.</i>



TORONTO:

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY H. SCOBIE, AT HIS OFFICE,
CORNER OF KING AND CHURCH STREETS.

TERMS—TWENTY SHILLINGS PER ANNUM, PAYABLE HALF-YEARLY IN ADVANCE.

JAMES WATKINS, PRINTER

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW:
DEVOTED TO THE
CIVIL GOVERNMENT OF CANADA.

Vol. I.]

MAY, 1841.

[No. V.

SURVEY OF THE OTTAWA ROUTE TO LAKE HURON.

AMONG the various plans of public improvement that have been proposed in this country, is the making a navigable water communication between the Ottawa River and Lake Huron, in order to facilitate the settlement of the country, and provide for the transport of produce from the upper Lakes by a much shorter route than through Lakes Erie and Ontario. With this design, an act of the Legislature was passed, providing for a "Survey of the Ottawa river, and the country bordering on it, together with the country and waters lying between that river and Lake Huron." In pursuance of this act commissioners were appointed, who engaged three gentlemen, "who were directed to take different routes, with a view of discovering the nature of the country, the facilities of transport, the quality of the soil, and whether adapted to purposes of cultivation, besides the great object—the water communication."—The reports of these gentlemen fulfil these objects. As these reports and the country they describe are but little known, we shall give an abstract of them in the present article.

The gentlemen employed in this survey embarked at Penetanguishine, and crossed the north-eastern coast of Lake Huron, when one of them (Mr. Taylor) struck out for the French river, and had to pay an Indian to shew him its entrance. "The impracticability of a stranger finding the mouth of this river is soon seen. The islands are grouped together, forming channels deep and intricate, with many

reefs and sunken rocks, varying in their course, without any feature to distinguish one from another, and extending themselves as far as the eye can see. The Indians are sometimes at a loss to know the best and nearest channel to a required spot, as the islands have the same appearance, the greatest elevation not exceeding 30 feet, often only 15. But a channel could be marked out by beacons on the sunken rocks." The Hudson Bay Company have a post near the mouth of this river. Three miles farther up the stream there is a portage 300 yards across; the fall is about 10 feet, river narrow and impeded with rocks. "The surrounding country presents the same appearance as the north-east shore of Lake Huron; the wood is of a stunted growth, and the rocks are covered with mosses and lichens." Ascending the river, the channel is narrow and rocky, depth of water varying from 10 to 20 feet, and on each side a bold granite shore 60 or 80 feet high. But few fish in the river, and but little hunting in the country, beaver or otter extremely scarce, deer not seen except in winter. At 14 miles the fall of Petit Reolet occurs, which is 20 feet, the portage 150 yards. Ten miles further is the Petit Foule rapid, the country granite, covered with a small, stunted growth of pine, birch, and poplar. Further up occur the rapids Brisson, Grand Foule, Croix, and Pine, whose rise equal to 57 feet. The banks are bold and irregular, 100 feet high, undulating, covered with small wood. The chan-

nels filled with sunken rocks and small islands. Continuing 3 miles further, the Chaudiere falls occur at the outlet from Lake Nipissingue, the falls are 25 feet. "This Lake is 165 feet above Lake Huron, and is irregular in its shape; its length from the Chaudiere falls to the north-eastern extremity is 28 geographical miles, and its extreme breadth from Turtle river to West river is 28 miles. Several small rivers flow into the Lake: the principal are the West, Sturgeon, Turtle, South. The waters are generally shallow, especially in the bays, which are deep and full of rocky islands. The shores are granite, except at the entrance of some of the streams, where alluvial deposit is found, but inconsiderable. The fish caught in this Lake are few, jack and carp the principal, in season some sturgeon and white fish, but the latter inferior to those of Lake Huron. This scarcity of fish is attributable to the sterility of the country. Game of all kinds is scarce, grouse and hare the most abundant. The animals taken at the fur posts are beaver, otter, mink, and muskrat, but few, if any, on the shores of the lake, but on the rivers. In winter deer are taken, but rarely moose."

This sketch of French river and Lake Nipissingue shows that the country so far is sterile and rocky; yet there would seem to be no great obstruction in the way of opening a water communication, if the following statement from Mr. Hawkin's report, may be relied on.— He makes the length of French river from Lake Huron to be 80 miles, of which 26 are navigable, and 4 obstructed navigation. But there is a great difference between his estimate and Mr. Taylor's as to the height above Lake Huron, the latter making it 165 feet, and the former 70 or 75 feet above the lake. This difference of 90 feet as to the height of the source of French river in Lake Nipissingue above Lake Huron, shows how little dependence can be placed on such estimates, which at best are but guess work.

Mr. Taylor crossed Lake Nipissingue to Sturgeon river, and 3½ miles from its mouth came to the Sturgeon falls, 35 feet, tumbling through granite, and divided by rocky islets.— The banks are a sandy subsoil, top vegetable mould. The trees are taller and of a more thrifty growth than those below the fall.— Seven miles further are the Sand falls, 20 feet perpendicular, passing through rocks of granite.

Quantities of white cedar grow here, and attain a large size. Ascending the river, the Stone rapids occur, descent 33 feet, and then the Smoke falls, tumbling over rugged crags 65 feet, the rocks granite. Passing upwards to the Forks, 14 miles, the country is craggy and broken, still granite, the hollows filled with yellow sand, which in some places forms the banks of the river alternately with the granite. The river where navigable is a sluggish, irregular stream, from one to two hundred yards wide, in many places very shallow. Ascending the river to Lake Tamagamingue, the country is of the same character, the banks granite and fossil rocks, granite and green stone, slate and porphyry; the woods are birch, poplar and cedar, some pine. The principal component of the granite in this section is mica, and the rocks in some places are perforated. The whole height of Lake Tamagamingue above Lake Nipissingue, is estimated at 715 feet. There are 19 portages between, and long and continued rapids. No soil fit for agriculture, nor does he believe that there is any to the north or north west, as the Indians describe the country to be worse than any he had crossed.

"Lake Tamagamingue is 20 geographical miles in length, greatest breadth about three miles; in some places it is narrow, and full of islands and islets. The water is deep, and beautifully clear; there are several small streams that fall into it. The Lake abounds with fish, those taken in summer are black bass, carp, jack; in the streams there are plenty of trout, and good white fish. The animals in the neighbourhood are the beaver, otter, mink, muskrat, and deer, sometimes moose. The whole of the surrounding country is slate, with bold outline, the highest land about 400 feet above the lake, timbered with pine, birch, and poplar, the latter in large quantities. The waters of this lake fall into the Ottawa and Lake Nipissingue, its connection with the latter being by a succession of lakes and rapid streams; and with the Ottawa by a chain of lakes nearly on a level, and a rapid stream to Lake Temiscamingue, which it enters at the confluence of the Montreal river with that lake."

"Lake Temiscamingue is 50 geographical miles in length; its extreme breadth not more than 3, in some places scarcely one. It lies between the parallel 46° 45' and 47° 30' north, and longitude 78° 48' west. Its shores are steep and mountainous, chiefly granite and slate; the soil coarse and gravelly, not fit for cultivation. About the centre of the lake, the Hudson Bay Company have a post on a neck of land, where they cultivate a few acres of potatoes, and sometimes a little wheat and pease,

these last with difficulty : yet there is no other soil equally productive near the lake."

It is unnecessary to follow Mr. Taylor any farther in his descent to the Ottawa, for the country through which he passed is of the same character, hills of granite, steep to the margin of the river, forming deep ravines, covered with pine, beech, soft maple, poplar, birch, and black oak, all small; occasional alluvial flats, on which grow some good red pine. The whole ascent from Lake Huron to Lake Temiscauingue is estimated at 880 feet, and the descent from thence to the Ottawa 222 feet, making 1102 feet, besides the descent down the Ottawa. This route may therefore be dismissed from farther consideration. The country is not fit for agriculture, nor are the streams adapted for a water communication.

Mr. D. Thompson, another of the gentlemen employed on this survey, attempted in the close of the season to explore and survey a route near the Ottawa by the Muskrat Lake, to avoid the Calumet falls, but the season was too far advanced for the operation, and after contending for about three weeks with the wintry weather, he had to break up the survey, having, however, succeeded in taking the chief levels. His report gives the result of his examination of this route, and of the Calumet falls; and also a series of astronomical observations on the survey from Lake Huron to the Ottawa, by the Muskako and Madawaska rivers, which route was taken by him at the commencement.

The next report on this survey is made by Mr. Hawkins, Deputy Provincial Surveyor, who first examined a route from Lake Huron to the Ottawa by the rivers Maganetawang and Pittoiweis; but as there is an ascent up the first of 340 feet, and a descent down the last of 450, making 790 feet, this route was abandoned. Averaging each lock at 10 feet, it would require 79 locks to connect Lake Huron and the Ottawa by this route.

The route next examined by Mr. Hawkins is from Bytown up the Ottawa, Little river, Lake Nipissingue, and the French river, to Lake Huron. This is the only route that appears to be feasible. A table is given of the distances, altitudes, length of obstructed navigation, and navigable waters, through the whole route; by which it appears that from Bytown to the height of land between the

Ottawa and Lake Huron there is an ascent of 419 feet, with 27½ miles of obstructed navigation, and 187 navigable; and from the height of land to Lake Huron there is a descent of 80 feet, with 9 miles of obstructed navigation, and 50 navigable; making a total of 499 feet height, and 273½ miles distance, of which 26½ are obstructed navigation, and the remainder navigable. Allowing 10 feet to each lock, it would take 50 locks to connect Bytown with Lake Huron by this route. Mr. Hawkins observes, however, that in the preceding estimates of heights he has added nothing for currents, and says 10 or 15 feet should be allowed for the French River on this account. We have before stated the difference between him and Mr. Taylor in their estimates for this river. But as the former makes no allowance for currents, and as in the 237 miles of navigable water we may assume that half at least will have a strong current, we may safely add about 70 feet to his estimate, making the total height about 570 feet.

We subjoin the following general description of the country from Mr. Hawkins' report. The belt of hardwood land, 45 miles wide, appears to be the only part fit for agriculture. A late English publication quotes the following passage, said to be from a letter addressed by Baron Humboldt to Lord Castlereagh: "The wood imported from Quebec is partly from the woods on the lakes and rivers of the United States, and the wood in Canada is to a considerable extent cut by the inhabitants of the United States, who, being paid in ready money, receive the greatest portion of the price. The wood called red pine grows entirely in the territory of the United States." How far this statement was ever applicable, we need not now enquire, for at present every part of it is erroneous. The United States are so far from bringing timber to Canada, that they have not enough for themselves, and large quantities of pine timber are exported from Canada to the States. And as to red pine being peculiarly the growth of the States, it is here shewn by this report on the Ottawa, that there is an inexhaustible forest of red pine in the country bordering on that river, and part of this tract has been visited by the lumberers for several years back. As the statement quoted above has been used recently in argument in England, we therefore think proper to shew that if it ever

was true, it is so no longer, nor has it been so for several years. The following extract has an important bearing on the trade of the country, as well as being descriptive of its character. The sales of timber produce from ten to twelve thousand pounds per annum to the public revenue.

The formation of the country for 15 miles east of Lake Huron is low and rocky, and is generally timbered with red and white pine, birch and tamarac; it then undulates, and may be considered a hilly country to the height of land and on the Ottawa. The most elevated land, however, does not, in my opinion, exceed 1,000 feet above Lake Huron.

After the above change takes place, the land is generally timbered with beech, maple, birch, balsam and pine; basswood, elm or oak being but seldom seen, except on the banks of rivers or lakes, until penetrating 50 or 60 miles from Lake Huron; the two first of these timbers are there found in abundance, and the latter (white oak) sparingly. It is worthy of remark, that on the entire distance between Lake Huron and the Ottawa, I noticed but one red oak, the hardwood lands to within about 50 miles of the Ottawa forming a belt about 15 miles wide. Thence to the Ottawa appears an interminable forest of red pine, soil generally red or white sand, and frequently rocky.

A large portion of the belt of hardwood is undoubtedly fit for settlement, particularly the first 20 miles east of district boundary, as shewn on plan. The soil of this tract is generally of a good quality, being generally clay or sand loam, and frequently partaking of the properties of both these soils. The residue of this belt of hardwood may be described as having a loamy soil, superimposed on red or white sand, each of these qualities being irregular in its depth, and generally too shallow for agricultural purposes; it is frequently broken with rocks jutting its surface, and many places are stony, particularly in the vicinity of large lake.

When the portions of this Province now being settled become thickly populated, I have no doubt but the major part of this tract will be found fit for settlement. This country is comparatively free from large swamps or morasses, but is diffusely supplied with lakes and rivers, which must eventually be found of much importance in forming an internal navigation; and when this country does become an object of settlement, it can only be accomplished, with any degree of advantage, by ascending some of the principal rivers (running into Lake Huron) until coming into what might be considered the first great table above Lake Huron, and having once got on this table it will be found easy to advance the settlement northerly through the large lakes and tributary streams on this table. The rivers chosen to ascend

should be as near Penetanguishine as could practically be found, for which purpose the Moose River is well adapted.

The routes I have just mentioned are numerous, and are generally preferred by the Indians; they will have two paramount advantages; the distance is shorter than that by the hazardous coast of Lake Huron, and they pass through the only part of the country fit for settlement.

A large tract of the country explored, as I have previously stated, is timbered with red pine, and is situated east of the dividing ridge, but notwithstanding that a meagre soil does exist on this section, it abounds with an almost inexhaustible forest, the resources of which, even at the present period, form no inconsiderable part of the revenue of the country, and which must continue to increase in a ratio proportionate to the facilities of floating or shipping it off, and which can only arrive at its maximum, when the waters of the Ottawa are made navigable.

The scenery of the Ottawa is not, perhaps, equalled, in point of grandeur, by any portion of the Canadas, unless by that of the St. Lawrence. From Bytown to that part of the Ottawa known as the "Deep River," the Ottawa flows through a wide-spreading valley, and has more the appearance of a succession of large lakes than that of a river. These lakes are generally studded with groups of islands, and add much to the beauty of the landscape. Its banks slope gradually, in rear of which the land can be seen to form two or three distinct tables, and where the clearings admit the view, they appear an extended amphitheatre.

Pine is the prevailing timber on the banks of the Ottawa; but it is generally mixed with hardwoods as far as the Pitoiwais, and the soil between this place and Bytown is mostly of the best quality. From Lake Chaudiere a range of high lands, rocky in appearance is distinguishable in a northerly direction on the Lower Canada side. As we ascend the Ottawa the same range is frequently in view. At Lake Coulouge it closes within three miles of the Ottawa, and eventually joins it at the commencement of the Deep River, and continues to line its northerly bank about 24 miles.—Between Bytown and the northerly front of Allumette Island, there are several settlements, many of which appear in a flourishing condition; there are also some scattered settlements as far north as the Deep River.

The scenery of the Ottawa becomes decidedly changed, though not in point of beauty, at the commencement of the Deep River. This section forces its course through a wide channel, and is perfectly straight about 24 miles; its banks are slightly indented, and form a number of projecting points or head lands.—The northerly shore, as already remarked, is lined by a range of rocky lands, and elevated about 500 feet above the river. The land on

the Upper Canada shore slopes more regularly, and a short distance from the river I noticed some hardwood growing on good soil, but generally too stony for agricultural purposes.

From the Deep River to Matawang, the scenery retains nearly the same appearance, the northerly bank being generally bounded by the most elevated land. At Matawang the route leaves the Ottawa and proceeds by the Little River. The course of this stream is westerly; at its junction with the Ottawa it is 200 feet wide, and about 6 feet deep; a short distance higher up it shallows and passes over a rocky channel about 2 miles; after which it deepens in some places to more than 40 feet, and passes through precipitous banks; its width in this channel is about 80 feet; but this description does not hold correct for more than 3 or 4 miles, as the water changes both in depth and width frequently. There is no good land seen after leaving Lake Allumettes, until coming to Lake Talon, on the north shore of which there is a tract of good land. The same description of land extends several miles north-west of the Turtle Lake, but does not approach the Little River between these lakes.

From the south-west part of Turtle Lake, the route proceeds by a small creek, and at 20 yards, having passed through a small lake, (the water of which is turbid and of a reddish color) we made a portage of three-fourths of a mile in length, and crossed the height of land between the waters of Nippissing and the Little River. On the east of this portage the land is swaly, the highest part of which does not elevate more than 10 feet above the Turtle Lake; out of this swale the waters run in both directions by two small creeks, one of which (10 feet wide) we sailed down towards Lake Nippissing; at one mile this creek contracts in its channel so as not to admit a passage for canoes, in consequence of which a portage half a mile in length is made through meadow land. At the termination of this portage, the small creek we entered at the height of land, is joined by another 15 to 20 feet wide, and about 3 feet deep. From the height of land our course was southerly, but from the junction of these streams we bore south-westerly; at one mile further, there is a rapid making a descent of 8 or 10 feet, to avoid which a portage half a mile in length over swaly land is made; at the foot of this rapid it is again augmented by another branch, the entire now forming a channel about 40 feet wide, and 3 to 5 feet deep; its course continues nearly in the same direction, passing through low lands, timbered with balsam, tamarac, soft maple, and a few pine—banks of the river about 4 feet high, but lowering towards the Lake, and at one mile we came to Lake Nippissing, the depth of channel there is only three feet, passing over Granite Rock.

Canalling from the Turtle Lake to the last portage might readily be accomplished, as

scarcely any rock would be met by following the course of the streams just described, and which contain sufficient water for this purpose, and the banks of the last mile sailed down of river would require to be risen several feet, and a lock placed at the entrance of the lake. But the depth of water and rocky channel at this place appear an insuperable obstacle—the entrance of the harbour is also full of sunken rocks, and much exposed to all winds bearing between southwest and northwest. The distance from this place to the French River is about 25 miles, and if I may presume to judge from sailing through this lake, it does not appear a dangerous navigation, its water being deep—there are several large islands in the main body of the lake, and under the lee of which vessels in time of storm might readily find security.

The French river leaves Lake Nippissing at the westerly extremity of a long bay, and in which there are several rocky islands; this bay is sheltered from storms by its rocky margin. There are two rapids in the French River on the first mile after leaving Lake Nippissing, each about one-eighth mile in length, and having the same descent of about 10 feet. The second of these rapids flows through a chasm only 30 feet wide, below these rapids the river passes through a succession of lakes lined by rocky lands, and in which there are numerous deeply indented bays, and which cause the navigation of this river exceedingly critical to those persons unaccustomed with the proper channel. I encountered some difficulty in this respect myself.

Thirty miles from Lake Nippissing the river divides into three branches, and at which place it is about three feet above Lake Huron. The most easterly of these branches is narrow, shallow, and rocky in its channel, the Indian name for it is "Asindibisin," and signifies a river filled with rocks and shoals; its length is about 6 miles. The central branch is about the same length, and contains the principal body of water in the French River, and may average about 300 feet in width, and is free from sunken rocks or other obstructions, with the exception of a short rapid making a descent of 5 feet as already remarked. At this outlet there is a good harbour, it being well sheltered from storms by several small islands on the east and west, and one large island on the south, and is about 3 miles from the main land. The third and most westerly channel is about ten miles long, its size and appearance is somewhat similar to the Asindibisin one.—These three outlets embrace a front of about ten miles on Lake Huron, and no part of which is approachable by large vessels except the middle channel.

In addition to the routes now described, I explored several tributary streams, and for a description of which I beg to refer to my diary.

The object of a preliminary survey, such as the present one, not requiring a detailed report, I have refrained from making it such in most cases, believing that it would only be increased to an unnecessary length without deriving any additional advantage by it; I allude here to an omission generally of specific descriptions of the various rapids, &c., but the formation of these will perhaps be sufficiently understood from the following brief outline of the geology of the country explored by me.

Commencing at Lake Huron and ascending the Maganatawang River, thence crossing the height of land and following the course of the Pittoiwais; the rock of this extensive tract of country is exclusively of granite order, but so irregularly are the minerals common to it distributed as regards their relative quantities and situation that it becomes difficult to pronounce with any degree of certainty to which class they belong, if there be any constant attribute of this rock (but I believe there is not) it is the uniformity in size of its parts, these are generally small. From Lake Huron to within fifty miles of the Ottawa, quartz and felspar predominate, and are always more fully developed than the mica or third constituent of granite; this last substance is often mixed with hornblend; its stratified appearance in some localities may justify its being classed as Gneiss; and from which it passes frequently into sienite and mica-slate; to each of these formations there are exceptions; those noticed by me I shall describe.

About 36 miles from Lake Huron, *vide* Plan No. 1, and Lake A., there is a precipitous range of rock fronting the west; this rock is friable and reduces by the slightest pressure to particles of felspar and mica; when viewed before it becomes pulverised it is like old or decayed brick, of a dull reddish colour; its height is about 70 feet, projecting considerably over its base, and its appearance is such that the slightest shock would seem to bring it down; a number of large masses are now prostrate at its base, and in this manner I should suppose it has fallen for ages. In a small river which empties itself into this lake there are two falls, one of which is 36 feet in height; the rock at these falls is composed of quartz and mica, the latter substance in large lamina. At these falls there are several large boulders, which are composed of felspar, without, as far as I could discern, mixing with any other mineral; twenty miles east of the dividing ridge there is a very visible change in the constituents of the rocks; felspar becoming the prevailing substance, and small portions of quartz and mica. This rock in some localities is coarse grained, whilst in others it has the same compact structure as secondary limestone, and has always a slaty surface. The fragments of this rock form deep deposits in many parts of the Pittoiwais River, and when taken from its

bed has a dark purple tinge, but when broken it has a reddish colour.

There are four things strikingly peculiar to this section of the country, its timber is *red*, (red pine,) its soil is *red*, (red sand, and sometimes red clay,) on the banks of lakes and rivers its rock is *red*, and its waters are also *red*, deriving their colour from the soils and rocks over which they pass. Many portions of the banks of the Pittoiwais have mural faced fronts, and are composed of this compact rock, and which generally have a singular stratification; a part is horizontal from which it radiates (though not in straight lines) until it becomes vertical; in other places it forms arcs of concentric circles; these appearances are often visible in a space of 50 or 100 feet. Miles from the Ottawa on the banks of the Pittoiwais, there is a fine range of this rock, it extends about 260 yards, and is 150 feet high; on many of these cliffs figures of various animals and other devices are skillfully engraven by the Indians. This rock extends nearly to the Ottawa, and there becomes more crystalline; it is very general on the south bank of the Deep River, from which I am inclined to believe it recedes southerly, and afterwards returns, as it is seen through the greater part of the channel of the Little River; on the north side of the Deep River the rock is similar to that on the Maganatawang.

The rock between the Deep River and Maganatawang is generally sienite or gneiss, on the easterly shore of Lake Nipissing felspar prevails, and mixes with mica and quartz; towards its westerly end hornblend prevails, giving the rock a dark colour; on the French River the rock is more crystalline than any previously described; this appearance is ascribable to the prevalence of rock crystal or quartz.

The coast of Lake Huron is not free from changes in its geological structure; at the outlets of the French River the Rock is graphic, and is composed principally of quartz, mixing with small portions of mica and felspar; this Rock is remarkable for its regularity of surface, whether tabular or rounded, both of which shapes it generally takes; this formation extends about 30 miles south of the French River, and then passes into a partially stratified rock, and mica in minute parts becomes the prevailing mineral; the rapid decomposition of this substance often gives the rock a very uneven surface; it is very generally traversed by veins of quartz, varying in thickness from a tenth of an inch to two inches, and these veins are often intersected by others. The coast between Shawenagua, Trading-post and Penetanguishine, exhibits many proofs of this sort of rock.

At Bytown the rock is a secondary limestone, of a light blue colour; the same formation may be traced nearly to the Chats Rapids, where it

passes into primitive limestone, colour white and very crystalline. This formation extends rarely to the north end of Grand Calumet Island; at Portago du Fort it is mixed with limestone, of the same colour, but of a finer texture; this sort is known in the arts as statuary marble; at New Edinboro', a short distance below Bytown, and on the south bank of the Ottawa, limestone of a deep blue colour prevails; this is a handsome stone, and might be very extensively used in works of art.

In the Roche Fender channel, west of Grand Calumet Island, primary limestone prevails, and is curiously indented with rock basins, formed probably by the abrasion of water; these basins are generally about six inches in diameter, and perfectly concave; towards the

northerly extremity of the Grand Calumet the primary limestone conglomerates with granitic rock; a secondary limestone, of a whitish colour, forms the bed of a great part of Allumette Lake. At Talon Portage, on the Little River, a bed of primary limestone, such as that seen on the Ottawa, commences, and extends about a quarter of a mile further up the river; on each side it is lined by granite rock.

Respectfully submitted.

I have the honor to be,
Gentlemen,

Your most obedient,
Humble Servant,

WILLIAM HAWKINS,
Deputy Surveyor.

EDUCATION.

Among the various subjects that require public attention in this Province, there is none of greater importance to the well-being of society than the education of its youth. The maxim—

“Just as the twig is bent the tree's inclined,”

is generally admitted; and therefore, the future character of society depends on the character which we impress on those who are hereafter to form its constituent parts. If we allow our youth to grow up ignorant and corrupt, the society which they will soon exclusively form will also be ignorant and corrupt. It is true, there are agencies employed to enlighten and reclaim society, as the ministrations of the clergy, and the administration of the laws, but these agencies are only partially successful; and even if they were entirely so, still “prevention is better than cure,” and to instruct and form the youthful mind is a thousand fold easier than to enlighten and reform the adult. In the first case, we operate on a virgin soil, in which we may sow the seeds of knowledge and virtue with a moral certainty of being rewarded for our pains; but in the other case, our efforts are generally expended on a soil overgrown with brambles, thistles, and all noxious weeds, which have struck their roots so deep, and interlaced them so compactly to-

gether, that the greatest part of our labour is required to eradicate the bad principles embodied there, before we can plant the principles of truth, good, and duty in the mind. In the one case we have to attack an ancient enemy, entrenched in a rocky fortress, on which our light artillery often makes no impression, and we must proceed by sap and mine to effect an entrance and dislodge the foe: but in the other case we have to hold converse with youthful friends, and may with them traverse the groves of Academus, frequented by the lovers of wisdom, and may calmly shed the light of instruction on the opening mind, and watch its faculties unfolding to the living light, as flowers unfold their leaves to the sun, and gladly drink in the solar fire. If the adult could be in every instance reclaimed, still wisdom and justice proclaim that our first efforts should be expended on the young, in order to lead them aright from the beginning, and employ our energies where they will be most successful.

It is universally admitted that education is in a very defective condition throughout the Province, in the Common Schools especially.—The little that they profess to teach is but the first step towards education, and that little is generally taught in a very imperfect manner. We could fill page upon page with evidence

of this, taken from the testimony of clergymen, legislators, and others in the Province the best qualified to judge, and having full opportunities of knowing and judging aright, but the conviction of the fact is so general as to render any laboured proof unnecessary. And if the defects of the system are so obvious and glaring when tried by ordinary rules, how much more so when judged by the high standard of what education, even in Common Schools, ought to be? On this point public opinion wants raising to a higher standard than generally prevails. To be taught a little reading, writing, and arithmetic, is not education in any correct acceptance of the term. Thus neither develops the faculties of the mind, nor implants a title of the means of doing so. It merely enables a man to perform the very lowest part of his duties in business, or as a social being, but the highest parts of those duties are not even noticed. The sentient being is so far from having its faculties cultivated, that it is never even taught their names—is so far from receiving any intellectual training, that in the vast majority of cases the scholar leaves school without having learnt a single fact in relation to his mind and its various powers. Education stops short at the very threshold of the temple that it ought to enter and fill with glory. If the human soul without education be compared to marble in the quarry, and education to the art of the statuary, then with us the statue is merely cut out and rough chipped to the rude semblance of a man, instead of being chiselled and polished to a glorious type of the human face and figure, radiant with life and intelligence, like “the statue that enchants the world.”

We cannot better explain what education ought to be than in the following extract from Dr. Channing on the subject. He says :

“The great end of education is not to train a man to get a living. This is plain, because life was given for a higher end than simply to toil for its own prolongation. A comfortable subsistence is indeed very important to the purposes of life, be this what it may. A man half fed, half clothed, and fearing to perish from famine or cold, will be too crushed in spirit to do the proper work of a man. He must be set free from the iron grasp of want, from the constant pressure of painful sensations, from grinding, ill-requited toil. Unless a man be trained to get a comfortable support, his prospects of improvement and happiness are poor.

But if his education aims at nothing more, his life will turn to little account.

“To educate a man is to unfold his faculties, to give him the free and full use of his powers, especially of his best powers. It is first to train the intellect, to give him a love of truth, and to instruct him in the processes by which it may be acquired. It is to train him to soundness of judgment, to teach him to weigh evidence, and to guard him against the common sources of error. It is to give him a thirst for knowledge, which will keep his faculties in action through life. It is to aid him in the study of the outward world, to initiate him into the physical sciences, so that he will understand the principles of his trade or business, and will be able to comprehend the phenomena which are continually passing before his eyes. It is to make him acquainted with his own nature, to give him that most important means of improvement, self-comprehension.

In the next place, to educate a man is to train the conscience, to give him a quick, keen discernment of the right, to teach him duty in its great principles and minute applications, to establish in him immovable principles of action. It is to show him his true position in the world, his true relation to God and his fellow-beings, and the immutable obligations laid on him by these. It is to inspire him with the idea of perfection, to give him a high moral aim, and to shew how this may be maintained in the commonest toils, and how every thing may be made to contribute to its accomplishment.

Farther, to educate a man in this country, is to train him to be a good citizen, to establish him in the principles of political science, to make him acquainted with our history, government, and laws, to teach him our great interests as a nation, and the policy by which they are to be advanced, and to impress him deeply with his responsibility, his great trust, his obligations to disinterested patriotism, as the citizen of a free state.

Again, to educate a man is to cultivate his imagination and taste, to awaken his sensibility to the beautiful in nature and art, to give him the capacity of enjoying the writings of men of genius, to prepare him for the innocent and refined pleasures of literature.

I will only add, that to educate a man is to cultivate his powers of expression, so that he can bring out his thoughts with clearness and strength, and exert a moral influence over his fellow-creatures. This is essential to the true enjoyment and improvement of social life.

According to these views the labouring classes may be said to have as yet few means of education, excepting those which Providence furnishes in the relations, changes, occupations, and discipline of life. The great school of life, of Providence, is indeed open to all. But what,

I would ask, is done by our public institutions for the education of the mass of the people?—In the mechanical nature of our common schools, is it ever proposed to unfold the various faculties of a human being, and to prepare him for self-improvement through life? Indeed, according to the views of education now given, how defective are our institutions for rich as well as poor, and what a revolution is required in our whole system of training the young.

The great aim of philanthropy should be, that every member of the community may receive such an education as has been described. To bring forward every human being, to develop every mind, is the great purpose of society. I say of society, not of government, for government is a mere instrument for holding society together, a condition of its existence, and not the great power by which its ends are to be accomplished. One of the pernicious doctrines of the day, very pernicious to the working classes, is, that government is to regenerate society, and exalt the individual to his true dignity. Government enables us to live together in society, and to make efforts for our and others welfare. But social progress depends on the spring in each man's breast, and not on the operations of the state. Government may be compared to the foundation and walls of a manufactory, which enclose and protect, not the moving and guiding power, but the necessary condition of their action. The people must not look to it for what their own energies can alone effect."

We need add nothing to this account of what education ought to be or aim at, nor is it necessary for us to point out in detail how far our present system falls short of attaining this end, or even of proposing to attain it.

For five or six years past the subject of education has been discussed in the Provincial Legislature, and several plans have been proposed for its improvement; but nothing as yet has been done. A Commission was appointed by His Excellency Sir George Arthur to enquire and report on education, as a branch of the general commission appointed to enquire and report on the Public Departments. The Commissioners on Education were the Rev. Dr. McCaul, the Rev. H. J. Grasset, and the Hon. S. B. Harrison, and their report on the subject sketches a plan for the action of the Legislature. They remark that the subjects to which they were instructed to direct their attention may be classed under the following heads—The past and present state of education in the Province—the state of the school funds—the constitution and revenues of King's Col-

lege—and a plan for the diffusion of education. On the first they observe :

1.—The Past and Present state of Education. The Provincial Legislature manifested at a very early period, their conviction of the necessity of making provision for so important an element in a nation's prosperity, as the education of her youth. In the year 1707, both Houses united in petitioning His Majesty for the appropriation of a certain portion of the waste lands of the Crown as a fund for the establishment and support of a respectable Grammar School in each District, and also of a College or University for the instruction of youth in the different branches of liberal knowledge. In the year 1807 an act was passed that the sum of £800 should be annually (for four years) paid for the establishment of public schools. The clauses of this act provided that there should be one public school in every district. That £100 should be paid annually to the teacher of such public school—appointed the places where these schools were to be established—gave authority to the Lieutenant Governor to appoint trustees—gave the nomination of the teacher to these trustees, subject to the approval or disapproval of the Governor—also the power of removing, and nomination to the same with the same restriction; also the power of making rules and regulations respecting said schools.

It is to this act that we are to trace the establishment of the District Schools, as they at present exist, which, although they have not effected all that was expected, it yet must be admitted have been the instruments of effecting much good. In the year 1803 the Legislature seem to have been so impressed with the importance of this, their first step towards making a pecuniary provision for National Education, that we find the clause repealed limiting its duration to four years.

But the wants of the humbler classes of society demanded attention; accordingly in the year 1816 an act was passed for the establishment of Common Schools. The clauses of this act provided, that during its continuance, £6,000 should be annually paid for this object—£600 to the Home District, £400 to the Newcastle, £1000 to the Midland, £800 to the Johnstown, £800 to the Eastern, £600 to the London, £600 to the Gore, £600 to the Niagara, £600 to the Western, and £200 to the Ottawa. The third clause provides that when a competent number of persons shall unite and build a school house, furnish 20 scholars, and in part provide for the payment of a teacher, such persons giving eight days notice, might meet and appoint three fit persons trustees to the said school, which trustees were to have the power to appoint a teacher of said common school. Power also was given to the trustees to remove the teachers and nominate others;

such removal, however, being subject to the approval of the Board of Education. The same are authorized to make rules for the government of the schools, which, however, may be rescinded by the District Board of Education, to whom a quarterly report is directed to be made, stating the books used and the rules and regulations.

Provision also was made regarding the teacher, that he should be a British subject by birth, naturalization or conquest, or should have taken the oaths of allegiance. This act further directs that an annual report should be rendered to the District Board of Education, which Board was to be composed of five fit persons appointed by the Lieutenant Governor. Authority was given to this board to proportion the money for the schools, provided always, that no allowance shall exceed the sum of £25 annually. The treasurer of the district was authorized to pay this allowance on these conditions; receiving a certificate signed by the trustees, of the good conduct of the teacher during six months, and the number of the scholars not being less than twenty.

In the year 1819 the act for the establishment of Public Schools again engaged the attention of the Legislature. It was then deemed expedient to make further provisions for the efficiency of these schools. It was directed that an annual examination should be held, at which the teachers or a majority of them should assist; that annual reports should be rendered by the trustees; that free education should be given in each school to ten children of the poorer inhabitants, elected by ballot; that teachers, hereafter should not receive more than £50 a year, unless the average number of scholars exceed ten. It was further directed that certificates should be given at a public meeting of the trustees, upon due notice given for that purpose.

In the year 1820 the clause of the act regarding common schools, granting £6000 for their establishment, was repealed, and it was enacted that the sum of £2500 be paid annually, dividing the grant equally amongst the ten Districts, and fixing the maximum allowance of the teacher at £12 10s. per annum; permission was also given to the Board of Education to appoint a clerk who might be paid £5 per annum.

The necessity for making some provision for books to be used in the schools, produced an act of the Legislature in 1824. £150 per annum was granted, to be at the disposal of the General Board of Education, to be laid out in the purchase of books, tracts, &c., which were to be distributed by the General Board amongst the several District Boards of Education, to be by them distributed at their discretion. It was also enacted that every teacher of a common school must be examined by the Board of Education in the District in which he shall have

taught, or obtain a certificate from at least one member of such Board, certifying his ability, before receiving any public money.

In the year 1838 an act was passed increasing the grant for common schools, and improving the distribution of it amongst the districts.—£5650 was now granted in addition to the sums before appropriated by law for the years 1838 and 1834. This was directed to be apportioned as follows:—Eastern, Johnstown, Bathurst, Newcastle, and Niagara Districts, £500 each. Midland (including £200 for Prince Edwards) and Home District £750 each—Gore and London District £600 each—Western £350—and Ottawa £100. A clause in this act provided that the teachers of common schools were not entitled to allowance, unless the trustees of said school shall make it appear to the satisfaction of the Board of Education that they have made provision for his support, so as to secure him for his services in a sum at least equal to double the amount which may be allotted by the Board of Education from the public money. It was further enacted that each District should allow to the Clerks of their respective Boards the further sum of £5 annually, in addition to the sum they are already authorized by law to receive.

Since the passing of this act no further improvement has been effected, although there appears to have been a general persuasion (which your committee have reason to believe is at present very generally entertained) of the inadequacy of the system adopted.

Your Committee annex an analysis of some of the reports of the District and Common Schools for the year 1838, from which an estimate may be formed of the present state of Education in the Province; they regret that this branch of statistics is in so imperfect a state that they have not been able to obtain as exact information on the subject, as the importance of it would require.

From these reports, however, it appears that the number of pupils in 18 District Schools is little more than three hundred; that the number of Common Schools may be assumed to be more than 300, and that the number of children receiving instruction in them may be estimated at about 24,000, *i. e.* taking the population of Upper Canada to be 450,000, the average of Education by public funds is about 1 in 18.

The commissioners then remark that the state of the school funds had been referred to another committee, and that full information respecting King's College would be given in the appendix; and they then present the following plan of education for the Province:

National Education may be divided into four departments,—Professional, Liberal, Commercial and Elementary. Of these, the first two

are the sphere of the University—the second and third of District Schools, and the fourth of Common Schools. For Professional Education i. e. such as would qualify the student in Theology, Law and Medicine, the provision is at present, very deficient, although the regulations of the Law Society are eminently conducive to the advantage of the profession; its operations must of course, be regarded as merely auxiliary to the University Education in that Faculty, and intended rather to promote, than to supersede a course of academic study.

In the other faculties, Theology and Medicine, there is no provision for the instruction of students, except the incorporation of a College of Physicians and Surgeons, which your Committee fear will be prevented from effecting all that is desirable, from the want of funds. Your committee beg respectfully to state their conviction that the want of schools of Divinity and Medicine is productive of the most serious evils.

Every one who is aware that the well-being of every society of men must depend on the tone of their religious and moral principles, must deplore the want of a provision in the Province for furnishing itself with an abundant supply of men, qualified by an extended course of education for the important duties which the clergy have to discharge, as the teachers of religion and the guardians of morality. The baneful effect of the want of a school of medicine will be sufficiently appreciated, by merely mentioning that its result is, that the medical student is forced to seek that instruction which he cannot obtain here, in the neighbouring Republic, from which he returns not unfrequently, imbued with hostility to the constitution under which he is to live. Your Committee beg respectfully to press upon the attention of your Honourable Board, the importance of some speedy remedy for these evils.

This remedy would be provided if the University were in active operation; but this they cannot anticipate for some years, in the present state of its finances on the proposed scale of expenditure on the buildings.

The Provincial Legislature were so deeply impressed with the necessity of making prompt provision, under the circumstances, that, in the last session they passed an act creating Upper Canada College the temporary University.—The advantages of this arrangement are that but little addition to the present establishment of Tutors will be requisite for an efficient education in arts, and that the only additional building required will be a school house for those pupils of the institution who are not qualified to enter on the regular College Course; so that lectures may be commenced as soon as the system is organized. Your Committee annex plans for carrying into effect the provisions of this act, which will be found in the appendix.

Your Committee have bestowed much consideration on the subject of the Theological department.

It is their conviction that it would be wholly subversive of the order and well being of an University, to have within its walls, chairs for the Professors of different denominations of religion. But, although they would for this reason suggest, that the University in this Faculty, should be assimilated to those of Oxford, Cambridge and Dublin, they would also recommend that provision should be made for affording to the students for the Ministry in other denominations of christianity, the advantages of academic education. They therefore submit the only plan by which it appears to them the important object of instruction for Theological Students can be obtained, without exciting angry and jealous feelings through the Province, or endangering the peace and harmony of the University. They would recommend that Theological Seminaries should be established (either all in one, or each in a different part of the Province) one for each denomination that might appear to require such an establishment, for the education of their Clergy. On finishing the course of instruction there, the student should receive a diploma, certifying that he had completed the requisite course of Theological study, which might be an essential in the requisites for such titles or degrees in Divinity, as the authorities of each Theological Seminary might be empowered to confer.

Regarding grammar schools the Committee beg to offer the following suggestions:

I. That one system should be laid down to be adopted by all, as great disadvantages will arise from the present want of uniformity.

II. That no master should be appointed without examination, and that this examination should refer to his qualifications, not merely as a scholar, but as a teacher; for it often happens that excellent scholars are wholly unfit for the office of teachers.

III. That provision should be made for an assistant in each school where there are thirty pupils, the master to supply others according to the increase of the school.

IV. That it would be highly desirable to have District School Houses built on an uniform plan. They should contain, besides a good school room, sufficient accommodation for the master and his family, and also for resident pupils. The effect of such provisions as are above recommended, would be, that the tuition fees might be diminished, which your committee consider would be attended with beneficial results.

V. That a certain number of pupils should be entitled to free education, to be nominated by the Lieutenant Governor, on the recommendation of the Board of District Trustees.

VI. That a quarterly report should be laid before the King's College Council, and that the schools should be visited by the Inspector General of Education at least once biennially.

Your Committee beg leave now to offer a few remarks on the present state of Common Schools, as prefatory to the plan which they have the honour of recommending for their improvement.

The first step, they conceive, towards their amelioration is to ameliorate the condition of the master. At present they have reason to believe that but too many teachers, receiving the allowance, are to be found unfit for this responsible station from their want of literary or moral qualifications.

The cause of this, your Committee believe to be, the inadequate remuneration which is held out to those who would embrace this occupation. In this country the wages of the working classes are so high, that few undertake the office of schoolmaster, except those who are unable to do anything else; and hence the important duties of education are often entrusted to incompetent and improper persons. The income of the schoolmaster should at least be equal to that of a common labourer. Until some provision of this nature is made, your Committee fear that it will be in vain to expect a sufficient supply of competent teachers.

Another serious defect in the present system is the want of a training school for teachers.—The advantages resulting from the establishment of such institutions are attested by experience, wherever they have been in operation. Your Committee are naturally led to observe next, the evils arising from the want of a uniform system of instruction. They consider the introduction of uniformity (both as to system adopted and books used) to be of the utmost importance.

They now beg leave to submit the outlines of a plan for the improvement of these schools. 1. In every township a model school should be established. The school house might be built (and the future repairs provided for) by a joint stock association, who should receive interest for the capital expended. To the school house should be attached a small portion of land (say two acres) for the use of the school master.—The school house should contain at least five rooms; 2 school rooms; one for the boys, another for the girls; a sitting and bed room for the master, and kitchen.

For each of these schools there should be a male and female teacher. It would be desirable if married persons could be found, willing to undertake, and competent to discharge these duties. The income of the teacher should arise from a fixed allowance, and also from the fees for tuition; the allowance should not be less than £15 per year for the male teacher, and £10 for the female. In addition to the teachers who should have the charge of the model school,

there should be one or more licensed to itinerate through the township beyond the sphere of the permanent school; say at any place more than two miles distant from it—these should be promoted as vacancies occur, to the charge of the model schools. Thus provision is made for one permanent and four occasional schools in each township; whilst the completion of the system contemplates the future elevation of the latter to permanent establishments on the same footing as the model.

Experience proves the advantages of having some charge, however small, for the education of even the humblest classes of society. Perhaps two dollars per quarter might be fixed as a sum, which is within the reach of almost all who could pay anything, and to meet the case of those who could not afford even this, a certain number should be entitled to free education, say one in five.

Your Committee have recommended that these fees should form one part of the income of the school master, the other being the fixed allowance. From this they would deduct one-quarter to be appropriated to the formation of a School Library. They subjoin an estimate of the probable income of the master of a model school.

Fixed allowance	£15
Assuming 80 as the average number of pupils in each School the whole amount of fees will be.....	60
From this deduct one-fifth for free pupils	12
	—
	48
From this deduct one-quarter for School Library.....	12
	—
	36
	—
	56
Average income	£51

The subjects of instruction should be, in addition to the ordinary branches of an English Education (spelling, reading and writing) the Holy Scriptures, Geography, History, Arithmetic, Mensuration, and Book-keeping; and in the Girls School, sewing and knitting. Great care should be taken in the selection of the books. Your Committee regret to find that editions published in the United States are much used throughout the Province; tinctured by principles which however fit for dissemination under the form of Government which exists there, cannot be inculcated here without evil results. They therefore recommend that some means should be taken whereby the schools here may be provided with books at a cheap rate from Great Britain, or that a series of compilations or re-publications should be prepared and printed here, as the books appointed to be used in all the Schools throughout the Province.

The general control of Common Schools, Your Committee recommend to be vested in a Board of Commissioners at Toronto. One of these (called the Inspector General of Education, ex-officio, Chairman of the Board) should receive a salary. He should exercise supervision over both Grammar and Common Schools, and be the medium of communication between the local authorities in the Districts and the Council of King's College or the Board of Commissioners. The Secretary of the Board also should be a salaried officer. The duties of this Board should be at first the preparation of rules and regulations to be observed throughout all the schools under their control. The selection or preparation of Books, &c. to be used, fixing the editions of the same, the licensing of teachers, determining the location of the school houses, and making other arrangements necessary as preliminaries to the introduction of the system. Subsequently, their duties would be to supervise the operation of this system by receiving and examining the quarterly reports sent by the secretaries of the district board of Trustees, and to present an annual statement to the Officer administering the Government of the Province; detailing the number of schools, the number of pupils in each, number of teachers, income of the same, derived from public funds and school fees,—state of school houses, revenues and sources of same, and other particulars from which accurate information of the system and its practical working may be readily obtained. The local control should be vested in District Trustees nominated by the Officer Administering the Government. Each of these District Boards should have a salaried Secretary, who also should discharge the duty of inspecting and reporting on the schools within the District, each as often as circumstances may require, but ali, at least, once annually.—It should also be his duty to conduct the correspondence with the General Board and the Township Directors.

These might be elected by the Shareholders from amongst themselves, and also from those who had become eligible by making a donation of a fixed amount or value to the advancement of education in the Township. To this Board of Township Directors the school master should act as Secretary, conducting the correspondence with the Secretary of the District Trustees and the itinerant Teachers licensed for that Township.

It appears to Your Committee that no plan for education can be efficiently carried out without the establishment of schools for the training of the Teachers. They would therefore recommend that the Central School at Toronto (to which others may hereafter be added) should be a Normal School. The Master of it should give a written certificate to those who have completed a prescribed time, expressing his opinion of their conduct and qualifications.—

This certificate should be presented to the Secretary of the general Board; on receiving which the candidate should be examined, and a report made thereon by the Inspector General. The latter officer should keep a list of all persons thus qualified to become masters; stating their literary qualifications, their religion, and other particulars, according to which a selection might be made as vacancies occur.

On the subject of the funds for the purposes of Education, Your Committee beg to express their opinion, that the present provision is inadequate to the wants of the Province. They therefore respectfully recommend that a direct tax of three farthings in the pound should be appropriated to this purpose; and they feel assured that the blessings derived from the extension of education, which may be thus effected, will more than compensate for any additional pressure which may be felt.

The amount at present expended from the public funds for the purposes of Education is :

District Schools 14 at £100 each	£ 1400
Common Schools, annual grant	5850
Permanent provision for each district, £250	2500
Grant for Books	1500
	<hr/>
	11050

Assuming that a tax of three farthings in the pound will yield about £15000, there will be a sum of £25000 available for the purposes of Education, exclusive of what may be derived from interest on the funds arising from school lands, and from assistance given by the Council of Kings College for the use of Grammar Schools. Thus the whole amount of funds available for the purposes of Education would be :—

Common Schools.

Parliamentary Grant	£ 9300
Proceeds of tax	15000
	<hr/>
	24300

District Schools.

Parliamentary grant	1400
Interest on proceeds of School lands	720
Assistance from Council of King's College	
	<hr/>
	2120
	<hr/>
	£26420

ESTIMATE of the probable expenses of the system recommended.

Common Schools.

Interest on capital expended on School Houses say £300 a £200 each	£ 3600
300 Male Teachers £15 each	4500
300 Female do 10 "	3000
400 Itinerant do 20 "	8000
	<hr/>
	£19100

Grammar Schools.

On the plan recommended, the cost of each of these would probably be about £5000. The requisite funds might be provided from the proceeds of the School Lands (at present amounting to about £12,000) or half might be supplied from this source when the other half had been provided by shares.

	£19100
Interest on £3500, half the sum expended on 14 Grammar Schools	£ 210
14 Head Masters at £100	1400
14 Assistants at £50	700
	2310
	£21410

Management.

Inspector General	£ 300
Secretary of Central Board	200
14 District Inspectors	1400
Incidentals	600
	2500
	£23,910

Thus a balance remains of £2510, of which £1500 might be available for the endowment of Professorships in the proposed Theological Seminaries. The remainder being left unappropriated to meet the expences of the Normal School, and others which may not have been provided for in the details of the common school system, as compiling and printing.

It is well known that the chief difficulty in the way of a better system of education, consists in the inadequate remuneration of the teachers, and until this difficulty be removed it is vain to expect any improvement. The preceding plan proposes £51 per annum, with house and garden, as the yearly income to be allowed to the masters of common schools. This we think is too little, for it is below the wages of a mechanic. It is true that the plan contemplates the schools being taught by married men, whose wives might teach the female schools; but this would seldom happen, as a woman with a family would not be at liberty to take charge of a school. We think therefore that the libraries should not be provided from the teacher's fees, as proposed in the preceding plan, and by retaining this £12 the master's income would be £63 per annum, which is quite low enough if competent teachers are to be secured. School libraries, however, are necessary, but they should be provided from the proceeds of the assessment, (if it were made a penny in the pound for that purpose,) or in some other way, without encroaching on the master's salary.—It is probable that the master's houses and

school houses would be obtained for less than £300 each, the sum allowed for that object in the preceding plan, and thus a saving would be effected to be applicable to other purposes; for many existing school houses would be eligible with some improvement and additions to them. An appropriation of land which has been asked from the Crown, would also greatly aid the funds, and from this source large assistance would already have been attained if the school lands had not been diverted from their destined end. The establishment of a good system is now imperatively demanded, and the legislature at the coming session must take the subject up in earnest. With the wisest plan, and most efficient management, there will yet be many deficiencies in this country of scattered settlements and bad roads; but we have now reached a point at which we can no longer delay putting in force a better system of education than at present prevails among us, without subjecting ourselves to just reproach from the present generation, and from posterity. We know that there is a great aversion to taxation throughout the country, but it is impossible to have good education without adequate means, and whatever the people pay on this account will return to them in the increased intelligence, energy, (for knowledge is power) and prosperity of their common country, and therefore of their own comfort and wealth. If they will not sow the seed, they can never reap the harvest.

We close this article with the following extract from a Lecture on Education, delivered before the Mechanics' Institute of Halifax, Nova Scotia, by George R. Young, Esquire:—

I mean to touch upon that debateable question, the source of so much literary and political contention—*Whether the means of educating the mass of the people employed in this modern age of speculative reform, is likely to advance the happiness and morals—in short to ameliorate and brighten the destinies of mankind.*

The present era, justly distinguished as one of the golden ages of Literature, presents auspices totally different from any other which has preceded it. Voltaire in his introduction to 'Le Seicle de Louis XIV.' has classed these into four—the Alexandrian age, if I can so speak, of Grecian science and learning—the Augustan, in which Virgil and Horace flourished—the age of the De Medici, after the light burst through and dissipated the gloom of the dark ages—and that era in which the Courts of Louis XIV. and our own Queen Anne, were honoured by

such a galaxy of artists, poets, and philosophers. Blair, in his Lectures upon Rhetoric and the Belles-Lettres, has adopted the same division, and to the general reader it is familiar as household words. These four are distinguished from the present and the last in this grand and essential difference—that in all of them learning and literature were confined to the few, and forbidden and unknown to the many. The volume once sealed, is now unclasped and open. In the sublime manifestations of genius—in the refinement and concentrated energy of single minds, they may have surpassed us—but the altars upon which their votive offerings were hung, were hallowed only by their own presence, and a few chosen and appointed worshippers.

There is no modern epic, not even excepting Milton's Paradise Lost, which can match the Odyssey of Homer—no Orations in latter times could kindle the latent fires of the heart, whether of patriotism or indignant feeling, like the eloquent phillipics of Demosthenes, or the appeals of Cicero. Have we a Satirist equal to Horace in his knowledge of human character, graceful pleasantry, or barbed wit? Pope's essay on Man can bear no comparison with the Ars Poetica. The *Eneid* of Virgil has no competitor, and philosophy never produced a name of more deserved reverence than the divine Plato. And yet we know that in the era in which these, the illustrious, those truly 'illustrious dead,' flourished, the mass of the people were unlettered, and sunk in the lowest state of irreligious and social barbarism. The art of printing did not then exist, and the works of these men, the school boy books of the age—the cottage library of the peasantry of Iceland, Scotland, and the south west coast of Ireland, were elaborated upon ponderous tablets of wax, or engraved upon costly rolls of papyrus, known and accessible only to a few. The Grecian and Roman authors published their works by public readings at the Olympic Games in Greece, and in the Forum at Rome—they were comparatively unknown beyond their precincts, unheard of in the provinces, and their illumination, instead of brightening the general mind, shed an intense and brilliant light upon a narrow circle of admirers.

The learning of the middle ages had an influence upon the people scarcely more comprehensive or effective. The Goths and Vandals, when they issued from their northern fastnesses, and invaded the territories of the South, trampling down in their march every trace of civilization, temples, triumphal arches, the noblest specimens of Sculpture, mutilating the architectural glories of Athens, and sacking even Imperial Rome herself, expelled philosophy, literature and the arts, to Asia Minor and the countries of the East. There they were preserved and cherished. When their barbarous dominion had passed away—when Italy rose into a body of Republics—when the spirit

of the Crusades and of Commerce created a closer intercourse between Europe and Asia, the sciences and arts were recalled; and when planted again upon a congenial soil, they rapidly advanced to their former excellence. In this era we have Ariosto, Tasso, Erasmus, Michael Angelo, Raphael and Titian, but these men produced rather inheritances for posterity than any fountain of intellectual wealth at which the people drank freely. Learning then was shut up in the cell and college. The ancient authors, treasured up in costly manuscripts, were familiar only to the fathers, the *litterarum docti*. The finest talents of the age were devoted to the metaphysical subtleties of the schools, or to the profound, though perplexing investigations of theological controversy.—These were investigations far above the reach of the common mind. The feudal system reigned in all its plenitude and rigour. The peasantry were called villains or slaves. They were adscripti glebæ. Michaeliavel wrote then his 'Prince.' The benefit of Clergy was introduced into the English code of Criminal law as an inducement that the monks and the laity might learn to read; and if such were the humble qualification required for the Teacher, it is apparent the primer could not be common amongst his flock.

The fourth era alluded to in this division, the age of Louis the XIV. of France, and Queen Anne and William in England, exhibited indications of improvement. Louis, although ignorant himself, though so little indebted to the schools that he could scarce subscribe his own name, and certainly could neither have dictated a state paper, nor written a letter correct in its orthography, was a magnificent patron of learning and the arts, and held out that encouragement to genius, which, divine as it is, is not without its effect. France never was more distinguished for her Poets, Philosophers, and Generals—for by military authors it is doubted whether even the trained Marshals of Buonaparte, Soult, Junot, or McDonald, were superior to the Conde, or Turenne, of Louis Le Grand. There were Corneille, Richilieu, Moliere, Racine, Fenelon, Massillon, Bourdaloue, all names who stand in the van of talented men. In England the glories of the age were founded upon the reputation of men to whom even these were not superior. There were Newton and Boyle in philosophy—Milton and Pope in verse—Burnett in the church—Temple and Addison in general literature—Hale and Holt in the law—Clarendon and Bolingbroke, as Statesmen. To Englishmen no recollections can furnish food for nobler pride, and yet if we refer to the contemporary historians of the period, it will be seen, that the *peasans* of France in these days were a simple, untaught race, chained in the deepest ignorance, and alive to the grossest superstition. The peasantry of England in their order of intelligence, were scarcely more advanced. I might quote,

upon this point, if I had space, some curious passages from historians of the age. The great body of the people in the country, and of the poorer classes in the towns, were destitute of the simplest elementary education. They could not read even their bibles. Trials for witchcraft were then not infrequent—Chief Justice Holt, in the reign of James II, conducted no less than twelve. The power of fortune-telling was as much confided in as revelation. Hale, when Chief Justice, did not deny the gift of supernatural powers; and Johnson, half a century posterior, during his visit to the Highlands, became a convert to the doctrine of 'second sight.'

I come now to the present, and to the last. In the march of mind, in the useful triumphs of genius—in the general spread of education and of intelligence—how far, how immeasurably far does this surpass any former age of knowledge. ['*Enriches des decouvertes detrois (four) autres,*' says Voltaire, '*il a plus fait en certain genres que les trois fou ensemble.*'] It is difficult to delineate the line of demarcation between the fourth and the present—for, from Milton, Newton, and Addison, up to the era of Byron, Herschel, and Scott, there seems no break in the line of illustrious men. This age of literary achievement may be dated from the time of Hume, Gibbon, and Robertson; all of whom imparted a more masculine and nervous vigour to the national style and eloquence.

But the earliest manifestations of the concentrated genius of the age were exhibited in the publication of the Edinburgh Review, the bright precursor of that host of competitors which have since given to learning and criticism their popular efficacy and influence. I might easily dilate upon the inspiration which the exciting events of the American and French Revolutions, had upon the intellect of Europe. The first fired the oratory of Chatham, and since the days of Demosthenes, never did the potent spell of eloquence charm up so glorious a band of worshippers—Pitt, Fox, Sheridan, Burke, Erskine, Canning and O'Connell. The mantle of the classics seemed to have descended upon them. The greatest historians of modern times, who may justly be contrasted with Herodotus, Thucydides, Tacitus, and Livy, were of this period. Adam Smith followed out the crude and immature conceptions of the French Economists, and laid the foundation of that noble science of Political Economy, which must eventually form the basis of all just and enlightened legislation. Herschel pursued the discoveries of Halley and Newton until he has widened the limits of our planetary system, and extended beyond all former estimate, the boundaries of visible and peopled space. Poetry has assumed a nobler, more useful, because a simpler range. Criticism has become more practical and healthy. The Novel deals with men and the events of life, and less with fancy and wild

romance. By the genius of Scott it has been moulded into its most perfect form, and now blends the learning of history and the influence of morals, with the graces of the imagination. Add to this the improvement in the metaphysical sciences, effected by Reid, Stewart, Brown and Abercrombie—the discoveries in Chemistry, elaborated by Lavoisier, Davy, and Faraday: the Science of Watt; the labours of Cuvier and Lyell in Geology and Fossil bones; the calculating machine of Babbage, the Locomotive Engines of Stephenson, the pious light which has been cast by Paley and Roget on Vegetable Physiology—the application of steam to spinning and weaving—the progress made in the science of agriculture—the innumerable discoveries in the circle of the practical arts, founded upon chemical analyses; and it will, I think, be readily conceded, that no former age had a tithe of the glory appertaining to this.

But this age is chiefly remarkable, and it is on this point of superiority, and the bearing it has upon our present argument, I now press it upon the notice of the Institute, *in the care it has extended to the education of the people.*—The system pursued in colleges has been modernized, and their ancient privileges invaded and broken down, so as to open their portals, and extend their benefits to less exclusive classes. Schools have been multiplied, and the classics and popular sciences taught to those to whom before they were unknown and inaccessible. The Minister of Education forms an important member of the Cabinet in every popular government. A liberal quota of the public funds is placed at his disposal. France, Prussia, the Russian Autocrat, England, and America, pursue with common zeal, this noble course of national advancement. Reform has thus reached and recast the learning of the schools—but the effort of improvement, the march of intellect, is chiefly to be traced in the '*education of circumstances,*' to which the popular mind is subjected. I allude to the number of Periodicals and Newspapers published and circulated—the innumerable host of volumes issuing from the Press in the form of Cabinet Cyclopedias, Family Libraries, &c., under the patronage of Societies for the '*Diffusion of Useful Knowledge,*' which are intended to bring science and literature within the reach and means of the middle orders; the establishment of Societies for the learned, and of Mechanics' Institutes for the artizans and operative classes; and lastly, the publication of those Journals and Penny Magazines, which, in their philosophy and literary execution, when contrasted with the cheapness of their price, are such honourable trophies to the genius and art of the age. Chambers has now secured a weekly circulation of 100,000, and the London Penny Magazine 270,000. These two sheets have a more important effect in advancing the general intelligence in a week than all the liter-

ture of the age of Queen Anne could effect in a year. In France and Germany the same sort of publications have immense circulation.— [Here Mr. Y. exhibited a great variety of these foreign publications, of which he had procured specimens, explaining their objects, history and price.] And yet with these obvious improvements in society—in the advance of the sciences—in the arts—in the number of publications in their triple form of volumes, periodicals, and newspapers—in the increased intelligence of the people—in the accumulation of private and public wealth—there exist certain classes who pretend that mankind are retrograding, and that in religion and all the elements of social virtue and happiness, our destinies are less propitious even than in former ages,—and thus they attribute to the spread of education! *It is to this 'grave argument' we have now to address ourselves.*

I press the opinion with no improper tendency, but it seems to speak little either for the divine influence of Religion, or for the devotion of its Ministers, if it suffer from the spread of intelligence, and do not impart, amid the light of learning, a more apostolic odour and sanctity of character to its followers. Its doctrines were never so widely disseminated, and the altar of the true God never encircled by such a crowd of worshippers, as at the present time.— And yet is there less virtue, less charity, is the golden rule of morals more openly violated, and vice more daring and avowed now than in the past ages of history? I ask the proof, for it seems to me, apart from general declamation—that abstract reasoning, as well as the experience of mankind, support an opposite conclusion. The whole tone and essence of divine faith is favourable to intelligence, and courts the spirit of unsparing enquiry. It seeks no shelter from the boldest and sternest investigation. A religion divine, and intended to be universal—to be permanent—enduring—fixed upon the rock of ages, and the same from the days of the Apostles to the end of time, never can dread the subtlest enquiries of that spirit which it is meant to address, to animate, to soften, and to control. I cannot comprehend the doctrine of Channing, who would impart to it a plastic character, the power of yielding to the pressure of change and circumstance, for as it is true truth is eternal, and the essence of morality must be the same in the last age as in this. But is not the Bible itself a “fountain of living waters”, of wisdom and philosophy? The perfection, the benevolence—the omnipotence of the Deity, are shadowed forth and dwelt upon in the wonders of the firmament—the beauty of the earth—and the moving of the great waters. The extent of divine power is measured by the things of the earth—‘he layeth the beams of his chamber on the water, he maketh the clouds his chariot, he walketh upon the wings of the wind;’ Psalm 104. The pi-

ety of believers is inspired by a reference to the manifestation of the supreme intelligence visible in the productions of the natural world. The abuse of knowledge—the tendency of shallow thinking—prompted by an unholy and feverish ambition, may create doubt, disbelief, and the propagation of erring creeds, but the spirit of sound philosophy, blending itself with the love of truth, brings new arguments to support that faith, which is founded upon revelation. It affords one of the noblest fields for eloquence upon which the disciples of Christianity delight to expatiate, that the most profound moral philosophers—Barrow—Locke—Newton—Boyle—Herschel—Davy—those who have penetrated the arcana of Nature, who have reached the loftiest pinnacles of those eternal hills of Truth and Science which human genius has yet ascended, and thus surveyed, in its comprehensive and illimitable range—the connection of matter and mind—the obedience, if I may so speak, of the *physical effect*, to the *Divine Cause*—have been the most pious and humble believers. It is the proudest boast of the present age that philosophy has been the handmaid of Religion. Let any Sceptic sit down and study, with the desire of attaining the truth, Paley's Natural Theology, Dick's Christian Philosopher, Shuttlesworth's Consistency of Revelation, the last days of a Dying Philosopher, by Davy, and that splendid addition to pious learning, the Bridgewater Treatises, and he will then be convinced that the cultivation of science and general knowledge is not hostile to the Christian faith.

Brougham in his late work upon Natural Theology, has laboured to shew that the existence of the Deity, his power, omniscience, benevolence, can be proved by inductive reasoning with the same certainty as mathematical truths. All nature indicates a design—contrivance—aptitude—simple in execution, but elaborately philosophical in conception. Take for example the late discoveries in astronomy. Stars have been discovered so distant in space that the rays of light which they emit, and which fall upon the lens of the Telescope, must have been four thousand years in their passage. Three millions of Comets are now supposed to pursue their eccentric revolutions in the universe; all those known are diminishing in magnitude,—whence this law of change?—what purpose do they serve in this magnificent creation of worlds? That of Encke's is gradually approaching the sun, and must eventually either fall into it or be dissipated by its intense heat. The relative distances of the Planets in our own system have been found to be ranged in geometrical proportion. What power has disturbed the series between Mars and Jupiter, and broke the intervening planet into four smaller? How boundless—how imposing is the range of these enquiries. What conceptions of the supreme intelligence do they create—how fa-

avourable to humility—to piety—to yearnings towards Heaven!

The spread of education is indeed unfavourable to superstition—to the distinctions of form, to systems which under religious pretences build up an Order and a Church, who grasp at an undue return of wealth and power, but it must ultimately advance the revival, and cherish and propagate the virtuous and charitable tendencies of that Religion, whose whole essence is love and charity. Between the beginning and the end—the school and the College—the primer and the philosophy of the system of general education, there may be objects who doubt and avow their disbelief; but the desert will be passed and the promised land reached at last.' The restless uneasiness of doubt leads to speculation and inquiry. Inquiry conducts to truth. The French Revolution has advanced beyond all calculation the science of general politics. In its efforts upon Religion the hand of Providence is perhaps no less visible. England has been saved from the same race of butchery and crime. Philosophy has awoken from her temporary dream of atheism. The effect of education—of institutes—and of popular publications have reformed but not destroyed—the change in some of its workings has been abrupt and inconsistent, but Cebbett and Thistlewood, and Owen, have found no mass who could be incited to the work of destruction. The same causes are at work in the Church. Her altars may be robbed of their splendour—her Clergy limited in their means—but though individuals may suffer for a time, and the sympathies of society through them be wounded—the divine spirit of Religion will shine forth, we trust, thrice purified from the ordeal, society be knit together by stronger bands, and government rest upon more enduring pillars.

Whatever may be our political sympathies, it is in vain to oppose the march of mind. It sweeps on direct, certain, irresistible! Like the waves of the sea, it will beat upon the shore, and drown in its surge the inopotent and royal behest of Canute. Opposition is foolishness—but it is wise to control and direct—to meet its earlier manifestations—to yield to its demands, ere these become clamorous and extravagant. To educate is thus to christianize, and to propagate Christianity is to offer the noblest services which man can render to his Maker.

But let me ask what are the true—the legitimate objects of existence—the honourable labours of life, leading to an honourable end. Is it to be content with a faith which our reason cannot comprehend—to be bound up within that circle of duties, which the single profession or pursuit we are compelled to select as the source of a livelihood create, prescribed to live as if each day and year were the first and the last?

No, we are taught there are an immortality and old age—that there is a coming season for rest—reflection—preparation for the tomb.—Why not extend to learning and education the same maxims of worldly wisdom which we apply to the acquisition of fortune. It is necessary, say the sages of the world, in the morning, in the strength and energy of life, to husband our means—to economise—to lay up a competence for sickness—adversity—for old age.—'Approaching age itself,' says Bulwer in one of his essays in the Student, 'we ought to have less need of Economy. Nature recoils from the Miser, coining mammon with one hand, while death plucks him by the other. We should provide for our age, in order that our age may have no urgent wants of the world to absorb it from the meditations of the next. It is awful to see the lean hands of dotage making a coffer of the grave.' Why not apply, I ask, the same reasoning to the acquisition of learning—to the fortune of new ideas, the solacing reminiscences—the glorious conceptions which it garners up.

There is a period in every man's life, when the active duties of the world—its pomp and busy bustle become distasteful to him. No one is exempt from sickness and physical debility. What resources has he then—what availeth even the gifts of fortune—if he cannot derive pleasure from books, and that cheering and enlightened companionship they afford. With thee he can then summon to the couch, the Poets, the Philosophers, the Historians of all past time, and although fixed to one narrow and darkened chamber, lying perhaps incapable of motion, may revel in all the treasures of the mind—whether gathered up in the stately and solemn temples of philosophy, or spread abroad in the walks of the Muses. If happiness be in the mind and not in circumstance, how far superior is such a power to the mere possession—the brief and passing consequence of wealth—the 'dignity of dollars,' as tauntingly stigmatized by Canning. How often have all of us seen the gloom of the sick bed brightened by those rays of cheerfulness, which are imparted by religious devotion,—but even its pleasures are rendered purer, and the ardour it inspires more fervid, if philosophy and learning can be brought to its aid.

Sickness is accidental—but old age we cannot avoid. Without learning and without books it is a prison-house, created and darkened by imbecility. Less potent in the world, we become less necessary and less courted. The more dependent we become upon the pleasures of society and conversation, we find, alas, we are the more avoided and shunned. How searing to a generous heart is the impassive coldness—the icy selfishness of the world! The affections of children may then draw them around us—but these predilections do not ex-

tend to the circle of our *sel.* We are less yielding, and less fitted for the forms, the courtesies and the throng of fashion, and prefer the quiet and intellectual converse enjoyed with friendly and kindred minds. How few are the hours of each day that can be thus devoted, and to what resources can we turn if we have not books and their store of pleasant reflections.—How miserable—how querulous—how painful to itself is an ignorant old age, wasted in impotent repinings or in worthless trifles—what an inglorious termination to a manhood of useful activity. And yet how bright and cheerful and Godlike may an intelligent and reverend old age be made. None of Cicero's productions display so much the philosophy of his mind—the purity of his religion and his intentions, as his treatise, '*De Senectute.*' In it he has recorded the hopes which inspired him. '*Quod si in hoc erro, quid animos hominum immortales esse credam, libenter erro, nec mihi hunc errorem, quo delector, dum vivo, extorqueri volo*'—a proof he had passed beyond the mythology of his era. What a charm has he thrown around the occupations of venerable age, and how eloquently does he recommend the pursuits of philosophy and the study of the Grecian letters. Cumano in his *Essay upon Temperance* has illustrated the same subject with a captivating, because practical eloquence. It is a thesis alike instructive in this, as in the Augustan or any previous age. To read, to learn, to lay up the treasures of knowledge is as useful a duty with a view to the happy close of this life as to the enjoyment of the next. The soul dies not. Some believe its powers, its capacities, its aptitude in acquiring and in contemplation will pass with itself to immortality, and if we are to mingle in the society of superior natures, will we not enjoy in these regions of bliss and of enlarged contemplation, when the glory of the Universe will have burst upon us in its sublimer mysteries, and the pleasures of sense are at an end, a more exquisite enjoyment according to the intellectual grasp with which we can measure, comprehend, and admire them. This idea is curiously illustrated in the life of Crabbe, by his Son. 'He had a notion, perhaps somewhat whimsical, that we shall be gainers in a future state by the cultivation of the intellect, and always affixed a sense of this nature, also, to the more important meaning of the word 'talents' in the parable; and this stimulus doubtless increased his avidity for knowledge, at a period when such study was of little use besides the amusement of the present hour.' p. 297.

In a personal and worldly point of view, there is this marked distinction between the acquisition of wealth and the pursuits of learning.—The one sharpens our worldly knowledge, the tact, the cunning and hypocrisy of our souls.—We learn to deal better with other men, to speculate with more sagacity, to sell, and buy,

and barter upon more favourable terms. But while this sharpens, it also hardens the mind, contracts and deadens its nobler sympathies, and puts the heart under the tightest reins of a calculating judgment. Men may sometimes acquire a fortune by an adventitious chance and lucky speculation—but this is the exception, not the rule. In the larger majority of cases, wealth is amassed by a rigorous attention to petty details, to little savings, to an unceasing purveying about trifles, nothings apparently in themselves, but which add insensibly to the common heap. It requires attention as unbroken as it is selfish. Money becomes the alpha and omega, the altar and god of the soul. There may be no abandonment of principle, no dereliction of honesty, all the gains may be fair and honourable, but there are few seasons of yielding to the confiding, generous, and charitable tendencies. In this engrossing and exclusive pursuit comes the habits which accumulated it. Men cannot change their natures as they may wish. The old leaven clings to them, it cannot be cast off. Gold in such men's estimation becomes the standard of worth.—They value other men, not by their temper, their character, their talent, but by their thousands, and capability of acquisition. And yet how many examples do we see of men who have earned an honourable competence, with unblemished name, and who now are looked up to in our community as the first in every charitable enterprise, as kind and amiable in private life, and respected for their intellectual attainments, for their sagacity, good faith and honor. To many of them, as a younger man, I look up with respect and attachment. I argue not against wealth, for unless men accumulated it, science and literature would become torpid, and want the 'countenance of patrons,' and the leisure they require. I protest only against its being made the 'grand end' for which we live and die. I speak not so much from experience, or what I have seen, as from abstract views of human nature, and the monitions I have gathered from books.

The tendency of education is just the opposite. It improves, it expands, it ennobles the mind. An intelligent man may be equally industrious in acquiring wealth, but it is with a different view, and for a different end. He feels he has a consequence in society, he can command and ensure respect, by his powers of conversation, by his intellectual standing, independent of his income or balance at the bank, which, according to Bulwer, is now the true standard of English respectability. He has another empire than the stock exchange. He has not the heaps of gold, but he has that diviner and nobler wealth of mind, which, although intangible, is inseparable; and which only wastes and perishes with the decay and darkness of the mind itself.

Every step in intellectual advancement, the mastery of every new branch of literature, or science, while it adds to knowledge, extends the view to a wider and unknown sphere. Ignorance may shield itself with dogmatism and presumption, but the learned man is never opinionative—he is willing to listen and be informed. Paley and Newton never attacked an adversary—Scott never answered a critique.—The surest proof of advancing wisdom is the growing consciousness that we know less. The Earl of Chatham told his son Pitt, after he had finished the course of the schools, that he had yet *all* to learn, and that he would require to read an Encyclopedia. No insinuation could be more severe, and yet it was just. There is this further distinction between money and learning, that we cannot impart the one to others without lessening our old stock, but we may give freely of the last, and that which remains will be undiminished and purified. Communion polishes intelligent minds. Without books society becomes a continuation of business—a conversation upon the transactions of the day, or it descends to the fortunes and the foibles of our friends. Then comes satire and the ready censure, the uncharitable construction of conduct. We cannot speak praises always, soft and dulcet sounds offend by the very sweetness of their harmony, the most sensitive and delicately attuned ear. If we talk continually about other men, the tongue will dip itself in the bitter of scandal, and the mind catch the darkening hues of sarcasm. Philosophy and the temper and disposition it creates, shrinks from such topics, retains to its own fair and ideal world. A knowledge of books gives to character a new amiability, to society a fresher and holier charm. Exceptions there are, but this is the rule. No man therefore who regards his own happiness—the part he is to play in the world's stage—the charms of domestic life—his standing in the social circle—his capability of receiving or imparting enjoyment to others, ought to despise the graces of learning and of philosophy, for without them he is barren of the most affluent sources of social enjoyment, and with them he is independent of fortune and circumstance. D'Israeli has written a curious chapter upon the literary labours of authors, while placed in confinement. Charles I. wrote the 'Icon Basilike' during his imprisonment at Holmsby. Sir Walter Raleigh never discovered the force and impress of his own genius until the fickle Queen had consigned him to the Tower. His elaborate History of the World was there designed and perfected. The *Henriade* of Voltaire, and the 'Pilgrim's Progress' of Bunyan, were both composed under similar circumstances. Don Quixotte was written by Cervantes to brighten a period of captivity.—When Horne Tooke was threatened with imprisonment for his political offences, he said, 'give me light, books, and my pen, and I care not how soon you close the doors of the dun-

geon upon me.' Wakefield, who is publishing now a new edition of the *Wealth of Nations*, wrote his *England and America in Newgate*, and Cobbett produced also his admirable *essays of Paper against Gold*. Beranger is at this hour delighting France with his national songs, although the inmate of a cell, through the tyranny of Louis Phillippe. Thus does the mind rise superior to situation by the fertility of its own revelations, and bring the 'landscapes of thought' bright and admirable as they are, to give variety and enjoyment to solitude. But let it not be supposed that I wish to cast my undeserved odium upon the disposition of mind and habits which leads to accumulation. Far be it from my purpose to convey any personal discontent. Some of the richest men I have ever known, have been the most generous and amiable. All I wish to point out is, the fallacy and fruitlessness of a *too* exclusive pursuit of it, of making the acquisition of money a sordid occupation. Fortune to a certain extent is essential, and it ought to be the ambition of every man to acquire it, but let not the means be made the end, so as to sacrifice in its attainment those more rational acquisitions which give to their possessor dignity and enjoyment. I wish not to place the spirit of accumulation and the love of books as opposite and conflicting aptitudes or principles, for I intend now to reason out the proposition, that the best educated and most intelligent nations have been, in all past ages, the most industrious and wealthy.

In the age of Alexander the arts and sciences had reached their zenith in Athens, and at that time the Piereus was crowded with a vast and busy commercial marine. Never before or since did the *Ægean Sea* or *Archipelago* exhibit a scene of such active and prosperous commerce. The Romans never were an industrious or commercial people, and hence they furnish no analogy for the present argument. In the Augustan and golden age, they prosecuted trade,—but Rome was only a *depot* for the productions of the Provinces, and was itself the *situs* of exchange. The Italian Republics, in the middle ages, when literature and eloquence were ripe amongst them, were the store-houses of Europe, many of the practical arts and manufactures were carried to a high perfection, and in silks and in steel they were unrivalled.

The Genoese blade in the age of chivalry was famed for the battle-field and tournament. In Venice, where Tasso dwelt and Dante sung, a Bank was first established. The Lombards invented the *bill of exchange*. The inhabitants of the low countries, when famed for their fairs and manufactories and the extent of their commerce with the East, had the reputation of being a shrewd, sagacious, and highly intelligent nation. The struggles and heroism they displayed under Wm. of Orange, in the reigns of the Phillips, evinces their order of mind, by the just appreciation in which they held their

constitutional liberties. England and France have enjoyed a pre-eminence in science and literature—in none from the earliest times have the arts and commerce been more perseveringly and successively prosecuted. In the present age, those nations famed for the best systems of education, enjoy a reputation equally high for perseverance in the accumulation of national wealth. Scotland now inhabited by the most intelligent and industrious people in the kingdom, perhaps in the world, were, until the time of the Union and the introduction of Parochial Schools, brave, it is true, but idle and superstitious. Prussia, where the best system of popular education on the Continent is now organized, is taking the lead in the career of national manufactures. The Swiss Cantons, famed for their intelligence, are alike distinguished for their advancement in agriculture and manufactures. The New England States, the best educated in the Union, are bee-hives of commercial speculation and persevering industry; and I pass from this branch of the argument without further reference or illustration, as I regard these views as only embodying an admitted axiom in the science of general politics.

The last paragraph as standing in contrast to the one which preceded it, has been introduced for that reason only, out of its natural order. I intended to dilate further upon the effects of learning, in mellowing the heart and manners—in giving to life an enthusiasm and poetic embellishment—in lending, in the words of Irving, 'to the stars music, and to the flowers eloquence'—but I refrain and pass to graver and more practical illustration.

Of all classes of society none have so deep an interest in the spread of learning and civilization as females. In rude states of society they are the slaves rather than the companions of their lords. Amongst our own Indians the wife is reduced to the most laborious and menial offices. Amongst the French in Cape Breton and Dutch in Lunenburg, they are subjected to labour, requiring the severest muscular exertion. In our fishing settlements they are the cultivators of the soil, they plant, reap and hoe, bear the barrow and raise the fish pile—all labours useful and necessary in themselves, but

scarce fitted for the slighter frame and delicacy of woman. In these she neither occupies her proper station, nor exercises her virtuous and softening influences upon society. As education and civilization advance, her position in the social scale is elevated. She is confined to the duties of domestic life, and becomes the Queen of her household. In place of the servant she is raised to be the friend and the companion of her partner, she shares his good and evil fortune—brightens success and softens adversity. It becomes her above all others to be the patroness and friend of education. It elevates her consequence and extends her dominion. Nor does she fail amply to repay the privileges and dignity thus conferred. How much of the national virtues are dependant upon the gentler sex. They mould the tone of general manners, and render man virtuous or otherwise at their will. They exercise a secret but resistless influence. No system or individual can stand up against their ban. How many domestic kingdoms are ruled by a Catharine de Medicis, whose agency is never seen,—but it is fortunate for one Catharine there are ten Portias and ten Cornelias. They soften, purify, exalt,—they enforce a charity and mildness into the intercourse of society, and come to control and heal those conflicts of the evil passions, into which men, however prudent, if forced into the tide of the world, are involved. But the influence of the sex is chiefly felt in their capacity as mothers. To them belongs the early development of the mind,—the formation of the character or habits. They have the modelling of the wax while it is ductile and freely inclined—they may inspire to patriotism or degrade to selfishness—make religion an element of character, or a thing to be scoffed—teach virtue, or sow the seeds of vice—compel industry or suffer idleness and inattention. The household under their dominion is either a heaven or a hell. The higher their elevation in the social scale, the more kindly they are treated, their influences are inspired with nobler inducements; and hence if education exalts them, and they, from the position to which they are elevated, shed down more benign and kindlier auspices, it is equally their interest, and the interest of society, to spread among them the gifts of intellectual improvement.

AGRICULTURAL PROTECTING DUTY.

No. III.

This subject continues to engross a large share of public attention. It was thought by some persons that this topic was merely used for electioneering purposes, but it is certain that there is a general conviction in the minds of our agriculturists, that they ought to be protected from foreign competition in the provincial markets, as well as have their produce admitted into the English market free of duty. We have already explained that this desired protection in the provincial market would prove to a great extent nugatory, inasmuch as all the protection in the world would not give high prices in plentiful seasons, and we referred for proof to the nature of the case, and to the prices when a protecting duty was in force in Upper Canada. To the last it has been replied, that the argument from those prices is fallacious, because there was no protecting duty in Lower Canada at the same time, and American produce was imported there as heretofore, and kept prices down to its own level. This remark would be correct if the prices of Lower Canada alone had been referred to. If the proof had been drawn solely from Lower Canada, then the fact that there was no protecting duty there at the time would of course overturn the argument. But the proof was taken from the prices in Upper Canada with a protecting duty, and therefore the reply does not touch the argument at all. There were no importations into Upper Canada from any quarter, and yet the prices were so low that flour was sold in Kingston market for 12s. 6d. per barrel, and at that price for account, not for cash, demonstrating beyond contradiction, that a protecting duty is of no avail in plentiful seasons. Its true operation and real value is in seasons of scarcity, when it enables the farmer to obtain better prices, and thereby compensates him for the deficient quantity of his produce. Suppose that in ordinary years he grows 400 bushels of wheat, and sells it at 5s. per bushel, it brings him £100. Then, suppose in a failing harvest he can obtain only 300 bushels; if he could sell this at 6s. 3d. per bushel, it would bring him £93 15s., so that he

would receive within £6 5s. of his ordinary income. But suppose that foreign importations now came into play, and kept the price of wheat down to 5s. per bushel, the farmer would then lose about £20 by the conjoint operation of a failing crop and foreign importations. The former without the latter would not have injured him much, because prices would have risen in proportion; but when the price of a short crop is kept down to the price of a full crop by importations from abroad, the farmer complains that he is ruined by the system, which has no compensating power to make up for deficient quantity by better prices.

On the other hand it is vain for the farmer to expect by any system to obtain high prices in plentiful seasons, nor should he expect them, because the deficiency in price is more than made up by the surplus quantity. Suppose that the quantity of land which ordinarily produces 400 bushels, should some seasons produce 600, and prices were down to 3s. 9d. per bushel; the farmer would call this a bad price, and complain of hard times; yet 600 bushels at 3s. 9d. would produce £112 10s. which is more than his ordinary income by fifty dollars. It is probable that the extra labor of harvesting, thrashing, and bringing to market this extra quantity, would equal this difference, yet he would obtain at all events his usual income.— It is vain for the farmer to expect uniformity of price, because he cannot command uniformity of seasons. If the produce of one year doubles that of another, the demand continuing the same, prices will naturally fall nearly one half. The only way to prevent this is by storing the produce of plentiful years, against years of scarcity, and this but few farmers in Canada are able to do. A protecting duty would benefit the farmer in seasons of scarcity, and to impose one would be a popular measure, but in other respects it would not answer the expectations of its supporters.

A doubt has been expressed that Canada has, on the aggregate, any surplus produce for exportation, but this was sufficiently proved by

the large exportations of wheat from Canada to the United States during two years.

We have seen in some quarters a very erroneous view of the principle of protection to domestic industry. It has been regarded as merely a tax on one part of the community for the benefit of another, without any countervailing advantage to the former. If this were the case, the principle would indeed be of doubtful justice or policy, although even in this case the objection would have but little application to the protection of Canadian agriculture, because those who are engaged in it form nearly the whole of the community, seven-eighths of the whole population. Therefore if their protection did operate as a tax on the other part of the community, without any compensating benefit whatever, yet the interest of the larger number is to be preferred to that of the smaller, especially where the latter is so inconsiderable a part of the whole. There is also another difference between agriculture in Canada and in England, that in the latter, land is chiefly rented to farmers, and as the excessive competition keeps rents up to the highest point at which the farmer can manage to live, any benefit to him amounts to, or is in fact, a benefit to his landlord, for he constantly raises his rents as the prices of farming produce rise. But in Canada there are no rented farms worth mentioning. Every man farms his own land, and therefore any benefit to agriculture is a direct benefit to the farmer himself, instead of to a rich landlord who does not need it. Therefore if the objection were valid, it would not apply here, where we have no interest to set up against the agricultural.

But the objection rests on a misconception of the nature and grounds of protection to domestic industry. It is protection against *foreign* competition, and it is founded on this principle, that it is for the common national advantage to have each separate national interest in a prosperous state, just as it is for the advantage of the human body and of each individual member to have every separate member in a healthy and vigorous state. If any national interest be depressed, the depression extends to every other interest; but if it be prosperous, they share that prosperity, because the better that branch of industry is rewarded, the more of its profits are expended on the other branches, and thus if they pay by protective duties an extra price for any

article, they receive an equivalent therefor in extra sales of their products to the producers of that article. If the extra price caused by protective duties was hoarded up, then the objection to them would apply; but while it is dispersed abroad and returned in various ways to the very persons who pay it, by the increased supplies purchased by those who received it, the protection is not given for the sake of the protected branch alone, but for the common benefit of the whole community. The only exceptions to this are, either when the protection is excessive, and therefore cannot give any countervailing advantage to the other branches of the national industry; or when an attempt is made to counteract the laws of nature, by fostering some employment to which the climate, soil, or genius of the people is not congenial.—Of the first class was the late tariff of the United States; and of the second would be an attempt to promote the growth of silk in Canada.

Protection is necessary in the infancy of all States, or modes of employment, in order to enable them to advance against matured foreign competition. It is well known that an old merchant with large capital and extensive connexions, can always undersell a young beginner with but little capital and all his connexions to form; and so it is with nations. When any branch of industry has become matured in one country, those who follow it can always undersell in the markets of another country those who are but beginning to establish it there, natural advantages being supposed about equal in the two cases. It is said, we know, that if foreigners were allowed to import their goods or produce free, they would purchase others in exchange; but this argument is fallacious, because, although the foreigner might purchase one or two articles in exchange for his imports, still, the home manufacturer or producer purchases all his supplies in the home market, and the difference between them is therefore as one to five hundred. The true policy of nations, on this head, is the same as that of individuals or families, namely, to purchase nothing from others that they can produce themselves. The exception to this rule is when there is no natural facility for producing, for if we have to contend against nature, then, indeed, protection is vain and impolitic. Protection should not be made a kind of hot-house, to produce what

nature has denied. We may assist nature, but not bid her defiance, for this would be an expensive job to all parties. It is quite possible to expend protection unwisely in vain efforts to overcome natural disadvantages, but, with this exception, protection is necessary to all infant communities and branches of industry, in order to guard them from foreign competition.

In reply to this, it has been said that the English cotton manufacture grew up without protection. It did, and for a very good reason; it had no competition, and therefore needed no protection. The cotton manufacturers had none to oppose them. There was not a yard of cotton made in Europe but by themselves.—There was a little imported from the East, but too little to affect them. They could from the beginning charge their own prices, and thus protect themselves. In this case all that they required was to be let alone. But how does it happen that those who refer to the cotton manufacture have entirely forgotten how the woollen manufacture was established? It is well known that in the early ages English wool was exported to the continent of Europe, there manufactured into cloth, and then returned to the English market; and the English woollen manufacture was established solely by being protected from this foreign competition by a duty of 20 per cent on foreign cloth, and afterwards by its being prohibited altogether. In 1338 (Edward III.) it was enacted that no wool of English growth should be for the future transported beyond sea, and that all cloth-workers should be received, from whatever foreign parts they came, and encouraged. It was also ordained, that none should wear any clothes made beyond sea, except the king, queen, and their children; also that none should wear foreign furs and silks, unless he was worth £100 per annum. In consequence of this encouragement, in 1340, Thomas Blanket, and some other inhabitants of Bristol, set up looms in their own houses for weaving those woollen cloths which yet bear that name. In 1463, (Edward IV.) the importation of woollen cloths, laces, and ribbons, and other articles manufactured in England, was strictly forbidden. In 1668, (Charles II.) one Brewer, with about fifty Walloons, who wrought and dyed fine woollen cloths, came into England, and instructed the English in their manufactory, which enabled them to sell forty per cent cheaper than they could be-

fore. The English woollen manufacture, then, was fostered by protection and prohibition, without which it could not have been established at all, having from the first to contend with a matured foreign competition; but the cotton manufacture, on the contrary, had to encounter no competition. The opposite circumstances required opposite treatment.

If any country in the world can safely abandon all protection to its domestic industry, that country is England; for her manufactures are so matured, and her capital and skill so great, that she might safely proclaim free trade with all nations, were it not for the drawback of heavy taxation. If she had no national debt, and her taxes were confined to meet the current expenses of her government, her other advantages would enable her to compete with every other nation to profit. And even as it is, many political economists believe that she can do so, and should abolish all protecting duties. If this opinion be correct, still, there is a vast difference between an old country full of capital, and a young land destitute of it. What may be sound policy in the one case, may be the very reverse in the other. An indiscriminate application of general rules or principles, often produces much mischief.

The principle of protection being, then, required for every infant community or process that has to encounter foreign competition, the case of the Canadian agriculturist we conceive to be this. Settled in a new country, nearly destitute of capital, and having to contend with numerous difficulties, the full power of which none can know but those who endure them, he requires protection from foreign competition in the chief produce of his labour. How that protection may be best afforded admits of doubt. The most general desire is for a duty on American produce imported into Canada. How that would operate we have already explained. The next desire is, if the duty here would militate against Imperial interests, to have Canadian produce admitted into England duty free. This we formerly remarked, appears reasonable, and the Canadian farmer deserves the boon. A third plan is, that an Imperial duty shall be levied and collected in Canada on produce imported from the States. This also would be just, as it would secure to the Canadian farmer the full benefit of his country's markets, and his country's capital, instead of having that divert-

ed to purchase foreign grain with which to inundate his markets and depress his prices.— This plan, however, so peculiarly requires Imperial sanction, that but little can be said respecting it at present.

The farmer must remember, however, that no plan can prevent fluctuation of prices. For this he must be prepared. The following table shows the great and rapid variations in the price of wheat in the City of Philadelphia, vari-

ations which the United States' protecting duty could not prevent, and which range from \$15 to \$3 75. The table was carefully prepared by a mercantile gentleman from authentic data.— A similar table for Canada would show similar variations, from 12s. 6d. per barrel of flour, the price in 1821, when there was a protecting duty, to £3 per barrel, the price in the winter of 1837-8, without protection. This high price was partly caused by the insurrection.

Prices of Flour for the three first months of the year, from 1796 to 1837 inclusive.

YEARS.	January.	February	March.	YEARS.	January.	February	March.
1796.....	\$12 00	\$13 50	\$15 00	1816.....	9 00	9 00	8 00
1797.....	10 00	10 00	10 00	1817.....	13 50	13 75	14 25
1798.....	8 50	8 50	8 50	1818.....	10 00	10 75	10 50
1799.....	9 50	9 50	9 25	1819.....	9 00	8 75	8 25
1800 }	11 50	11 25	11 50	1820.....	6 00	5 50	5 00
1801 }				1821.....	4 00	4 00	3 75
1802.....	7 00	7 00	7 00	1822.....	6 25	6 25	6 25
1803.....	6 50	6 50	6 50	1823.....	7 00	6 75	7 00
1804.....	7 50	7 50	7 00	1824.....	6 00	6 00	6 12
1805.....	11 00	12 25	13 00	1825.....	4 87	5 12	5 12
1806.....	7 50	7 50	7 00	1826.....	4 75	4 62	4 50
1807.....	7 50	7 50	7 50	1827.....	5 75	6 00	5 75
1808 (Embargo).....	6 00	5 75	5 50	1828.....	5 00	4 87	4 75
1809 do	5 50	7 00	7 00	1829.....	8 50	8 25	8 00
1810 { In July and }				1830.....	4 62	4 50	4 50
1810 { Aug. this year }	7 75	8 00	8 25	1831.....	6 12	6 25	7 00
1810 { \$11 and \$12. }				1832.....	5 50	5 50	5 50
1811.....	11 00	10 50	10 50	1833.....	5 75	5 00	5 50
1812 (War).....	10 50	10 12	9 75	1834.....	5 25	5 00	5 87
1813 do	11 00	10 00	9 50	1835.....	4 87	5 00	5 00
1814 do	9 25	8 25	8 00	1836.....	6 50	6 62	6 75
1815 do	8 00	8 00	7 75	1837.....	11 00	11 00	

EMIGRATION.

THE following memorial on Emigration was addressed by the North American Colonial Committee of London to Lord John Russell.— We shall append thereto such remarks as it appears to require:—

To the Right Honourable Lord John Russell, principal Secretary for the Colonies.

The memorial of the North American Colonial Committee of London,

SHEWETH,

That the North American Colonial Commit-

tee, consisting of gentlemen associated for the purpose of promoting the Colonization of the British Provinces in America, have resolved, after mature consideration, to submit to your Lordship the following statement of their views with respect to this important object.

We assume, that in the Highlands and Islands, as well as in some of the manufacturing towns of Scotland, that in particular employments and particular districts of England, that throughout almost every part of Ireland, many thousands of our fellow countrymen are not

only unable to obtain throughout the year such wages as will afford them those means of comfortable subsistence which every industrious man may fairly expect in exchange for his labour, but are often reduced to the extreme privations of the most afflicting destitution.

We assume further, that in the British Provinces of America there exists a demand for labour which has not yet been fully satisfied; that the industrious labourer can there obtain good wages and the means of comfortable subsistence; that there being many millions of acres of the most fertile land still uncultivated, land is so cheap that the exercise of industry and frugality enables the labourer to purchase a small estate in fee after a short residence in these Provinces, and thus to become an employer of labour, so that the demand for additional hands, instead of decreasing with the supply, undergoes a constant augmentation.

Proceeding upon these two assumptions, which cannot be controverted, we respectfully submit that it is the duty of the statesmen of Great Britain to afford the mother country and to the Colonies the aid which they respectively require, by transferring the superabundant population of the United Kingdom to those Colonies in which they will be welcomed as producers of wealth, instead of being repelled as a burden upon the community, and in which their labour will be adequately rewarded.

We are quite sensible that such an undertaking must be conducted with the utmost caution; that if a greater number of emigrants should be conveyed in any one year to the Colonies than can be there beneficially employed, the result will be most disastrous to the individuals emigrating; most burdensome to the Colonial community as throwing on their charity a population dependent upon them for relief; and most discouraging to future emigration in the reaction produced at home by accounts of the misery and suffering which would have been in such case endured. We are also sensible that it is not sufficient to convey the emigrants to the nearest port in the Colonies, and there to leave them unaided by further guidance or assistance; that the result of such a proceeding would be to throw into seaport towns a mass of persons for whom no adequate employment could be there provided, and who would consequently be exposed to the combined evils of hunger, disease and idleness, whilst in the case of emigration to Canada, the greater part of the more enterprising emigrants would, under such circumstances, make their way into the United States as the nearest point at which they could find employment. We are therefore of opinion, that in any system of emigration conducted by the state, it is of the utmost importance that the emigrants yearly sent out should not exceed such a number as can obtain certain employment on their arrival, and that they should be conveyed

at once to those parts of the Provinces in which their labour is required.

We have taken pains to ascertain what number of emigrants could be received without inconvenience by the Provinces of British North America during the present year, and we cannot estimate the number at less than sixty thousand at the lowest computation. Exclusive of the emigration to the other Provinces of British North America, about twenty-three thousand emigrants landed in Lower Canada during last year. Of these a small number went to the United States, but an equal number came from the United States to settle in Canada. From all the accounts which have been received, it appears that these emigrants have experienced no disappointment. Though a large proportion were of that class who were dependant upon labour for their support, we have not heard that the supply of labour exceeded the demand, but on the contrary, there is reason to believe that a much larger number might have found employment. The success of the emigration of last year will probably induce many persons to emigrate during the present year who are able to defray their own expenses; but as the interposition of state assistance may possibly induce some persons to seek such assistance who would otherwise have been enabled to emigrate by the contributions of their friends, we may estimate the number of emigrants who will go out upon which could be absorbed by the Provinces of British North America, for whom provision will require to be made in the manner hereafter suggested.

The present is a moment peculiarly favourable to an emigration. The harvest of last year was most abundant in North America, and consequently provisions are, at the present moment, both cheap and plentiful. The advantage of emigration has never been so strongly felt by the intelligent inhabitants of these Colonies. In several districts, particularly in Upper Canada, associations have been formed for the purpose of facilitating the reception of emigrants from the United Kingdom. With a view to encourage the settlement of emigrants in Canada, several landed proprietors have signified their willingness to place at the disposal of these associations extensive tracts of land. They have also deputed Dr. Rolph as their agent to this country for the purpose of stimulating emigration; and in this appointment the Colonial Executive has concurred; the last act of the Legislature of Upper Canada previous to its final dissolution, was the adoption of an address to the Crown, praying that measures might be taken for promoting emigration upon a large scale to the Canadian Provinces. Under all these circumstances we are justified in believing, that when the Canadian Legislature shall assemble, there will be no indisposition to entertain favourably any proposition for the

encouragement of emigration, which shall be founded upon an equitable basis, and guarded by a prudent caution.

We respectfully submit that the time has now come when such a proposition may be made with advantage to the Executive Government; and as we are assured that your Lordship cannot be indifferent to the opinion of a body of gentlemen who are much interested in the colonization of British America, we beg to suggest as the basis of such a proposition the following apportionment of the expenses of emigration between the different parties interested.

1. That the emigrant should find himself the means of conveyance to the port of embarkation, his outfit and provisions for the voyage.

2. That the government should provide a free passage.

3. That the Colony should take charge of the labourer on his arrival, and undertake his conveyance to the district in which he is to be employed.

Such a division of the expenses would appear to be most natural, as well as best suited to the means of the respective parties, and probably it would be found in the result that each would thus incur about an equal portion of the total cost.

This suggestion is founded upon the supposition that several distinct interests are concerned in the emigration of the unemployed poor of the United Kingdom.

1. In the first place it is a matter of concern to the British nation at large, that an individual who is compelled by circumstances over which he has no control to remain idle at home, should be transferred to a field in which his active vigour and productive industry become elements of the political and commercial greatness of the British Empire. In reference to the peculiar circumstances of Canada, your Lordship will feel that there are considerations of political expediency, involving, perhaps, the very connexion of these Colonies with the parent state, which make it advisable to promote the immediate settlement in those provinces of a population warmly attached to the institutions and interests of Great Britain. These considerations alone would justify the application of a portion of the general revenue to the promotion of emigration to British North America.

2. It is not necessary to point out the benefit which would result to the emigrant himself, from his transfer to the Colonies, because the whole of our reasoning is based upon the assumption that this change of home would greatly improve his condition. There is no member of our Association who would advocate emigration upon any other supposition. When we

suggest that the emigrant should be called upon to contribute some portion of the expenses of the emigration of his family, we are fully aware that, in many cases, the labourer would be unable to contribute out of his own funds such proportion; but we think that few cases exist in which he would find himself unable to make up this amount by the aid of his friends, employers or landlord; and in such case it would be competent for the guardians of any union to make the required contribution out of the poor rates. The advantage which would result to the district to which an unemployed family belongs, from their removal, is obvious and immediate, because so long as they are unable to earn their own subsistence, they must be relieved either by public or by private charity.

3. The Colony to which the labourer emigrates is also deeply interested in this transfer of our unemployed population, and ought therefore to contribute its share of the expense. To say that land is of no value without labour, is only to repeat a truism which no one will contradict. We think it unnecessary, therefore, to expatiate upon this topic. We are satisfied that the Provincial Legislature will gladly contribute the proportion of the expense of emigration which ought to be borne by the Colonies. The funds available for this purpose have frequently been pointed out in the discussions which have taken place on the subject of Colonization, and their appropriation to this object has received the sanction of those who would be contributors to these funds.

In the first place, it is desired that in British North America the whole of the proceeds arising from the sale of the public lands shall be applied to the promotion of emigration. We do not think it necessary to state the arguments by which this principle of Colonization is sustained. We confine ourselves to the simple assertion, that the same considerations which have convinced your Lordship that the land fund of the other Colonies should be appropriated to the conveyance thither of labour, apply with equal force to the case of the North American Colonies of Great Britain.

Another fund available for the purpose of promoting public works, and an accompanying emigration, would arise from the imposition of a tax upon land,—payable either in land or money. If such a tax be paid in land, it will place at the disposal of the Executive, sections of land in various parts of the Provinces, which will become applicable to the settlement of Emigrants, and a gradual surrender of such sections of land on the part of those who do not think it their interest to pay even a trifling assessment upon them, will tend to diminish the evils which have been found to arise from profuse and improvident grants of large tracts of territory to individuals who have possessed

neither the means nor inclination to bring them under cultivation. If, on the other hand, the tax be generally paid in money, it will be seen that even a very trifling assessment will at once create a fund available for the promotion of public works and emigration.

A tax of one halfpenny per acre levied upon all the lands in British North America, which have been already granted, would produce upwards of £80,000 per annum; and this fund would continually increase, in proportion as the public land now undisposed of shall be appropriated by individuals.

Upon this revenue above a million sterling could be at once raised, or such lesser sum as may from time to time be required for the improvement and settlement of the districts from which the tax may be levied. We have reason to believe that if the provincial legislature should consent to the imposition of such a land tax, there will be no difficulty in raising, among the capitalists in the city of London who are connected with the provinces, whatever amount may be required, proportionate to the security so afforded,—on the strict condition that this fund shall be applied to the purposes above specified.

In urging your Lordship to recommend to the provincial legislatures some such proposal as that which we have ventured to suggest, it has given us great satisfaction to observe that this proposition much resembles that which has been already submitted by the Commissioners of land and emigration. In their report, dated the 25th of April, 1840, we find that they advised that £50,000 should be applied, out of the general revenue, in aid of emigration to British North America.

They recommend that half the expense of the passage of the emigrants should be defrayed by the government, the other half being borne by the emigrants themselves, or by the parties locally interested in their removal, whether landed proprietors or poor-law unions; that the emigrants should make their way to the port of embarkation at their own cost; and that, upon their landing in the colony, they should be immediately placed under the guidance of the Colonial Emigration Agents, whose duty it would be to convey them to those parts of the colony in which certain employment awaits them.

We do not concur with the commissioners in thinking that the emigrant should be called upon to contribute any portion of the passage money, because many emigrants would be found unable to provide such contribution; and we deem it of the utmost importance that emigrants should have at their disposal on landing in the colony, any funds which they may be able to command,—but we think that the expenses of outfit, provisions and conveyance to

the port of embarkation may fairly be thrown upon the emigrant. In other respects, we are happy to find that the views of the commissioners are almost entirely in accordance with those of your Committee.

It ought to be observed that, by placing the stream of emigration under the superintendence of a responsible board, much of the suffering and danger to which the emigrant is now exposed from the designing practices of some of the ship-owners and masters engaged in the conveyance of emigrants, as well as from the employment of unsafe vessels, would be obviated, and thus the emigrant would be placed under a protecting care from the port of embarkation to the place of his ultimate location.

We have only to add in conclusion, that in soliciting assistance on the part of the State in aid of emigration to British North America, it is very far from our wish to deprecate similar assistance towards promoting the settlement of the other Colonies of Great Britain. We regret to be compelled to believe that there are in the United Kingdom, a number of industrious men of good character unable to find employment at home sufficient to supply the utmost demand for labour that can for several years exist in the various Colonies of Great Britain. We therefore claim no partiality for British North America; but in viewing this subject with reference to the interests of the Mother Country, it cannot be forgotten that, in consequence of the nearer vicinity of the American Colonies, a contribution on the part of the State, which would only facilitate the conveyance of hundreds of the unemployed poor to more distant settlements, would aid the emigration of thousands to British North America.

We have now laid before your Lordship, in as brief a form as we could adopt, without omitting particulars which we deem it important to mention, a distinct proposal for the conduct of emigration to British North America. It has not been adopted hastily, but is the result of much consideration; and we leave it in your Lordship's hands with a feeling of perfect confidence, that as a British Statesman you are deeply sensible of the value of Colonization as a means of increasing the power and resources of the great empire whose Colonial interests have been entrusted to your charge.

We are glad to perceive the caution and correct judgment displayed in the fifth paragraph of this Memorial, and the general spirit and principles it developes. There are some deficiencies, however, which we now proceed to notice. The Memorial assumes, that because about 23,000 emigrants were accommodated in

Canada last year, the same number may be provided for annually. But it is here overlooked, that in the two preceding years there had been hardly any emigration, so that last year supplied the demand of three years, and several thousand labourers were embodied in the militia. Or, if we take the emigration of the three years together, it is about 33,000, giving an average of 11,000 a year instead of 23,000.—The committee assume, it is true, that more emigrants could have found employment last year than came. More of a certain class could: more good farm servants could have found ready employment; but of mere labourers there were more than could obtain work, and more of this class went to the United States than the committee suppose. It has come to our knowledge, that emigrants whose passages were paid to Hamilton by the Government, went from thence to work on the Erie Canal at Lockport. This was from no dislike to Canada, or preference of the States as a country, but simply because they could get work that suited them on the enlargement of the Erie Canal. Hence, although our government had paid their expences from Quebec to Hamilton, it proved merely to benefit the United States by their labour. This shows that the system of free passages is somewhat of an expensive lottery, as it is very doubtful who shall reap the benefit eventually. Of the 12,350 emigrants who came into Upper Canada last year, only about 10,000 are accounted for in it; in other words, 2,350 went to the States at different points. How many of these had been assisted by the government, we have no means of knowing, but it is probable that one-half at least had, as one-half of the total number were assisted, and thus our government must have paid several hundred pounds last year to send men to the United States. This system must have some check. Had there been employment on public works in Canada, it is probable that these men would have remained in it, but until this is the case, this class of emigrants cannot be retained in the country.—Hence, although a free passage would benefit them and the districts from which they come, it would not benefit Canada at all, and therefore Canada cannot contribute to the expence of removing them hither, until there be a different system established, by which she may expect to retain them when they come.

Further, the Committee propose that "the whole of the proceeds arising from the sale of public lands shall be applied to the promotion of Emigration." From this proposition we entirely dissent. Important as emigration is, it is not every thing. Other things are as much required in order to render emigration itself a benefit. Good roads, especially, are as necessary as emigration, for without them the emigrant is cut off from communication with friends or markets, and the produce of his labour brings him but one-fourth of what it might do, if indeed he can sell it at all. In fact, so great is the difficulty on this account, that whole settlements have been abandoned after years of labour had been expended on them.—We knew a settlement in Lower Canada that was abandoned after 14 years of labour. Two families that had buried children there remained a year after the others had left, but their condition was so much worse that they also forsook the place. Charles Ranken, Esquire, Deputy Land Surveyor, in his evidence before Lord Durham's Commissioners on land and emigration, says that the difficulties from want of roads have been experienced to such an extent "as to occasion the abandonment of settlements that had been formed, as in the Township of Rama, where, after a trial of three years, the settlers were compelled to abandon their improvements. In the Township of St. Vincent almost all the most valuable settlers have left their farms from the same cause. There have been numerous instances in which, altho' the settlement has not been altogether abandoned, the most valuable settlers, after unavailing struggles of several years with the difficulties which I have described, have left their farms." And William B. Robinson, Esquire, gives similar evidence, saying—"The non-residence of many of the proprietors is attributable to the badness of the roads, many of those who had settled there having been compelled by this cause to abandon their locations." It would be no trivial cause that would make men throw away the labour of years, as well as all the capital they possessed; but they emigrated anew for the same reason that they emigrated at first—to escape from difficulties which they found to be intolerable. More examples of the same kind might be given, but these are sufficient to show that good roads are necessary to the success of emigration, and therefore, the

unappropriated part of the proceeds arising from the sale of public lands should be employed in making roads through those lands, thereby preparing them for settlement by emigrants with advantage to all parties.

In the first number of the *Review*, it was proposed that a tax of one penny per acre should be laid on all wild lands, for the purpose of opening roads through them; and in the report on public lands and emigration by Charles Butler, Esquire, it is recommended that a tax upon wild lands, the proceeds of the sales of public lands, and from the disposal of lumber licenses, "should all be specifically appropriated to such works as would improve the value of land and facilitate the progress of settlement, including the construction of leading lines of road, the removal of obstructions in the navigation of rivers, and the formation of rail roads and canals. In some of these works, the whole cost will be defrayed out of these funds; in others it will only be necessary to afford a limited amount of assistance, in aid of works in which private capital may be invested, though not to a sufficient amount to complete the undertaking." These objects will require all the funds that can be raised from the above-named sources, and they are so important to the country that emigration avails but little without them. Therefore we cannot agree with the Committee, that the proceeds of the sales of all public lands should be applied solely to emigration.—They refer to other Colonies in which this principle is adopted; but those new Colonies have not yet felt the want of good roads, their settlements being confined as yet to the sea coast or the banks of rivers. When population shall have increased with them until it must go into the interior for settlement, they will wish that they had reserved part of their public funds to make roads into the interior, at least if their country be any thing like Canada.

The Committee propose a plan for a tax of a half penny an acre on all granted lands, as security for a loan to be raised in England for public works. This to a farmer of 200 acres would add 3s. 4d. per annum to his present taxes: no great sum, it is true, but many farmers have great difficulty in obtaining the small amount at present levied. Yet we might support the proposition, provided part of the loan was devoted to the improvement of the

roads; for we are satisfied that, if this were granted, for every shilling the farmer might pay to such a tax, he would be benefited a pound by better roads, supposing of course that the money was judiciously expended.—We doubt, however, that the legislature will resort to direct taxation for this purpose, especially as the improved plan of education to be submitted to it contemplates an assessment of three farthings in the pound for the support of education. An increase of the general revenue by increasing the duties on imports, will probably be all that will be attempted at present towards providing for public works. Yet a direct tax on land would be a more fixed and certain source of revenue than duties on imports, and would therefore be preferred by English Capitalists as security for a loan, and it is possible that they would accept of no other, although Heaven knows that they have accepted a thousand times less security in the United States than our revenue from Customs would give.

In all plans or calculations respecting Canada, it must be remembered that the country requires capital as much as labour. An idea seems to be entertained in some quarters, that if Canada be only supplied with labour, it wants nothing more, whereas without capital that labour cannot be employed, nor can it subsist without. If an emigrant should settle on land without capital, he must either be supported for the first year and part of the second, or he must have some place within reach where he can labour for wages nearly half his time, until his own crops are able to support him: in each case capital is required. Then, as capital is necessary, and Canada has it not, if she is to have a large supply of labour, it is necessary that there be either a concurrent emigration of agricultural capitalists, or else that public works be carried on extensively, for only in one of these ways can this large amount of labour be employed. If the emigrant be to labour for some years, until he can save a little money with which to go on land, that labour and its reward must be furnished by capital. Indeed so essential is money to the employment of labour, that without it ten thousand emigrants a year would suffice for Canada. Every plan of extensive emigration must include a plan for providing money to employ the emigrants, and facilitate their settlement, or it will fail. The Committee's plan may do, provided part of the

money to be raised by it is applied to roads, instead of all to emigration and public works, for without passable roads the emigrant, after he may have earned money on public works, cannot settle on land without encountering difficulties which to many are insurmountable, and which have driven many from their settlements after expending years of labour and considerable capital thereon.

Again, the Committee say that in British North America "Land is so cheap, that the exercise of industry and frugality enables the labourer to purchase a small estate in fee after a short residence in these provinces, and thus to become an employer of labour, so that the demand for additional hands, instead of decreasing with the supply, undergoes a constant augmentation." This passage will mislead those who know not the country, for many long years must elapse before the labourer who from his earnings during a "short residence" here purchases land, can become an "employer of labour." On this point we will quote the following evidence of A. B. Hawke, Esquire, Emigrant Agent at Toronto, given to Lord Durham's commission on land and emigration. He was asked how long the indigent emigrants remained in the condition of labourers, to which he replied: "With the more prudent of them it generally happens that in the course of two or three years they have money enough to pay the first instalment on a Government or Canada Company lot, or to purchase a small quantity of land of some private person; this is the course generally pursued by those who are not settled in towns, or employed on public works." And when asked what prospect an emigrant labourer, who had purchased in this manner, has of paying the remaining instalments out of the produce of his farm, he replied: "My attention has been most particularly directed to the settlers who purchase of Government, and it is my opinion that very few persons of this class succeed in paying the remaining instalments." And he mentions that "in 1832, a number of settlers who had been sent out by the Petworth committee were located in Adelaide and Warwick, on 100 acres of land each, which was valued at 10s. per acre, they were to pay the first instalment in three years with interest; provisions and implements were furnished by the Government, for which acknowledgements were taken, in which they engaged to repay

the amount before receiving the patent of their lands; there has not been a single instance in which they have fulfilled their engagements from their labour, or the produce of their land; there have only been two instances in which any payment has been made; in these cases the individuals have sold their improvements to wealthier settlers. In the Bathurst District a number of indigent settlers were located upon free grants of land, to whom the Government made advances of provisions and implements, taking acknowledgements for the amount thus advanced; the whole of this sum, amounting to nearly £30,000 currency, has been abandoned by Government; and not to dwell upon these perhaps exceptional instances, I believe that in fact a very large proportion of those who have purchased land of Government have not paid their instalments as they became due." And the uncertainty which this occasions as to the settlers ultimately enjoying the fruit of their labour, "has a most disheartening operation, especially in the case of the poorer settlers. As an individual of this class finds the instalments, with interest, accumulating upon him, he is apt to despair of ever being able to pay for the land, and is induced, in many instances, to abandon his improvements, or sell them for a trifling consideration." Here is ample proof that it is no easy matter to settle on land without capital, and labourers cannot become employers of labour with such facility as the Committee assume. In truth, there are strong reasons against their going on land prematurely, as many have done, tempted by the power of obtaining land on paying one instalment, which, says Mr. Hawke, "has the effect of converting a number of useful labourers into indigent and useless farmers, who from want of capital are unable to bring their lands into cultivation." The advantage to be held out to the emigrant labourer is, that he can live by his labour, and, if he possess the requisite qualities, may in time obtain land of his own; but there is nothing to be gained by representing this as being easy of attainment, or that when the labourer has settled on land he will soon be an employer of labour, for he will have many a year of severe toil to encounter before he will master the difficulties that will then beset him, and become able to employ labour on his farm. Mr. Buller in his report says: "I cannot recommend that any measures should be adopted

to settle these emigrants upon land of their own. The previous habits of English labourers are not such as to fit them for the severe and painful labour to which they would thus be exposed, or to give them the forethought and prudence which such a position especially requires. Habituated to provide for the subsistence of the week by the labour of the week, they are too often found to shrink from a toil cheered by no prospect of an immediate return; and having exhausted all the means furnished for their temporary support, to leave the land upon which they were placed, in order to obtain subsistence as labourers for hire. The exceptions to this result are few and unimportant. They rather confirm than invalidate the rule, and have been procured at a cost utterly disproportioned to the object attained. It is rather to be feared, that in spite of any measures that can prudently be adopted, the majority of the labouring emigrants will be tempted, by the desire of becoming independent landholders, to settle themselves upon farms of their own at too early a period for their own comfort and prosperity. It cannot, however, be the duty of Government to precipitate this period, nor in any way to interfere with the natural and profitable order of things—that the possession of capital, and an acquaintance with the modes of husbandry practised in the Colonies, should precede settlement.”

The cost alluded to above was great. The Peter Robinson settlers, as they are sometimes called, cost the Government £ 1 per head, reckoning man, woman, and child. Such an expensive plan of settlement would absorb the revenues of a nation.

That this settling upon land is no holiday task has been proved by recent instances. Last year the Government offered free grants of 50 acres of land to all persons who would settle on the Garrafraxa road, leading from the township of that name to Owen's Sound on Lake Huron. Above three hundred persons availed themselves of this offer, and took out tickets of occupation. Of this number how many do the public suppose have actually settled on their lots? Just *fifty-eight*, one in six of those who took out tickets. A few others have said that they will return to their lots in the spring: but if they do, still about five-sixths of the whole number abandoned the attempt at settlement, on an actual survey of its difficulties. Yet the land

is of the finest quality, part of the Saugeeng territory, and the commencement of the Garrafraxa road is only about eight or ten miles from a settlement in the township of Nicholl. Settlement in a heavy timbered country will task a man's powers to the uttermost, if he has not capital to assist him; and many who have had capital have expended it, and at last have been beaten off their ground by the severe demands upon their strength, skill, courage, and patience. We need not wonder then that persons without capital are deterred from attempting the task, and decline a free gift of 50 acres of land on the condition of actual settlement.

There is another point which this Memorial does not touch at all, but which is of the first importance to the Colony, and which must be decided before its funds can be pledged to a system of emigration; that is, some security must be had that the emigrants shall be of a class adapted to benefit the colony instead of being a burden to it. The people at home look chiefly to relieving themselves from the pressure of surplus population; but we on this side must look chiefly to the benefit which these emigrants can confer on the Colony, especially when its funds are required to assist in distributing them here. It is notorious that in former years no care has been taken in this respect, and the Colony has been burdened instead of benefited by many of the emigrants sent out here. Henry Jessopp, Esquire, Collector of Customs at Quebec, in his evidence before Lord Durham's Commission, speaks as follows on this point: “The parishes have sent out persons far too old to gain their livelihood by work, and often of drunken and improvident habits. These emigrants have neither benefited themselves nor the country; and this is very natural, for, judging from the class sent out, the object contemplated must have been the getting rid of them, and not either the benefit of themselves or the colony. An instance occurred very recently which illustrates this subject. A respectable settler in the eastern townships lately returned from England in a vessel, on board of which there were 136 pauper passengers, sent out at the expense of their parishes, and out of the whole number he could only select two that he was desirous of inducing to settle in the eastern townships. The conduct of the others, both male and female, was so bad, that he expressed his wish that

they might proceed to the Upper Province, instead of settling in his district. He alluded, principally, to gross drunkenness and intemperance." Before Colonial funds are pledged to promote emigration, we must have some safeguard that they shall not be employed in bringing out persons who are unable to earn their living, or of notoriously bad character, who would be merely a tax on our charities, or become inmates of our gaols and penitentiary. Too many of this class will find their way out, in spite of all precaution, without offering a bounty for them.

We consider, therefore, that there are important deficiencies in the plan proposed in this Memorial, which will require to be guarded against before Colonial funds are pledged to its details. We recommended in our last that a limited amount of assistance should be granted to those emigrants, who, upon examination, are unable to proceed up the country, in order to place them where their labour is wanted, and we doubt the propriety of doing more, or of making a general offer of assistance to all who may choose to claim it. There is such a probability of imposition, and that many who may be assisted will at last go to the United States, that we apprehend more evil than good would arise from proclaiming an almost indiscriminate free passage for emigrants to Canada.

The following table of the amount expended in Upper Canada for forwarding and relieving Emigrants, will show that as much has been done as could be expected, especially if we add to this the amount given up to emigrants in their debts for land purchased, and also considerable sums expended in various townships to facilitate settlement therein. The heavy expense of 1832 was in consequence of the cholera.

1831	£ 5,720
1832	13,820
1833	2,686
1834	4,530
1835	4,743
1836	2,720
1837	2,973
1838	627
1839	557
1840	3,336

Total in ten years . . . £46,712

Averaging £4,671 per annum. Shillings and pence are omitted.

A motion was made in the House of Commons on the 11th of February, by Mr. H. Baillie, Member for Inverness-shire, for a select Committee to enquire into the condition of the people in the Western Highlands of Scotland, with a view to affording them relief by emigration. The honorable Member stated that owing to the decay of the kelp manufacture, occasioned by the reduction of the duties on salt, sulphur, and barilla, which enabled the manufacturers to adopt a cheap substitute for kelp, there were 40,000 persons in a destitute condition, who ought to be removed to afford those who remain a fair chance of gaining a subsistence. The removal of this number to Quebec would cost £120,000, reckoning at £3 per head, but the expense might be divided over a period of three years. The consequence of the reduction of those duties was stated to be ruinous in the extreme. Small proprietors, and those whose estates were burdened with family settlements, were absolutely and completely ruined. One person was mentioned whose whole estate was not sufficient to pay the settlements which were made upon his younger brothers during the flourishing state of the kelp manufacture; and he was, in consequence, obliged to give up his whole estate to them, and he was sent out last year, at their joint expense, as a sheep farmer to Australia. The Committee was granted, after the motion had been altered so as to limit it to the practicability of affording relief by emigration. The following remarks were made by Lord John Russell on the subject, and he carefully avoids pledging the government to any advance of money. In fact, without this caution the government would have all the poor in the kingdom thrown on their hands, and Canada would be deluged by the living tide.

"He should be sorry to have it supposed, that, in not making any objection to the motion of the Hon. gentlemen, he assented to the force of his argument. He would readily admit the extent of the distress which had, for some time, prevailed in the localities to which the Hon. gentleman referred, and he thought that the House might very reasonably grant the power to the Hon. gentleman of making out his case, and showing whether it was so strong a one as he seemed to suppose. According to the view which he (Lord J. Russell) took last year with respect to emigration, he did not see that the reasons urged by the Hon. gentleman made out so strong a case, as should induce the House to consent to so large a public grant for the pur-

pose of sending these poor people out to Canada. Neither did it appear to him to be clearly established, that the distress was owing to the reduction of the duties on barilla; but even if that were established, he doubted whether they were called upon to provide for all cases in which distress was the result of an alteration in the duties. The proper remedy for such evils was to avoid the formation of an artificial value.—(*Hear, hear.*) There was another question also involved in the consideration, namely, whether the Highlanders alone were to receive the benefit of this grant of £120,000. There were other places in which distress was equally prevalent. In the Lowlands of Scotland, in several parts of England, and various districts of Ireland, distress and famine were peculiarly pressing and urgent. Could Parliament propose, under these circumstances, to confine to the Highlands all the benefit of this grant? To the statements of the Hon. gentleman, as to the peculiar fitness of sending these persons to Canada, it would be a sufficient reason to deny the grant that others, in equal distress, had been refused. That, alone, seemed a sufficient reason against making the grant general; but, with respect to making it with a view to sending these persons out to Canada, there were other objections which should be taken into consideration. The question of emigration was a very important one, and should always be viewed in conjunction with other circumstances. It should be ascertained whether, in addition to transferring those people to Canada, they could be placed in such a position there as would enable them to procure a livelihood. What was to be done with the older members of the community, for whom it would be difficult to make a provision by throwing them upon the public? Any attempt of this sort should, therefore, be made in concert with the authorities appointed by the Crown in Canada, as well as with the new Assembly which was about to be called into existence there.—(*Hear, hear.*) On any question likely to affect the finances of the country, the opinion of that Assembly should be looked to with great consideration and respect. In giving assent, then, to the motion of the Hon'ble gentleman, he should, for the several reasons assigned, question the conclusion to which the Hon'ble gentleman had come, but, at the same time, he should not adopt the harsh mode of refusing his assent to the motion."

The following *Memorandum on Free Grants of Land to Emigrants*, by the Honorable S. B. Harrison, explains the reasons which have guided the Government in making those grants. We have already stated that only *fifty-eight* persons have actually settled on the Garrafraxa road. Mr. Harrison has himself set led emi-

grants on land, so that his statements are derived from practical experience.

Memorandum on Free Grants of Land to Emigrants.

BY THE HON. S. B. HARRISON.

I assume that the object in making free grants of land is, to create a class of agriculturalists having an interest in the soil, by being made owners of a portion of it, and whose surplus labour, beyond what may be necessary for the subsistence of themselves and families, may be made advantageous to the community at large. In a new settlement, so far at least as regards agriculture merely, the relation of employer and employed, and capitalist and labourer, cannot exist. Experience has furnished many lamentable examples in Canada of the failure of capitalists to render the clearing of heavy timbered land, and raising grain from it, a profitable speculation in a commercial point of view, whilst on the other hand, the mere labourer has, when industrious, invariably succeeded in reaching the object of his ambition, the procurement of subsistence, and the realization of a competency relatively great for him.

This observation is confined to employment of capital in improvements of an agricultural character, and does not extend to such improvements as benefit the community by the erection of mills or buildings for manufacturing purposes. The first object of the settler is to acquire the means of subsistence. It is not until he has done this, and his neighbourhood has assumed somewhat the character of an old settlement, that he is solicitous about the disposal of his surplus produce. To bring a settlement to such a state it appears to be most advantageous to admit settlers who are equal, or nearly so, in point of capital; they assist each other by their mutual exertions, and their efforts are sufficient to advance the settlement to the position of having surplus produce to dispose of.—Whilst accomplishing this object, they are satisfied if their subsistence is provided; and when it is attained, they are in a situation to avail themselves of the increased facilities arising from the improvement of the country.

It may be necessary to review the course adopted upon a settlement in the bush. The land generally is thickly covered with trees, its surface matted with living roots, and its substance of an exceedingly light and porous character. The only mode in which a crop can be got into newly cleared forest land, thus thickly covered with stumps and undecayed roots, is by sowing the seed on the surface of the land, after the vegetable matter is destroyed by fire; and then scratching it in the best manner possible with a very strong rough harrow. Even when this is done with the greatest care, it of-

ten happens that the seed is barely covered with soil.

With the grain crop, grass seed is sown, upon which the settler relies, after his crop of grain is harvested, for hay and pasture. Until these are obtained he has to contend with great difficulties in supporting the yoke of oxen which he requires to do his work, and the cow to afford milk to his family. In a new settlement hay cannot be obtained, and if it could it would not be worth carriage over such bad roads as necessarily exist; consequently until the settler can raise it for himself, he is driven to other expedients to support his cattle. He usually relies upon the forest herbage in the summer, and upon what is called browsing in the winter; the latter is obtained from the buds and young twigs of hard wood trees, which he successively cuts down in his clearing as may be required.—The land newly cleared, having yielded its first crop of grain, must lie in grass for a period of time long enough to allow of the roots of all the stumps, and the smaller stumps themselves to decay; for until that has taken place, it is impossible to work it with any implement of husbandry, either plough or spade. The shortest period that must thus necessarily be allowed to elapse, is six years, and that will be sufficient only under favourable circumstances, and where the land was altogether covered with hard wood. Where the circumstances are unfavourable, or a considerable portion of pine stumps exist, a much longer period of time must elapse before the land can be broken up in tillage for a second crop of grain. No advantage would accrue from a departure from this course, by endeavouring to expedite the preparation of the land for a second crop. In that case the whole work of getting rid of the roots, would have to be performed by the axe and handspike, at an expense altogether inconsistent with profitable expenditure; experience shows that the former system is the best, for it is invariably adopted.

Another material circumstance must be borne in mind. It is essential that on each farm a considerable quantity of wood land should be retained to supply firewood, building and fencing materials, and farm implements. With respect to fuel, the cold winters of Canada, imperfectly provided against by the badly constructed residences of new settlers, obviously require a great consumption. It is considered that 20 acres of wood land is not more than enough to furnish the supplies here indicated.

Two circumstances of general application seem therefore necessary to be considered in the allotment of any portion of wild land to a settler. First, he must have a sufficient quantity to afford employment in clearing, for a period not less than six years; and secondly, beyond that quantity he must be enabled to receive a sufficient quantity for fuel and other essential purposes.

With respect to the first point, an industrious settler by his own exertions can by the employment of about half his time, chop, log, burn, fence, and put in crop five acres in one season. The average produce will be 15 bushels per acre. This may appear a small average, but it must be recollected that the stumps will occupy from one-fifth to one-third of the land cleared; and consequently, that the land so occupied will be totally unproductive. The produce of the five acres at this average would be 75 bushels of wheat; but allowing for contingencies, which somehow or other always happen, it cannot be put down at more than 52 bushels. This gives the settler a weekly subsistence of one bushel of wheat to maintain himself and family during the time he is occupied upon his own land, and in working for his neighbours, upon a principle of reciprocity which must always exist in a new settlement. Supposing a settler to go at once into the bush, this quantity of wheat would be all he could reckon upon for his subsistence; whatever other produce he might obtain in the shape of potatoes, Indian corn, or other vegetables, could only be reckoned auxiliary to his wheat crop, and not his main dependence.

The second year the settler would clear five acres more. He would then have the same crop of wheat, and in addition a crop of hay and grass, and would now, for the first time, be in a situation to provide adequately for his oxen and cow. These would be objects of primary solicitude to him, and he would procure them in payment for his work performed for farmers in the more settled parts of the country during harvest.

In the third year he would have the like quantity of wheat with the produce of 10 acres of grass, and of course with increased facilities for keeping stock.

The fourth, fifth, and sixth years would be proportionably the same.

A settler would accordingly in six years have cleared 30 acres of land; and then, and not before, he would be in a situation to break up the land cleared the first year, and take from it a second crop of grain. The roots would have become rotten, so as to allow of the passage of a plough, and many of the smaller stumps would have come out of the ground. Were a similar rotation over the 30 acres to be observed by again sowing with grass seed, to allow time for further decay, the settler, by the time he had gone through the whole 30 acres a second time, would possess a farm of that extent tolerably free from stumps.

From this reasoning, it would appear that 30 acres of tillage land, and 20 acres of wood land, making together 50 acres, constitute such an allotment as would subsist an industrious settler and his family by the produce of one-half of his labour, leaving the other portion of his

time available to the community, and affording him the means of advancing his position in society.

The object of the Government in the plan now in operation at the Owen's Sound settlement, being to give such a quantity of land, and no more, as will best carry into effect the objects in view: it would seem that in giving 50 acres, under the restrictions imposed, that plan has been adopted which gives the greatest amount of benefit to the settler at the least expenditure of the public land.

The employment upon the proposed road, in connexion with the free grants, will not only enable the settler to bear up against the hardships and difficulties of his first settlement, but will enable his exertions to be beneficially employed for the improvement of the other lands of the Crown.

Copy of a Despatch from Lord Sydenham to Lord John Russell.

} GOVERNMENT HOUSE,
} Montreal, Jan'y. 26, 1841.

MY LORD,

I have the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith, copies of the annual Report of the Agent for Emigrants at Quebec, and of a Report from the agent at Toronto, on the subject of the Emigration to these Provinces during the year 1840. Appended to these reports are communications from the sub-agents, and other documents, containing the most detailed information which it has been possible to collect in regard to the numbers and description of the emigrants, their conduct, the capital which they brought out, and the places in which they have settled.

The general result of these reports I consider as highly satisfactory. The emigration during the past season, as I had anticipated, has greatly exceeded that of the last few years; the emigrants appear to have been universally well conducted, and several of them are possessed of considerable property. The great bulk have settled in these provinces, and there is every reason to expect that they will do well.

I avail myself also of the present opportunity to put your Lordship in possession of the views which I have been led to form upon the question of emigration to these Provinces.

Very erroneous ideas appear to prevail in England on the subject. It seems to be supposed that every individual in the station of a day labourer, who can succeed in reaching the shores of North America, is at once amply provided for, and that every person, who with a few hundred pounds comes out and purchases land, whether they have any previous knowledge of agriculture or not, becomes at once a wealthy farmer.

These extravagant ideas are of course disappointed, and great distress and misery have followed. It appears to me, therefore, of the first importance that all visionary expectations of this nature should be discouraged.

Emigration to America holds out none of these brilliant prospects of rapid affluence; but at the same time it is secure, under proper management, from the risk of equally rapid failure. It is no lottery, with a few exorbitant prizes, and a large majority of blanks, but a secure and certain investment in which a prudent and reasonable man may safely embark. It may be affirmed, without fear of contradiction, that no industrious well behaved man ever failed on this continent to make an easy livelihood by his labour—that no capitalist who, with a fair share of agricultural knowledge, or with a disposition to profit by the experience of others, has chosen to invest his money in the purchase of land, has ever had reason to complain of the insufficiency of his return. Almost any laborer with good conduct and perseverance may in a few years become a land-holder. Almost any farmer possessed of moderate capital may, by the same means, become eventually possessed of valuable landed property, and be enabled to place his family in a state of independence. But these results are not to be snatched as the prize of a fortunate speculation, they are to be attained as the reward of a course of perseverance, industry, and steadiness. This picture may appear to some discouraging, to my mind it is quite the reverse. By showing that every man's fortune is in his own hands, that to good conduct success is certain, and that scarcely any thing is left to chance, it holds out, I think, the strongest inducements to all the better description of emigrants. I have no fear that its general publication will have any other than a good effect.

I shall now proceed to notice the direct means by which emigration should be encouraged, and in doing so I shall take occasion to advert to the reports made to your Lordship by the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, of the general tenor of which I have already had the satisfaction of expressing my approval.

In the Reports addressed to your Lordship on the 21st April and 5th August last, the Commissioners enter on the question of granting assistance from the Imperial Treasury towards the passages of emigrants, and in the latter report they throw out considerable doubts as to the expediency of applying in that way any sum that might be granted by Parliament for emigration. In these doubts I more than concur. I have no hesitation in pronouncing such a measure inexpedient. The sum that could be obtained from Parliament must, under any circumstances, be inconsiderable, and adequate, therefore, to the transport of a very few;

its application would be attended with great difficulty, and would become the object of every description of jobbing, and at last it would probably be impossible to secure its appropriation to its legitimate purpose. But if not so appropriated it would in reality be a boon, not to the emigrant, but to the landlord or parish, which, but for the grant must have borne the expense. It would, besides, have a most injurious effect, since, by raising extravagant expectations, as to the future intentions of Government, it would paralyze all individual exertion.

For these reasons I am of opinion that no attempt should be made by Parliamentary grant to pay the passages of emigrants. The inducements to parishes and landlords are sufficiently strong to make them undertake the burthen, and they know better how to apply their means than the Government could possibly do. But I am not the less of opinion that Parliament may very fairly be expected to contribute towards the expenses of emigration, and I shall now point out the several objects to which I think such a contribution should be principally directed.

From the weekly reports from time to time transmitted to your Lordship, from Mr. Buchanan's present report, and more than all, from the report of the medical superintendent at Grosse Isle, which accompanied my despatch of the 26th ultimo, your Lordship will perceive the necessity of taking steps to ensure to emigrants more ample protection and assistance, both before and during their passage. This may, to a certain extent, be accomplished by amending the present Passengers' Act, and making more effectual provision for its future enforcement; but other measures will likewise be necessary, to which I shall presently call your attention.

You will observe, that of the emigrants who proceed to Canada, a large proportion, even when they embark, are insufficiently provided with clothes, with bedding or provisions; that in many cases they have about them the seeds of disease, arising from the destitution and misery in which they have been living previous to embarkation, and that as a necessary consequence great sickness and mortality occur on the voyage, and immediately after their arrival in Canada.

Against destitution and, to a certain extent, disease, on the part of the poorer emigrants, it is impossible altogether to guard; but from the reports to which I have referred, it is evident that a great part of these evils are caused by the fraudulent practices on the part of passenger agents, by the rapacity of the ship charterers, and by misconduct of the officers during the voyage. Here, then, is the first object for which Government assistance is required; viz. to increase the efficiency of the Government agents at the outports, and to put down the

system of kidnapping which is said to be practised by travelling passenger agents. If this be done, and if the emigrant agents and custom-house officers do their duty, scenes such as those described by Dr. Douglas cannot recur.

I take it for granted that the existing law would be sufficient to punish the frauds practised by passenger agents; but if not, a provision should be introduced in the Passenger Act to meet that case. Strict care should likewise be taken in every instance where an emigrant vessel is detained beyond the time appointed for her sailing, to enforce the 14th clause of the existing Act against the master. The emigrant agents by making it their practice to visit the places where emigrants are generally lodged when waiting for their passage, and by attentively observing the proceedings of the passenger vessels at their respective stations, might, I conceive, easily perform this duty. I would further suggest to your Lordship whether some steps might not be taken, either by the Government, or in communication with the municipal authorities at Liverpool, to provide accommodation for emigrants resorting to that port to embark for America.

For the protection of the emigrant during the passage, Mr. Buchanan has, in the Appendix to his report, suggested several alterations of the Passengers' Act; in which, so far as they regard the further limitation of the number of passengers in proportion to tonnage, the prohibition of the sale of ardent spirits, the enforcement of the penalties in a summary way before the local magistrates, and the extension of the Act to all vessels carrying steerage passengers, I entirely concur. Of the importance of the last of these provisions the Report before me affords full proof, it appearing that in the case of the "—————" the clearest evidence of misconduct on the part of the Captain and the un-seaworthiness of the ship was of no avail, because the number of Passengers was less by four than that allowed by the Passengers' Act. I must presume that it was from this circumstance only that the vessel was allowed by the emigrant agent at Glasgow to proceed to sea in so un-seaworthy a state.

The third and fourth clauses of the Passengers' Act, if faithfully complied with, would appear sufficiently to regulate the provisioning of emigrant vessels.

The fifth clause imposes on the officers of customs the duty of seeing that the preceding clauses are obeyed, but I regret to state that this duty is notoriously neglected; and I am not aware that any censure has ever followed that neglect. In order, however, to ensure greater vigilance in future, I would suggest that at all ports where an emigrant agent is stationed, the customs' officers should be directed not to give a clearance to any vessel coming within the purview of the Passengers' Act,

without having previously received from the agent a certificate that the provisions of that Act have been complied with.

I would further propose that besides the amount of food specified in the Act, emigrants should be required to bring on board with them clean bedding and sufficient clothes, and that the master of the vessel should be responsible for keeping the decks clean and healthy during the voyage.

But no law will be effectual to protect the emigrants during the voyage, unless some person clothed with sufficient authority to enforce it, be placed by Her Majesty's Government on board the emigrant vessels, or at least on board of those which carry the larger number of emigrants. Once at sea, the emigrants are necessarily in the hands of the captain. Whatever extortion or oppression he may exercise towards them they have no power to resist, and from the difficulty of enforcing the penalties when they arrive at their destination, from the indisposition of the emigrants to be detained to prosecute him, and from their ignorance of their own rights, he may be tolerably confident of escaping with impunity. A government agent on board, who might very properly combine in his person the duties of medical attendant, would prevent these evils, and he might also be charged with the custody of the emigrants' own provisions, so as to prevent the waste which is said now to prevail; and be armed with authority to enforce personal cleanliness among them. I would earnestly request that whatever sum may be granted by Parliament towards emigration, a portion of it may be devoted to this important object.

The next object to which I would propose to devote a portion of any Parliamentary grant, would be to aid the funds of these Provinces in providing relief and medical attendance for those who arrive destitute or in sickness on these shores, and in assisting the able-bodied to proceed to the districts where their services may be available.

I had expected before this time to have informed your Lordship of the exact amount expended in this service during the year 1840, but difficulties have occurred in the settlement of some of the accounts which have made this impossible. I trust, however, that the sum will not much exceed the amount placed by your Lordship at my disposal.

The number who have been assisted to proceed to the Upper Province will appear to your Lordship very large, and no doubt many persons obtained such assistance who were well able to pay for their passage. But in the height of the season, when perhaps several thousand emigrants arrive in the course of a few days, it is impossible for the emigrant agent to ascertain accurately the circumstances of each individual; and it is most important that emigrants

should not be allowed to remain unemployed in the towns. The public works in Montreal once commenced, afforded the means of testing the applications for relief of those who reached this city; and I trust that before next spring some similar works may be in progress in the vicinity of Quebec. Still much expense must be incurred to forward the stream of emigrants to those places where their labour may be most useful and productive, and where they may become permanent settlers. Its amount will probably be much reduced in future years by the competition on the St. Lawrence of the new steamboats, which are now building for the Government and the conveyance of the mails, and by the formation of new forwarding companies on the Ottawa and Rideau. Heretofore the forwarding on those rivers and their canals has been a monopoly, the lock at St. Anne's Rapids being in the hands of a private company—but before the opening of the navigation in the spring, another lock will be completed at the public expense, and the forwarding business will be thus thrown open to public enterprise. The same cause will also, I trust, put an end to the inconvenience and suffering to which the emigrants are now exposed in their passage from Montreal to Bytown and Kingston, and will in so far diminish the causes of sickness among them.

My despatch of the 14th inst., No. 214, and the documents which accompany it, will have fully explained to your Lordship the nature of the arrangements which I propose to make for settling on wild lands, either in connexion with some public works or otherwise, emigrants for whom employment cannot be found. This is another object to which I would propose to apply a portion of any grant from the Imperial Treasury, more especially in localities where, from political reasons, it may be important to encourage settlement, and to which in ordinary circumstances settlers could not resort. In Lower Canada, from the peculiarity of its original settlement, and from its subsequent political history, there are many such localities, exclusive of those great lines of communication between Quebec and the seaboard provinces, and between the St. Lawrence and the townships, in which the expediency of encouraging settlement requires no argument. But this is an object which must be considered as pertaining to Imperial as much as to local interests, and there would be an evident inconvenience in applying to the local legislature for assistance towards it.

Lastly, I would propose to apply such a grant towards the promotion of public works, in which must eventually be found the great means of employing those emigrants who are not absorbed by the existing demand for labour. Some of these works, such, for instance, as the establishment of a communication between Lakes Huron and Ontario, the improvement of the

road between Quebec and Fredericton, and the opening a water communication between Missiskoui Bay and the Richelieu, thus giving us a better communication with Lake Champlain, are of national importance, as being necessary to the military defence of the country in the event of a war. The establishment of one or more harbours on the shores of Lake Erie is another work of the most pressing necessity, and one which the province cannot be expected of itself to undertake. There are others, such as the Welland Canal, in which the Crown already possesses a large stake, and the completion of which is no less essential in a political than a commercial point of view. I more especially advert to the Welland Canal, because it is at this moment one of the most important works in Canada. During the last season the revenue derived from it was one-third greater than in any preceding year; and there is every prospect of our obtaining the passage through it of all the western trade. But if this Canal were allowed to fall into decay, the Americans would renew their favourite project of a Canal on their side of the river, and would be encouraged to proceed in the works which they have already commenced for the enlargement of the Erie Canal.

The settlement of emigrants on wild lands, taken in connexion with the exertions which individual landowners are now prepared to make for the same purpose, and the prosecution of the great public works to which I have alluded, will absorb a very considerable number of emigrants. The municipal bodies also which, under the ordinance recently passed by the Special Council, will at an early date be called into being in Lower Canada, may reasonably be expected, by undertaking public works, to create a considerable demand for labourers in this province; and I trust that those improvements which in Upper Canada have been commenced by individual enterprise, or from provincial resources, may to a great extent be resumed in the spring.

There is, moreover, a spirit of renewed activity and enterprise among the whole British population in both provinces, which affords ample security that no difficulty will arise in finding employment for well conducted emigrants; and it will be my endeavour to turn these fortunate circumstances to the best advantage. With this view I shall take all the means in my power, through the land agents distributed in the different sections of the province, and through other channels, to ascertain the wants and capabilities of each, the inducements which they hold out to the emigrant, and the facilities which they may afford for his permanent settlement. All the information which I can collect on those points will be communicated to the emigrant agents at Quebec and Montreal, so that the emigrant on his arrival may at once be enabled to decide to what point

it will be most advantageous to him to proceed.

I have already directed that, to prevent the delay and expense to which purchasers of land have heretofore been exposed, every land agent in the province should for the future be furnished by the Commissioners of Crown Lands with diagrams and specifications of all Crown Lands for sale within his district.

To guard against double sales, the land agent must of course communicate with the central office before concluding a sale; but the delay thus caused will be comparatively unimportant.

I am convinced that this alteration will be received as a great boon by the inhabitants of these provinces.

With a view also to facilitate the settlement of the provinces, I further propose to invite individual proprietors who may desire to sell their lands, to send in descriptions, with all necessary particulars, to the offices of the several Crown Lands agents. Those officers will not, however, act in any way as private agents, or undertake to sell private lands; they will merely afford the means of informing the public of the extent of lands to be sold in each district, the name of the owner, and the price demanded. Proprietors taking advantage of this arrangement would be required to pay a small fee for the custody of their charts and papers, the amount of which I shall settle with the Commissioners of Crown Lands.

It may be objected that such an arrangement will, for the present at least, tend to diminish the sales of land the property of the Crown, and to some extent this will probably be the case; but the settlement of the country in the most advantageous manner is so much more important for the public interests than the present amount of the land revenue, that I look upon this objection as of no importance.

Your Lordship will allow me to suggest, that every means should be taken to urge on intending emigrants the necessity of arriving in the country as early as possible after the opening of the navigation. The season is so short, that unless a settler is on his land by the beginning of June, there is no chance of his being able to make any provision for his subsistence before the ensuing winter; while during the winter the severity of the weather precludes almost all out-door labour. It is likewise important to the health of the emigrants that they should arrive before the great heat of the summer commences.

I shall take an early opportunity of transmitting to your Lordship the answers to the questions prepared by the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners. I have caused them to be distributed very generally throughout all the provinces, and some delay has oc-

curred in my receiving the answers; several, however, have now reached me, and as delay cannot but be inconvenient, I shall prefer sending the information I have already obtained to waiting till it shall be more perfect.

You will observe that in the preceding pages I have not referred to that part of the report of the Commissioners of the 21st April last, which relates to the assistance of emigrants out of funds raised in the colony. As the whole revenues of the United Province, whether arising from the sale of land or any other source, are, after certain deductions, placed by the Union Act at the disposal of the Legislature, and as those revenues will probably for some years be not more than sufficient to defray the burthens now imposed on them and to provide for the public works which must be continued, it has appeared to me unnecessary to enter on a subject which could lead to no practical result.— But I must observe, in respect to the Canada and the British North American Companies, that the bargain which they originally made

with the Crown would, under proper management, have been so advantageous that they appear to me to have no claim to any peculiar indulgence in the matter of emigration. In respect to the North American Colonial Association of Ireland, I can only state that their operations have been very much kept out of view in this country; but as far as they are known, I should be sorry to see the Government in any way connected with or countenancing them. If the shareholders were to be alone the sufferers, it would be of little moment, but I anticipate serious consequences whenever the unfortunate persons who may have made purchases of land of this company shall arrive to take possession of their property, if it has been acquired on the terms set forth in the prospectus which has been published.

I have, &c.

(Signed)

SYDENHAM.

The Right Hon.

Lord John Russell, &c.

THE RELATIVE COST AND ADVANTAGES OF MACADAMIZED, PLANK, AND TIMBER ROADS.

The following Report on Roads is made by a Civil Engineer of this Province. The subject of our public roads is one of paramount importance, and we receive with great satisfaction any statement or calculation founded, as those contained in the following paper most undoubtedly are, on sound practical knowledge.

A celebrated writer has remarked, that the state of the civilization of a country may be judged of by the condition of its roads. We hope the estimate of the civilization of Canada will not be made during the months of March and April, or during those of November and December. Bad as our roads are proverbially, they probably have never been worse than during the last two months. Wheel carriages have been in many directions out of the question, and where they have been used, they have travelled at between one and two miles an hour only, and then attended with a distressing exercise of animal labour, as well as of money in the repair of wheels and harness. Mails have for the most part been carried on horse-

back, and have been days after their usual time. Bridges have been swept away, at a great loss to the country, and to the very serious detriment of farmers and men of business.

All these evils loudly demand a remedy, and that remedy can only be found in the adoption of an entirely new system in the management of both our roads and bridges.

We look with anxiety and yet with confidence, to the establishment of the new board of works for remedial measures to these real evils.

We cannot too strongly enforce upon the minds of the Farmers of Canada the views expressed in the March number of the *Review*, in which is pointed out, as we believe most truly, to how great a degree they may, by a proper mode of procedure, improve the roads themselves, and obtain the two important advantages, of good roads on which to travel, and a profitable employment for their teams and labour in making them.

Farmers should never forget that the difference to them between a bad and a good road

makes in the mere carriage from 6d. to 1s. per bushel on wheat, from 3d. to 6d. on barley, and from 2d. to 4d. on oats; to say nothing of the advantage of being able to choose their own time of going to market.

Nothing can be more important to a community than to *reduce the cost of production*—in this consists the true policy of the agriculturist. In this is to be found his legitimate profit, and his surest protection. Whether is it best that a farmer shall obtain high prices for his wheat, with a defective crop and impassable roads, or that he keeps the price moderate, and is enabled to diminish the cost of production? If it cost the farmer 1s. per bushel to carry his wheat to market, the price must be 1s. higher, or his profit is diminished; if he can reduce the cost of carrying his wheat to market to 6d., he gets an extra sixpence for every bushel he sells. The price of wheat is not in this country governed altogether by the cost of production; we have to compete with the whole world, and our policy is evidently to keep down the price of production by every possible means in our power. This is to be done principally in two ways, namely, by the improvement of our agriculture—in other words, the increase of our crops of grain and other produce; and the diminution of expense in sending it to market.

Nor does this apply to our roads alone, a reduction in the freight of goods directly benefits the Farmer. Merchants ascertain the value of agricultural produce, not only in England, but all over the world; wherever they can get a profit, to that place they will export it. A very large item in these expenses is carriage and freight; wherever, then, these can be reduced, we increase the demand, and an advance in price is the consequence.

If, for example, it now costs 5s. per barrel to send Canadian flour to the London market, and from some improvement in the means of transport it can be reduced to 2s. 6d., probably the charge of 5s. may amount to a prohibition, because it will leave no profit; whereas 2s. 6d. would enable a merchant to make a profit to that amount on his cargo; in the one case he *would not buy, and it would be a dull market* to the farmer; in the other case the demand would be brisk, and a good price, as well as ready sale, would be the result.

It must also be borne in mind that the Farmer indirectly bears the consequences of high

prices. If provisions be dear, it will stop emigration. People come to Canada to live cheaply; if the high price of provisions put a stop to emigration labour is high, because the demand for it is great, and the high price of labour is the Canadian Farmer's greatest curse. The motto of all Canadians should therefore be, improved agriculture and good roads, and other things will follow of course.

We now present the following Report on the comparative cost and relative advantages of Macadamized, Plank, and Timber Roads.

MACADAMIZED ROAD.

A Macadamized Road, with a metal bed 16 feet in width, and 10 inches in depth, will in practice require about 330 toise of broken stone, of 216 feet the toise, per mile.

The cost of stone necessarily varies in different parts of the Province; in the Western District, as well as in parts of others, there is literally no stone for many miles together.

Where granite boulders are numerous, they may be collected and delivered on the side of the road at eight dollars the toise; where they have to be carried a considerable distance the cost will be higher in proportion; a toise of granite boulders weigh from eight to ten tons according to the size of the stone.

Where limestone formations exist near the sides of a line of road, the quarrying will cost from 5s. to 7s. the toise, to which must be added 5s. for throwing upon the road. They will, with the breaking at 18s., furnish a supply of stone at five dollars the toise, which is the lowest possible price at which stone can be procured.

The price paid for breaking granite boulders is from 30s. to 36s. the toise; for breaking limestone, from 15s. to 25s., according to its hardness. An expert hand will, however, earn at these prices large wages, from \$1½ to \$2 per day, an inexperienced or a lazy man will not earn half a dollar.

The best Macadamized Roads are those which are made of three parts of granite and one part of limestone or sandstone.

The cost of ditching, draining, forming the abutments, with making the metal bed, under ordinary circumstances may be estimated at about Four Hundred Pounds the mile.

This is, however, independent of lowering hills, building bridges, or large culverts, or cutting extensive lateral drains, the cost of which, when necessary, must be added.

The cost of lowering hills will depend upon their elevation, nature of the soil, whether rock or otherwise; the cost of bridges on the width of the streams, and the nature of the foundation, proximity of materials, &c. Taking 20 miles together in Upper Canada, probably £200 per mile may be a fair estimate for lowering hills and building bridges; this is, however, necessarily vague, and altogether dependant upon circumstances.

A great deal of money has been wasted in pursuing a straight line over hills, a better as well as a cheaper road can be generally made by skirting a hill.

It is no farther round the side of an orange than over the top of it.

A very mistaken practice has prevailed in Canada in the method of repairing macadamized roads.

It has frequently happened that before an experienced Engineer has completed his work, or probably when he has made a mile or two only, his services are dispensed with, and his place occupied by some one whose services can be obtained at a cheaper rate, (and not unfrequently by one of his foremen,) who is altogether ignorant of the first principles of road making, and wholly destitute of experience, or of the necessary practical or scientific knowledge requisite for either making or repairing roads.

The consequence is, that from want of proper attention the road is allowed to become rutty, and from the unequal settlement of the metal there are many hollow places, which if not properly managed, or injudiciously repaired, produce a loss of reputation to the Engineer,

whilst the public sustain the double inconvenience of having to travel on a bad road, and of encountering the heavy expense of heaping on a quantity of new material, which raises the road too high in the middle, and at a cost twenty times greater than the charge of occasional inspection by a competent and experienced Engineer.

The labour of one man will keep in repair three miles of well made and well drained Macadamized road for the first two years after its formation, and four miles for the two years after that. By constantly raking the loose stones into inequalities in the road, and by also raking into the middle from the sides those which have been forced up by the constant pressure of heavy weights in the centre, scraping off the mud, opening water courses, &c.

During the fifth year the road may require to be "lifted," that is (technically) picking up with a sharp well-steeled pick-axe about two inches in depth of the solid metal bed, and spreading it very evenly over the entire surface. This will cost about 9d. per running yard.—The lower parts of the bed having become a solid mass, equally hard throughout, if this operation be well performed, the road will be better than ever it has been, perfectly free from inequalities on its surface, and will bid defiance to any weather or to any loads which may be drawn upon it, without fresh materials, for at least two years longer; when, if the metal-bed from its wear has become thin, a covering of two inches of new material may be laid on.

The first mile of macadamized road made in Upper Canada, namely, that on Yonge Street, near Toronto, was constructed in 1832. No repair whatever was done to it for seven years, and then a very slight one only,—and probably no single mile of macadamized road has been more severely tried. Allowing for the natural compression of the material, it has not now in 1841, lost two inches of its original substance.

The following is a calculation of the cost of an ordinary mile of road, without taking into account lowering hills, building bridges, engineering, compensation for land, toll-gates, &c.

330 Toise of Stone delivered on the side of the road at £2	£600
Breaking 330 toise at 50s. per toise.....	495
Forming, ditching, draining, &c.....	400

£1555

It must be recollected that 40s. is the very lowest price at which stone can be procured in the Upper Province, when it can be procured at all; and that 30s. for breaking is lower than it has generally cost.

In order to form a proper estimate of the advantages of plank roads over macadamized, it

should be remarked, that including lowering hills and bridges, the Hamilton and Yonge Street Roads have cost nearer £3000 per mile, —the Kingston and Napanee about £2000,—and the Brockville and St. Francis, the cheapest road yet made, about £1300 per mile.

The following is a calculation of the cost to the public of a Macadamized Road for a period of eight years, upon the most moderate scale on which such a road can be constructed in any part of Upper Canada west of Kingston.

		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
	Original cost of a mile as before stated.....	1555	0	0			
At the end of the	Cost of Repair.....	20	0	0			
1st year.....	One year's interest*.....	90	0	0			
					110	0	0
2d year.....	Cost of repair.....	20	0	0			
"	One year's interest.....	99	8	0			
					119	8	0
3d year.....	Cost of repair.....	15	0	0			
"	One year's interest.....	107	9	0			
					122	9	0
4th year.....	Cost of repair.....	15	0	0			
"	Interest.....	113	9	0			
					123	9	0
5th year.....	Cost of repair by lifting 1760 yards at 9d.....	66	0	0			
"	Interest.....	121	10	6			
					137	10	0
6th year.....	Cost of repair.....	20	0	0			
"	Interest.....	132	11	0			
					152	11	0
7th year.....	Cost of repair.....	20	0	0			
"	Interest.....	141	11	0			
					161	11	0
8th year.....	Repair by a coating of new material two inches, requiring 66 toises of stone at £3 10.....	231	0	0			
	Interest.....	151	12	0			
					382	12	0
	The entire cost of the road to the public at the end of eight years.....				2919	10	0

* Fractional parts of interest are not calculated.

Under the mode of management before described, it is assumed that the road will be as good as new at the end of this period.

PLANK ROADS.

The plank road between Toronto and Rouge is three inches thick and sixteen feet in breadth, laid cross ways, with longitudinal sleepers six inches by four, of pine timber.

The timber for this road was supplied, and the whole work done by contract, and cost the public £800 per mile.

The forming of a road through a settled country where the greater number of stumps have been removed or have decayed, may be estimated at about £100 per mile, but this supposes that the ditches have been tolerably well taken up and the water carried off.

It will be safer, however, to estimate for twenty miles together, including culverts, and the necessary improvement to the drains, £200 per mile.

It is believed that a plank road will last at the very shortest period eight years, and

very probably ten years, so as that with prompt and judicious repair, it will not require to be renewed in a shorter period.

Part of the plank road alluded to has been laid five years, and has required no repair. In order, however, that the statement with reference to plank roads may be fully relied on, it has been made in every way rather to exceed the actual cost than to be below it. The remaining part of that road has been laid four years. On examining the part first laid, it was found that the wear was equal to about half an inch only; and it may be observed that nearly every carriage travels on the middle of the road. Judging from the amount of tolls paid up to January, 1840, the extent of travelling was equal to about two-thirds of that on the macadamized road on Yonge Street. It is,

however, believed, that since that period the carriage of pine cord wood has so much increased as to make it nearly the same; at any rate, the road has been exposed to as severe a test of wear and tear as any road is likely to be for many years to come in the Province, and far beyond what will be the case in general. It is confidently believed therefore that the repair and renewal of the road will not exceed the following estimate:—

At the end of five years.....	£ 50
Ditto, six years.....	100
Ditto, seven years.....	200
Ditto, eight years.....	300
	£850

With the above repairs the road will be as good as new at the end of eight years.

A calculation of the cost of a Plank Road at the end of eight years, reckoning repairs, interest of money expended, &c.

		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
End of the 1st year	} Original cost of the timber and fixing, with forming the same £200.....	800	0	0		
			48	0	0	
2d year.....	Ditto do.....	50	5	0		
3d year.....	Ditto do.....	53	8	0		
4th year.....	Ditto do.....	57	5	0		
5th year.....	Ditto do.....	60	0	0			
"	Required repairs.....	50	0	0			
6th year.....	Interest.....	70	5	0			
"	Repairs.....	100	0	0			
7th year.....	Interest.....	80	6	0			
"	Repairs.....	200	0	0			
8th year.....	Interest.....	97	8	0			
"	Repairs.....	300	0	0			
The entire cost of a plank road to the public at the end of eight years will be.....		1366	15	0		

COMPARATIVE VIEW.

Cost of a Macadamized Road to the public for a period of eight years.....	£2919	10	0
Cost of a Plank Road for the same period.....	1966	15	0
Saving to the public.....	952	15	0

It is assumed in this estimate, that both roads are in a perfect state of repair and as good as new at the end of this period.

TIMBER ROADS.

A model of a plank road, together with one of timber, was submitted by the writer of this

report, and both strongly recommended, so long ago as 1832, to Sir John Colborne, who declared it to be his intention of trying both as soon as circumstances admitted. Nine years have been required to bring the plank road into notice, and the timber road has never been tried in this province, though it has been extensively resorted to in Russia.

The timber road is constructed as follows:—

Trees of the most durable kind are felled, and a slab either sawed or hewed from each side; it is then sawed down the middle the reverse way, which gives two half trees of any given length or dimensions; these with the sawed side uppermost, form the surface of the road.

Sleepers are laid either horizontally or laterally, buried in the earth, to which the timber forming the face of the road is to be fixed by trenails.

These half trees which form the road may be laid either lengthways or crossways; if lengthways, the sleepers are laid the reverse, and it is proposed to cut a mortise in the end to allow of a strong wedge to be driven in to force the timbers which compose the road close together; dowels are also to be inserted between the half trees to prevent shaking or deflection, and thus to form the whole into a solid and inflexible mass.

The timber may be of pine, chesnut, elm, oak, black ash, cedar, or red beech.

It is believed that a road so formed will be more durable than a plank road,—it will not cost more in any case, and in new portions of the country where saw-mills are few and distant, will cost much less, especially if the sawing be done by a portable saw machine.

It is asserted that such roads from their solidity will, (especially if laid longitudinally,) diminish the force of traction of wheel carriages.

GENERAL REMARKS.

The foregoing calculations shew that plank roads (or timber) may be made throughout the Province at about half the cost to the country of macadamized roads, even when they can be

made for £1500 per mile, which is very seldom the case.

They also shew that after taking into account the expense of keeping both in a continued state of perfect repair, that a great saving is effected by the adoption of plank over macadamized roads.

The estimate is made on a supposition that a plank road will require to be renewed every eight years, whereas from the present appearance of the road leading to Kingston there is every reason to believe that it will last much longer,—and it is asserted by many that a well made timber road will last full twelve years.

Plank roads or timber roads are far more agreeable to travel, are less noisy, less dusty in dry weather, and less muddy in wet weather, than macadamized roads, causing much less wear to the tire of wheels, and far less injurious to the feet of horses, whose shoes will wear three times as long, or which indeed are scarcely required. The carriages are drawn with much less labour, and if required they offer great facilities to the use of locomotives, when the country shall require them.

Plank or timber roads convert to useful purposes a vast quantity of timber otherwise valueless.

They can be made with much greater celerity than macadamized roads, and require in their construction only such materials as farmers and others have to dispose of, namely, timber, axemen, rough carpenters, labourers and teams,—and can be prepared in the winter months.

Above all, from their cheap construction they will admit of half the amount of the toll which is necessary to sustain macadamized roads, thus aiding the farmer in the cost of transport, and diminishing his expenses,—and consequently benefiting all classes of the community.

And finally, by the diminished amount required as compared with macadamized roads, the same sum will make substantial plank or timber roads on all our roads, both side line and concession roads, as will be necessary to macadamize the principal high-ways through the Province.

THE INDIAN NATIONS.

A short account of the Customs and manners of the North American Indians, particularly of the Chippeway Nation. By KAHKEWAQUONABY, Indian Chief.

In view of the mournful fact, that before the white man came to this country, the red men were far more numerous and powerful than what they are at present, I have been led to enquire what have been the causes of the rapid decrease in the numbers of my countrymen. I have put the question to the Indian over whose head many winters have passed, who during his protracted life has seen the sun set over many of his fellows, never again to rise and shine upon the red man's wigwam that he might welcome the rising orb of day, and who has heard the expiring wail of a once numerous and powerful tribe. In reply he has given me the following picture:—

“My son, before the white man landed on our shores, the red men of the forest were numerous, powerful, wise, and happy; and at that time nothing but the weight of many winters brought them down to the grave. The mother could then rear up a large family. The game in the forest, and the fish in the waters supplied their wants abundantly. The Indian corn, grew rank and tall, brought forth much; and all had plenty to eat. The old men made their feasts, smoked their pipes, and thought upon their *munedoos* (gods); they sang and beat upon the *tawaegun* (drum), the young men and women danced; the powows visited the sick, sang, and invoked their gods, applied their medicines gathered from nature's stores, and so drove away the grim monster death. These were happy days of peace and plenty to our forefathers.

“My son, whilst our fathers were in this happy state, they cast their eyes towards the sun-rising, and beheld a big canoe making its appearance, which approached nearer and nearer to the shores of America, outraving the waves of the mighty waters. A strange people landed, wise as the gods, powerful as the thunder, with faces as white as the snow. Our fathers held out to them the hand of friendship; they then

asked for a small piece of land, on which they might pitch their tents. By and bye they begged for more, which was given them, and in this way they have continued ever since to ask, or take by force, what the Indians would not consent to give up. As the white man encroached, the Indian retired back to make room for him, and thus by little and little they have lost their hunting grounds and corn fields, being driven far from the land of comfort and plenty. Their children began to cry for food, their souls fainted for want, their clothes dropped from their backs, the fatal measles and small-pox came, (diseases unknown before,) and swept away the poor Indians by hundreds. Thus driven almost to despair, they were sometimes compelled to take up the tomahawk against their encroaching neighbours; but instead of conquering this only made way for a more general massacre. And then, as if disease and the musket could not mow down the Indian fast enough, the *fire waters* in the shape of a friend stepped in, and began to gnaw and eat their very vitals, debasing their morals, lowering their dignity, spreading fire-brands, confusion, and death!

My son, these are the things which have been the cause of the melting away of our forefathers like snow before a warm sun. The Great Spirit has been angry with us for our drunkenness, and for our many crooked ways.”

IDEAS OF THEIR ORIGIN.

For several years past I have made enquiry from the aged Sachems of the *Ojebway** nation of Indians, as to the ideas they and our forefathers entertained of our origin, and all the information I have been enabled to gain on this subject amounts to the following. That many, many winters ago, the Great Spirit, whom we call in

* Of which *Chippeway* is a corruption.

Ojebway *Keche-munedoo*, or *Kezha-munedoo*, made the Indians, and placed them on this continent. They consider that every nation speaking a different language is a separate creation; but that all were made by the same Supreme Being. How they were created they know not. They say that when the Great Spirit made the different nations of the earth, He gave them different languages, complexions, and religions, divers customs, manners, and modes of living. When He gave the Ojebways their religion, He told them how they were to act, and with this knowledge they think it would be wrong, and give great offence to their Creator, to forsake the old ways of their forefathers.

The different tribes of the Ojebway nation who now inhabit the shores of the Lakes, were called *Nahdoways*,* or *Hurons*, whom the Ojebways dispossessed of their country by conquest; after this the Nahdoways, acknowledging that they were conquered, freely gave up their country, at the same time entering into a treaty with the Ojebways, and agreeing ever after to call each other brethren, which treaty is still observed between the two nations.

Some tribes believe that a great man, endued with the spirit of the gods, by the name of *Nanabozho*, (the meaning of which is now lost,) made the world, and the Indians in America, soon after the flood; the tradition of which is preserved by the Ojebways.

After all that can be gathered from the wise old Indians and their traditions on this subject, it appears that their notions as to their origin are nothing but a mass of confusion; many of their traditions are founded on dreams, which will account for the numerous ridiculous stories current amongst them.

Much has of late years been said and written on the supposition of the North American Indians having descended from the *ten lost tribes of Israel*. There are many things to favour this opinion, and many against it. When I read the book called "The Star in the West," and "Smith's view of the Hebrews," I was strongly inclined to favour the theory; because many of the customs and sacrifices of the Indians, resemble very much those of the Chil-

dren of Israel, such as observing days of purification, offering the first fruits of the earth, burnt sacrifices, and reckoning time by moons. But on the other hand, they have no Sabbaths, no circumcision, no altars erected, and no distinction between clean and unclean animals.— It would seem almost impossible for the descendants of the Israelites ever to have lost the recollection of their sabbath-days, and the rite of circumcision, both of which were so solemnly enjoined upon them. The above-mentioned works give an account of circumcision existing amongst some tribes in the west: but I have enquired of several old Indian men whether they had ever heard of such a practice being observed by our forefathers previous to the landing of Europeans on the shores of America, and they have always expressed themselves quite ignorant on the subject.

From all I have heard and read on it, I am more inclined to favour the opinion that they are descendants of the Asiatic Tartars, as there appears to me, from the information I have on the subject, a more striking similarity in features, customs, and manners, between them and my countrymen than to any other nation.

THEIR HEATHEN RELIGION.

The various tribes of the Ojebway nation scattered along the shores of the great Lakes, universally believe in the existence of one great Supreme Being, whom they call *Keche-munedoo*, which literally means *The Great Spirit*, or *Kezha-munedoo*, the *Benevolent* or *Merciful Spirit*. Believing him to abound in love and mercy towards his creatures, they suppose him too great to concern himself with the follies of poor earthly beings, whose existence only lasts as it were for a day, his chief care being that of supplying their daily wants. *Munedoo* means a *spirit*, either good or bad. In order to designate the character or nature of the spirit they use the prefixes, as in the words above mentioned.

They also believe in the being of an evil spirit, whom they call *Mahje-munedoo*; this spirit they imagine possesses great power to injure any who dare to offend him, and in order to keep in friendship with him, and appease his anger, some have been known to offer sacrifices to this infernal spirit, so that he might not bring upon them death, illness, or bad luck in hunting. They moreover believe that there

* This word is also applied to the *Six Nations of Indians*.

are innumerable *subordinate gods*, or spirits who have particular control over the affairs of this world; for instance, they believe there is one god who has the charge of the *game*, another presides over the *fish* and the *water*, another controls the *winds* and the *storms*, and another the *vegetable* world.

These imaginary gods become the objects of their invocations when they are so circumstanced as to require their blessing; for instance, if an Indian wishes for success in a hunting excursion, he will direct his offering and prayer to the god who presides over the deer, the bear, or the beaver, (a wonderful game-keeper he must be) that success may attend him; or if he intends to catch many fish, or have a prosperous voyage, he will sacrifice to the god of the waters. I have known an Indian kill a black dog, and throw it into the Lake, that he might meet with no disasters whilst on his voyage. In this way the poor dark Indian ignorantly worships gods that are no gods at all.

The sun, moon, and stars, are also adored as gods. At the rising of the sun the old chiefs and warriors chaunt their songs of praise to welcome his return, and at the going down of the same they thank him for the blessings of the light and heat during the day.

When a visible eclipse of the sun takes place, the Indians are thrown into the greatest alarm. They call it the *sun's dying*, and suppose that he actually dies; in order to assist in bringing him to life again, they stick coals of fire upon the points of their arrows, and shoot them up into the air, that by them the expiring sun may be reanimated and rekindled. The moon and stars are revered for the light they give by night, enabling them to travel in the absence of the sun. I well remember when I was a little boy being told by our aged people that I must never point my finger to the moon, for if I did she would consider it a great insult, and instantly bite it off.

Besides the superintending gods above mentioned, they hold in great veneration certain animals, which they conceive to possess supernatural power, such as the wolf, fox, owl, toad, and all venomous snakes; and even many of their own brethren are highly esteemed, by passing themselves off as *powwots* or *conjurers*, and thus by their cunning art impose on the credulity of these deluded people. Any remarkable or terrific places become objects of supersti-

tious dread and veneration, from an idea that they are the abodes of gods; for instance, curious rocks, islands, mountains, caves, trees, falls, &c. Whenever they approach these, it is with the greatest solemnity, smoking a pipe, and leaving a little tobacco as an offering to the god of the hallowed spot. Falls are noted places for their tobacco offerings, as they think that the gods of the falls are very fond of this plant.

Near the Credit village, at the foot of a pointed hill, is a deep hole in the water, which is said to have been the abode of one of the water gods, where he was frequently heard to sing and beat his drum. When the white people began to frequent this place for the purpose of taking the salmon, this munedoo took his departure during a tremendous flood, caused by his power, and went down the river into Lake Ontario. In fact, every thing that strikes the dark, untutored mind of the Indian with awe and astonishment, becomes to him a subject of dread and adoration; no wonder then that *thunder* being far beyond his comprehension, is regarded as a most powerful god, and has given rise to many ridiculous stories. They consider the thunder to be a god in the shape of a large eagle that feeds on serpents, which it takes from under the earth, and the trunks of hollow trees. When a thunder-bolt strikes a tree or the ground, they fancy that the thunder has shot his fiery arrow at a serpent, and caught it away in the twinkling of an eye; some Indians pretend to affirm that they have seen the serpent taken up by the thunder into the clouds. They believe that the thunder has its abode on the top of a high mountain in the west, where it lays its eggs, and hatches its young like an eagle; and from whence it takes its flight into different parts of the earth in search of serpents.

In addition to their belief in the existence of these *general gods*, each *powow* or *conjurer* and *medicine-man* has his *personal* or *familiar gods*, which are of his own imagining; the method they take to obtain these is by fasting and watching.

The Indian youth, from the age of ten to manhood, are encouraged by their parents and the old people to fast, with the promise that if do, they will entertain them in the evening by the relation of one of their traditions or tales. Inspired with the hope of gaining favour with

some god, and looking forward to the promised reward at the end of the day,—they rise before the sun, take a piece of charcoal which they pound to powder, and with it blacken their faces; (the females only blacken the upper part of their faces); during their fast they abstain from all food and drinks; towards sunset they wash their faces, and then eat a little broth or soup which has been prepared for them, and in this way they go on for several successive days, the longer the better, and the more munedoos they will be likely to propitiate. All this time they notice every remarkable event, dream, or supernatural sound, and whichever of these makes the most impression on their minds during their fast, becomes their *personal munedoo* as long as they live, and in all emergencies and dangers they will call upon him for assistance. By the agency of these *munedoos*, they pretend to possess the power of bewitching one another, performing extraordinary cures, foretelling future events, and vanquishing their enemies.—If they chance to dream of seeing a *munedoo* standing on a rock in the Lake, they imagine they have obtained the assistance of a powerful god. To dream of seeing an old grey-headed man, is taken as a token of a long life; or of a pretty woman, that they will be blest with more wives than one. If they happen to dream of sharp-pointed instruments, or any thing that is proof against the arrow, tomahawk, or bullet, they fancy themselves proof against the shot of their enemy. When they dream of animals or fowls, they imagine they are invested with the same power of self defence in danger as these creatures possess. A poor Indian at Lake Huron used to boast that he had obtained the spirit of the bat!

OF THEIR TOOTAIMS.

Their belief concerning their divisions into tribes is, that many years ago the Great Spirit gave his red children their *Tootaims* or Tribes, in order that they might never forget that they were all related to each other. When an Indian in travelling meets with a strange band of Indians, all he has to do is to seek for those bearing the same emblem as his tribe, and having made it known that he belongs to their *Tootaims*, he is sure to be treated as a relative. Formerly it was considered unlawful for parties of the same tribes to intermarry, but of late years this custom is not observed. I have re-

marked that when the English speak of the different *nations* of Indians, they generally call them *Tribes*, which term is quite erroneous, as each *nation* is subdivided into a number of tribes, or clans, called "*Tootaims*, bearing some resemblance to the divisions of the twelve tribes of Israel mentioned in Scripture, and each tribe is distinguished by certain animals or things, as for instance, the Ojebway nation have the following *Tootaims*: the eagle, reindeer, otter, bear, buffalo, beaver, catfish, pike, birch-bark, white oak tree, bear's liver, &c.—The Mohawk nation have only three divisions, or tribes,—the turtle, the bear, and the wolf.

The *Eagle* tribe is called by us *Messissaugee*, a term commonly used by the "white people when speaking of the Indians residing at the River Credit, Rice Lake, Alnwick, Mud Lake, and Balsam Lake; but it is incorrect when it is applied to them as a body, for in these bands are found remnants of almost all the tribes existing among the Ojebways; and the Eagle Tribe or *Messissaugee* does not form more than about one quarter of the whole number of Indians residing at the above-mentioned places.

Another common mistake is, that the *Messissaugee* Indians are different from the Ojebways, whereas they are a part of that nation, and speak the same language.

From the great number of tribes found amongst the different nations, many of which are now extinct, there is no doubt but that they were once more numerous than they are now.

THEIR NOTIONS OF A FUTURE STATE.

All the Indians believe in the existence of the soul after the death of the body; but their ideas on this subject are very confused and absurd. The little knowledge they have is derived from persons who have been in trances, and travelled in their dreams to the unknown world of spirits, which they believe is towards the *sun-setting*. They believe that the souls of brave warriors, good hunters, the virtuous, and the hospitable, go there, and spend an eternity in carnal pleasures, such as feasting, dancing, singing, &c.; but the soul of the coward, the lazy hunter, the stingy, the liar, the thief, the adulterer, and the unmerciful, they imagine will wander about in unknown regions of darkness, and be exposed to the rage of wolves, bears,

panthers, &c., who will constantly bite and tear their flesh, and thus torment them for ever and ever. These are all the ideas the Indians have of a future state, and they can conceive of no greater degree of felicity as the reward of good and evil.

—
DISEASES.

The diseases most common amongst the Aborigines of America before the landing of Europeans, were few in comparison to the number of wasting diseases that are now rapidly thinning their numbers and debilitating their constitutions. There is a saying among our people, that in the days of our forefathers they were so exempt from sickness, that as the cedar tree which has stood the storms of many ages, shews the first symptoms of decay by dying at the top branches, so the aged Indian, sinking under the weight of many winters, betokens by his grey hairs and furrowed checks, that life is now declining.

The diseases most common to the Indians were consumption, pleurisy, cough, worms, and dysentery.

The measles, small-pox, hooping-cough, and other contagious disorders, were unknown to the Indians before the landing of the white man. But now they are subject to all these maladies, and suffer much from them, not knowing their nature; and being much exposed to the storms and winds, they take colds which increase the virulence of the complaint, and thus hurry thousands off the stage of life.

—
POWOWS OR MEDICINE-MEN.

Each tribe has its medicine-men and women, who are consulted and employed in all times of sickness. These powows are persons who have distinguished themselves by performing extraordinary cures either by the application of roots and herbs, or by incantations.

When an Indian wishes to be initiated into the order of a powow, in the first place he pays a large fee to the *faculty*; he is then taken into the woods, where he is taught the names and virtues of the various useful plants; after this he is instructed how to chaunt the medicine-song, and how to pray, which prayer is a vain repetition offered up to the Master of Life, or munedoo whom the afflicted imagine they have offended. The powows are held in high

reverence by their deluded brethren, not so much on account of their knowledge of medicine, as of the supposed magical power they possess, for they practice witchcraft, an account of which I shall give hereafter. It is to their interest to make these credulous people believe that they can at pleasure hold intercourse with the munedoos who are ever ready to give them the information they require.

I am acquainted with a noted medicine man (a chief) residing at the West, who by art and cunning has gained the fear of all the Indians who know him, so much so, that the other chiefs never undertake any thing of importance without consulting him; if he approves it is well, if not, the object is abandoned. This chief is quite like a patriarch among his people, and may be considered a rich pagan Indian, as he possesses many horses which run wild on the plains, and are only caught as he wishes to sell or use them.

It is said that he has obtained most of his possessions by his powowisms on the sick, and curing those who are bewitched. The powows are generally well paid for their performances, either by a gun, kettle, blanket, coat, or a gallon or two of whiskey; when the latter article is demanded and paid, the performance of the powow is sure to be crowned by a drunken frolic, in which the doctor joins with his companions for a whole night, singing, yelling, and beating a drum, much to the annoyance of the afflicted person whose sufferings are aggravated and death hastened by this cruel treatment.

—
WITCHCRAFT.

As the Powows always unite witchcraft with the application of their medicines, I shall now give a short account of this curious art.

Witches and Wizards are persons supposed to possess the agency of familiar spirits, from whom they receive power to inflict diseases on their enemies, prevent the good luck of the hunter, and the success of the warrior.

At their will and pleasure they are supposed to fly invisibly from one place to another, turn themselves into bears, wolves, foxes, owls, bats, and snakes, which feats they pretend to accomplish by putting on the skins of these animals, at the same time crying and howling in imitation of the creature they wish to represent.

Several of our people have informed me that they have seen and heard witches in the shape of these animals, especially the bear and the fox. They say that when a witch in the shape of a bear is being chased, all at once she will run round a tree or a hill, so as to be lost sight of for a time by her pursuers, and then, instead of seeing a bear, they behold an old woman walking quietly along, or digging up roots, looking as innocent as a lamb.

The fox witches are known by the flame of fire which proceeds out of their mouths every time they bark.

The way in which they are made is either by direct communication from the familiar spirit itself during the days of their fasting, or they are instructed by those skilled in the art.

The method they take to bewitch those who have offended them is thus :—The necromancer in the first place provides himself with a little wooden image, representing an Indian, and a bow and arrow ; then setting this figure up at a short distance before him, he will name it after the person he wishes to injure. He then takes the bow and arrow and shoots at the image, and wherever the arrow strikes, at that instant they say the person is seized with a violent pain in the same part.

I have been informed that formely when any notorious necromancer was suspected of having bewitched any one, they were often condemned by the councils of the different tribes to execution—but this was always done with great caution, lest the conjuror should get the advantage over them, and thus betwitch the whole assembly.

THEIR MEDICINES.

In describing the medicines used by the North American Indians, I am led to wonder and admire the wisdom and goodness of the Almighty in supplying them with such an abundant variety of remedies, every way suitable for the diseases common to their country and climate.

Our forests abound with medicinal plants, so that the powow who has obtained a knowledge of the virtue of roots and herbs, is never at a loss during the summer season for a supply, when he lays up a store for winter's use.

I have no doubt but our woods, plains, and marshes, could furnish a specific for every dis-

ease, if the virtues of the plants were better known ; for even with the limited knowledge the powows possess they are enabled to perform wonderful cures. I have known instances where persons who have been given over by the English doctors were completely restored to health by the simple administration of Indian medicines, and many of the white people who have great confidence in their beneficial effects will travel many miles to place themselves under the care of an Indian doctor.

Many of the healing plants are held in religious veneration, so much so, that even the *Muhshkemood* or *Medicine bag*, is considered to possess supernatural power to injure any who may dare to examine its sacred contents ; so afraid are the Indians of it, that it might lie for days and months in the wigwam without being touched.

The powows are very careful to instil this feeling of dread and veneration for the bag and its contents, that they may the more easily work upon the credulity of their subjects.

1st. *The Hunter's Medicine.* This is held in great esteem by all hunters ; it is made of different sorts of roots which he takes with him on his hunting excursion, a little of which he puts in his gun that it may take effect the first shot. He will also place a small portion of it in the first deer or bear's track he meets with, supposing that if the animals be two or three day's journey off they will come in sight of it in a short time, the charm possessing the power to shorten the journey from two or three days to two or three hours. To render the medicine more efficient, he will frequently sing the hunter's song, and I have known many a hunter sit up all night beating his *tawagun*, and then at day-light take his gun and go in quest of the game. This is generally done when an Indian imagines he has displeased the God of the game by not paying him that reverence which secures his success in the chase. The first animal he takes, he then devotes to the God of the game, making a feast, and offering part in sacrifice, by which he thinks to appease his wrath.

2d. *The Warrior's Medicine.* This consists of roots and herbs, and is highly esteemed by the Indians, who never fail to take it with them when they go out to war, believing that the possession of this medicine renders their bodies

invulnerable to the bullet, the arrow, and the spear.

3d. *Love Powder*. This is a particular kind of charm which they use when they wish to obtain the object of their affections. It is made of roots and red ochre; with this they paint their faces, believing it to possess a power so irresistible as to cause the object of their desire to love them. But the moment this medicine is taken away and the charm withdrawn, the person who before was almost frantic with love, now hates with a perfect hatred.

MODE OF BURYING THEIR DEAD.

As soon as an Indian dies his friends proceed to lay him out, on the ground, putting his best clothing on him, and wrapping the body in skins or blankets (coffins were formerly not known or used among them). After digging a hole about three feet deep, they generally in the course of twelve hours inter him, with the head towards the west. They there place by the side of the corpse, all his former war and hunting implements, such as his bow and arrow, tomahawk, gun, pipe and tobacco, knife, pouch, flint and steel, medicine bag, kettle, trinkets, and other articles which he carried with him when going on a long journey. The grave is then covered, and on the top of it poles or sticks are placed lengthways to the height of about two feet, over which birch bark or mats form a covering to secure the body from the rain. The relations and friends of the deceased then sit down in a circle round the head of the grave, when the usual offering to the dead is made, consisting either of meats, soup, or the *fire-waters*; this is handed to the people in bowls, a certain quantity being kept back for a burnt offering. Whilst this is preparing at the head of the grave, the old man, or speaker for the occasion, makes a prayer to the soul of the departed, enumerating his good qualities, imploring the blessing of the dead, that his spirit may intercede for them, that they may have plenty of game; he also exhorts his spirit to depart quietly from them. They believe that the soul partakes of a portion of the feast, and especially that which is consumed by fire. The evening on which the burial has taken place, when it begins to grow dark, all the men sue off their guns through the hole left at the top of the wigwam for the smoke to escape. As

soon as this firing ceases, the old women commence knocking and making such a rattling as would frighten away any spirit that dared to hover near. The next thing observed is to cut into narrow strips, like ribbon, their birch-bark, which they fold into shapes, and hang round inside the wigwam, so that the least puff of wind will move them; with such scare-crows as these, what spirit would venture to disturb their slumbers?

MANNER OF MOURNING FOR THE DEAD.

Immediately after the death of an Indian, all the near relatives go into mourning, by blackening their faces with charcoal, and putting on the most ragged and filthy clothing they can find, these they wear for a year, which is the usual time for mourning for a husband or wife, father or mother.

At the expiration of the year, the widow or widower is allowed to marry again; should they do this before the year expires, it is not only considered a want of affection for the memory of the dead, but a great insult to the relations, who have a claim on the person during the days of their mourning. The first few days after the death of their relative are spent in retirement and fasting; during the whole of their mourning they make an offering of a portion of their daily food to the dead, this they do by putting a part of it in the fire, which burns while they are eating. I have seen them make an offering of the *fire-waters* to the departed; they consider this is very acceptable, on account of its igniting the moment it touches the fire. Occasionally they visit the grave of the dead, and there make a feast, and an offering to the departed spirit; tobacco is never forgotten at these times. All the friends of the dead will for a long time wear leather strings tied round their wrists and ankles for the purpose of reminding them of their deceased relative.

It is a custom always observed by the widows to tie up a bundle of clothes in the form of an infant, frequently ornamented with silver brooches, this she will sleep with, and carry about with her for twelve months as a memorial of her departed husband. When the days of her mourning are ended, a feast is prepared by some of her relatives, at which she appears in her best dress, having for the first time for

a twelvemonth washed herself, she looks once more neat and clean.

—
FAIRIES.

The heathen Indians all believe in the existence of those imaginary little folks called *fairies*. The Ojebways call them *mamagwase-wug*, the hidden or covered beings. They believe them to possess the power of invisibility, but that they do sometimes shew themselves; many of the old Indians affirm that they have seen and talked with them. They say that they are about two or three feet high, walk erect, and have the human form, but that their faces are covered over with short hair. Several places have been pointed out to me as their residence before the white people became so numerous. One is a large pond near Burlington Bay, where the old Indians say they frequently saw them in a stone canoe; and when pursued they would paddle to a high bank, the moment the canoe struck the bank all would disappear, and nothing would be heard but a distant rumbling noise. The Indians suppose they had their abode inside the bank. Another tribe of fairies were said formerly to have resided on the east bank of the River Credit, about a mile from the Lake, where they often shewed themselves.

They are reported to be particularly fond of pieces of scarlet cloth, and smart prints, and whenever they appear to an Indian if he can only bestow some such gaudy present upon them, however small, the giver is sure to be rewarded either with long life, or success in hunting.

—
GIANTS OR WAINDEGOOS.

In my early days, I have often listened with wonder and deep attention to the stories related of the *waindegoos* or giants.

They are represented as beings tall as the pine trees, and powerful as the Munedoos.

In their travels they pull down and turn aside immense forests, as a man would the high grass he passes through.

They are said to live on human flesh, and whenever they meet an Indian they are sure to have a good meal; being also invulnerable to the shot of an arrow or bullet, they are the constant dread of the Indians. Persons who have been known to eat human flesh from starvation are also called *Waindegoos* after the giants.

INDIAN NAMES.

The names of the Indians are generally derived from some of the following objects—the sun, moon, stars, sky, clouds, wind, lakes, rivers, trees, animals, fowls, snakes.

As the wise and aged Indians have the best knowledge of the ancient names of their forefathers, and are the most capable of inventing new ones, the office of giving names is generally deputed to them. The following are specimens of Indian names, with their literal translations.—*Na-wuh-je-gee-zhe-grea-be*, The Sloping Sky. *O-me-wah-je-wun*,—His pleasant flowing stream. *Na-ning-ah-se-ga*,—The sparkling light or Sun. *Puh-oom-bwa wedung*,—The approaching roaring Thunder.—*Ah-zuh-wah-wuh-qua-dwa-be*,—The cloud that rolls beyond. *Nah-wuh-qua-yah-se-ga*,—The noon day shining sun. *Wah-be-gwuh-na*,—The white feather. *O-zah-wuh-shko-gee-zhig*,—The blue sky.

The female names are distinguished from the males, by the feminine termination of *quay*, or *goo-quay*. Any of the above names can be rendered feminine, as for example :—*Na-ning-ah-se-ga-quay*,—The sparkling light female.—*Nah-wuh-qua-yah-se-ga-quay*,—The noon day shining sun female. *O-zah-wuh-shko-gee-zhig-oo-quay*,—The blue sky female.

A singular fancy prevails among the Ojebways, with respect to mentioning their own names. When an Indian is asked his name, he will look at some bystander, and request him to answer. This reluctance arises from an impression they receive when young, that if they repeat their own names it will prevent their growth, and they will be small in stature. On account of this unwillingness to tell their names, many strangers have fancied that they either had none, or had forgotten them.

—
COURTSHIP AND MARRIAGE.

In forming marriage contracts, the most common practice observed by the Ojebways is for the parents of both parties to make up the match, very often without the consent or even knowledge of the young people. Sometimes this agreement is entered into when the children are young, and it generally happens that they yield to the arrangements made by their parents, not only without any courtship, but

frequently before they have spoken to each other. When the contract is not made by the parents, the Indian youth, having fixed his affections on some young woman, will make his wish known to his mother, or some particular friend, to whose care he commits the presents he has prepared for the occasion; these generally consist of a fine blanket, gown, and leggings for the object of his love; and a kettle, sack of corn, or some other article for her parents. If these presents are received, it is at once understood that the offer is accepted.— Since the introduction of the *fire-waters* they have found a sad substitute for the kettle, and other useful articles, as presents to the parents of the bride.

There is great reserve and decency observed by the young females, and not to maintain it would be to lose the spotlessness of their character, and bring on themselves the reproach of the old people. The period of their courtship is not generally protracted beyond a few months; when it is terminated by the young man's taking his chosen companion a *wedding trip*. For several days, wherever night overtakes them, there they pitch the wigwam, and spend the days in shooting or fishing, *the bride steering the canoe*. When this excursion is ended, they return with the product of the chase, which they present to the parents of the bride, laying it at the mother's feet; and with them they continue to reside, as the parents consider they have a claim on their industry and support until they have a family of their own to maintain.— On this account the parents are always anxious that their daughters should marry good hunters. Although no public vows are made, nor ceremonies performed, at the marriages of the Indians, it is surprizing how seldom their mutual engagements are violated, they generally consider them as binding as those whose obligations, in a Christian country, have been more solemnly recognized.

TREATMENT OF THE WOMEN BY THE MEN.

As is the case with all Pagan nations, the

Indian men look upon their women as an inferior race of beings, who they consider were created only for the use of the men. With this idea they treat them as menials, and impose on them all the drudgeries of a savage life, such as making the wigwam, providing fuel for the fire, planting and hoeing the Indian corn or maize, fetching the venison and bear's meat from the woods where the man shot it; in short, all the hard work falls upon the women, and it may be truly said of them that they are the slaves of their husbands. In the wigwam the men occupy the best places, leaving such parts as are most exposed to the inclemency of the weather for the poor women; and in regard to their food, the women eat the coarsest parts of the meat, or what the men leave. When travelling, the men always walk on before, it would be considered great presumption for the wife to walk by her husband's side, she therefore keeps at a respectful distance. I have often seen the husband start with nothing but his gun or bow and arrows, and the poor wife at some distance behind would be seen trudging and bending under the weight of all their goods, with a child often packed in the midst of materials for building the wigwam; this they carry about with them in all their journeyings, which soon makes them decrepit. The men have an idea that it is unmanly and disgraceful for them to be seen doing any thing which they consider belongs to the women's department.

I have scarcely ever seen any thing like social intercourse between husband and wife, and it is remarkable that the women say very little in the presence of the men.

Since the introduction of the *fire-waters*, the miseries of the Indian women have been increased ten-fold by the cruelties and ill-treatment of their drunken husbands;—several instances have occurred, within my own recollection, of the women dying from the injuries they have received. Paganism and intemperance cause the sorrow, degradation, and ruin of Indian females!

THE ELECTIONS.

WHAT an apple of discord is an election, setting a whole people by the ears, inflaming their passions, giving license to their tongues and lawlessness to their actions, as if the more each man broke the law, the better he would be qualified to choose a law-maker. If an utter absence of every property that ought to distinguish men on such an occasion be the best qualification for discharging its duties aright, then we may look to an election for the perfect triumph of law, reason, truth, candour, charity; but if the highest political duty require an appropriate exercise of the mind, then we may regard an election as being an occasion on which men may discharge their spleen, gratify their hate, or indulge their revenge, or do any thing rather than what they profess to do.— If a man were asked to select an act that should demand the most anxious enquiry, grave deliberation, and sober judgment, he would take that act by which we choose those who shall frame our laws, decide our quarrels, maintain our rights, promote our interests, form our manners, consolidate and perfect our institutions, infuse through the public mind the spirit of order, unity, intelligence, and virtue, and be in fact what they are in name, the “collected wisdom” of the whole people. No one could imagine that those who are to sustain these high functions would be chosen with less care than men choose a pig or a parrot, the one because he is fat, the other because he is fine. It would be supposed that men who are to perform intellectual duties would be chosen by an intellectual effort, and the higher the duty the higher the effort. It would also be assumed that before addressing themselves to this effort, an accurate survey would be taken of the public state, wants, capacities, and prospects, and that afterwards those persons would be selected who could best answer the various demands that would be made upon their intelligence and patriotism. Little would it be thought that an election was a kind of carnival, an “*All Fool’s*” day, or was called to determine who had the thickest skull, and could take the heaviest knocks without loss of life, destroying several lives in the trial, or that passion and prejudice

were to hold the scales, instead of calm reflection and inflexible justice.

These things, we say, might not have been supposed; but what are the facts of our late elections? To detail them in full might be taken for a libel on the community, or a bitter satire on the elective franchise, a kind of indirect proof that our people are not yet qualified to decide intellectually a great public question, but are in that rude state of society in which brutal violence usurps dominion over reason and law. It would not be fair, however, to fix this brand upon all the people, for a large majority of them are strongly opposed to all violence under any pretext. The guilt without doubt attaches to a portion of the Tory party, connived at, if not directly encouraged, by some of their leaders. This is manifest from a careful examination of all the accounts that have been published by both sides. We shall not go into the evidence, for the whole must be investigated by the Assembly, in order to determine the contested returns, seven of which have been protested against in consequence of violence, and in three other cases outrages resulting in death took place, besides many minor offences. It is probable also, that effectual measures will be taken to prevent the recurrence of such scenes, which are equally disgraceful to the country and to the party that countenances them, as well as destructive of all freedom of action and independence of thought.

And besides this criminal resort to violence, the most ridiculous falsehoods were plentifully employed. For instance: it was published that the friends of one candidate had made a rush into the polling room in order to destroy the poll book, the said candidate being at the time far in advance of the others, of which fact the poll book was, of course, the only evidence: so that his friends were represented as combining to destroy the only evidence of his being at the head of the poll! It would be just as probable that a man would destroy the title deeds of his estate, as that a candidate who was far in advance would wish to destroy the

only legal proof of that fact. None but losing candidates wish to destroy poll books, and therefore the tale was on the face of it incredible, and would be instantly rejected by all who reflected on the matter. It was probably invented to deceive those who do not reflect, and even with them the deception could be but temporary.

The charge of Executive interference with the freedom of the elections has been made in some quarters, but without any facts to justify it. The only pretence for it is, that some Government officers were required to support Government candidates, and that the Clerk of the Peace in the Gore District was dismissed for voting against one. As to the first, supposing it to be correct, it is nothing but what has been the regular practice for years, and what is quite right and proper in itself; for those who live by the Government should support it, and the very men who object to this now would be the first to require it if in their power, as indeed their party did when in office. They are therefore objecting to their own practise, and censuring themselves and their party rather than the Government. As to the dismissal of the Clerk of the Peace for the Gore District, it was done because he addressed an impertinent letter to an officer of the Government, in which he not only ostentatiously paraded his opposition to him, but presumed to read the Government a lecture, and censure the course he was pursuing, in becoming a candidate for the people's suffrages. If a man who had thus set the Government at defiance had been allowed to retain his office, it would have been a palpable admission that he was the master instead of the servant; and as such an example was sure to be contagious, it would have ended in a general resolve by public servants to do as they pleased in public matters. But the parties who pretend to condemn this dismissal would have promptly done the same, had such an offensive and uncalled for missive been addressed to them. Surely there is some respect due to an official superior, and if there be a conscientious dissent from his opinions, a man need not throw that in his teeth, and vain-gloriously seek a quarrel by obtruding his censure when his opinion was neither asked nor expected. There was a Quixotic display of Tory valour, and if the chivalrous hero has suffered in the encounter, he may blame himself or his stars for his misfortune.

Attempts have been made to connect the Executive with the riots that took place at some of the elections in the District of Montreal, but the attempts are utter failures, for they cannot produce a single fact in proof of the assertions. It is novel ground to assume, that because a riot has occurred the Executive is to be answerable for it. If the facts were as these subtle gentry represent them to be, still there is nothing at all in them to sustain the charge against the Executive, and we may suppose therefore that it was made in utter desperation of obtaining any real ground of complaint. *Somobody was doubtless greatly in the wrong*, and they may denounce the real offenders as much as they please, but they have produced nothing to connect them with the Government.

Most of the elections were vigorously contested, and the number of votes given on both sides greatly exceeded the number in any previous contest. Indeed, it may fairly be assumed that the utmost strength of each party was brought out in nearly every case, and therefore that public opinion has been fully tested on the great question submitted to it, so far at least as the upper part of the Province is concerned. Every one felt the importance of the issue, and extraordinary exertions were made by each party to obtain a majority in the first Parliament of United Canada. It would be too much to assert that no object or desire but the public good formed the main spring of these exertions. Personal and party triumph, private attachments and local partialities, and a variety of meaner motives, unquestionably had their share in producing the result, but not more than is commonly the case. Public good is the ostensible end of all, but it is sometimes reached by many a devious road, and it is often hard to say whether public or private reasons have had the greatest share in giving the impulse, or supplying spirit and power for the contest.—It is, perhaps, vain to expect any great public movement without an alloy of private feeling mingling therewith. Alloy there has been, but without alloy coin would not pass current, or stand the wear to which it is subjected in daily use. We have now to let private feeling subside, and fix our attention on the great public objects which require the people's united energies.

The great question with respect to the elections is, what have they decided, and to what will they lead? It is with the practical bearings of the whole that we have to deal, more than with the triumph of this or that party. Mere partisans may celebrate or bewail the rise or fall of party, but we look at higher interests, and consider chiefly the effect on the prosperity of the whole. We cannot sink the commonwealth in the party, or consent to treat the result of the elections as a personal affair between opposing candidates.

A majority of the members returned are in favour of those principles of government which have been avowed by His Excellency Lord Sydenham, and are therefore supporters of his government. This has sometimes been commendably expressed by saying that they support the Governor General, and some captious men have made use of that expression to represent these members as being mere passive supporters of the Executive, without any regard to principles or measures. Such representations are deceptive, nor could the Executive seek support on such grounds. The principles on which the government would be conducted were declared many months before the elections, and had been fully canvassed by the people throughout the province, and the elections determine that those principles are approved of by a majority of its inhabitants. Perhaps there never was an election in which principles were so fully declared and examined as the last.—For twelve or eighteen months almost nothing else had formed the staple of conversation, public discussion, and legislative enquiry, so that if ever a case was decided on its merits, after a full hearing in open court, this was. In fact, explanation and discussion were exhausted, and nothing remained but final action on the case. That action has taken place, and the result is before us.

Confining our view first to what was Upper Canada, the elections have made a complete change in the representation. Of the tory majority of the former House only four or five were returned, and only six or seven new members of the same stamp, so that the strength of that party in the new House will not exceed twelve at the farthest, and we have reason to believe that these do not contemplate a general opposition to the government. Of the remain-

ing thirty, there may be three or four who are disposed to push their principles to an extreme that the government cannot sanction, and they may therefore form part of the opposition on some questions: but of the forty-two members there will be a settled majority in favour of the government. In consequence of the protested returns, there is some uncertainty as to what the final state of the representation will be from what was Lower Canada; but it is probable that about one half of these members will be in opposition. There is this peculiarity in the case, however, that the questions on which they will oppose the government are the very questions on which the conservative section of the House will support it, so that the settled majority will be increased to a large one on these questions. In every view of the case, and under every form that party can assume, a majority of the whole House will support those principles which the government has adopted as the rule of its administration.

These principles have been so fully stated in previous numbers of the *Review*, that we need only briefly allude to them here. The leading points are the continued connexion of the Colony with the Mother Country, or the British constitution and British connexion, and the administration of the government in harmony with the people's representatives, reserving those things in which the "honour of the crown or the interests of the empire are deeply concerned." It was on these great principles that the elections turned, and it is these therefore that the people have stamped with their approbation. To build up and perpetuate a British colony, and confer on it the full benefit of the British constitution, so far as is consistent with its remaining a colony, is the great design of the government, and the great question decided by the elections. There was opposition to both parts of this design, but from different parties. The Lower Canadian party were anxious that the government should be administered in harmony with the people's representatives, but not willing that their part of the province should be made British in character; the Upper Canada Tories were desirous that the whole of Canada should be made and continue British, but they were not willing that the government should be administered in harmony with the Assembly, with the reservation before stated. Thus both principles were opposed; but the elections have affirmed them against both parties, for both are

separately in a minority, and they differ so widely that they cannot act together. Both principles are therefore safe, and they are both essential to the prosperity of the country.

In speaking of rendering Canada British throughout, we mean that its legislation shall be British, emanating from a British majority in the legislature; for to conduct the government in harmony with the Assembly, it is essential that the majority be a British majority, in order to secure unity of character and action with the central authority of the empire. A foreign nationality cannot be made the ruling principle in a British Colony. It is possible to observe British forms in legislation, and yet depart so widely from their true spirit as to endanger the supreme authority that should control the whole. It is not enough that forms are observed, if the spirit that inspires them be derived from a foreign source, and aim at building up a foreign character. British nationality operates of itself as a check on every scheme that would tend to sever British connexion; whereas a foreign nationality is not only no such check, but it operates precisely in a contrary manner, and tends of itself to sever the union, instead of to render it perpetual. It was therefore necessary before submitting the government to the action, and in some degree the control, of the popular branch of the legislature, to secure for it a British character and action. There is no reason, however, to apprehend that any legislation will be sanctioned that does not proceed on an enlightened regard to the true interests of the Lower Canadians.

The character of the province and the nature of its government being thus determined, there is an end to discussions on "theoretical points of government" in the legislature, which will henceforth be occupied in matters of a practical nature, "the amelioration of their laws, the advancement of their commerce, and the improvement of their country." After a long course of contention, the government has assumed the character which it will keep. It will rule by the principles of the British constitution, so far as they are applicable, and all further change will be steadily resisted. The cessation of party strife on speculative princi-

ples of government will have a happy effect on the province. Hitherto the legislature has spent a large part of its time and energies in angry discussions on "theoretical points." The real business of the country has been hastily and imperfectly managed, or often omitted altogether, that legislators might indulge in wayward speculations on first principles, straying far and wide in endless mazes lost. So fruitful were these controversies that half a session has been ere now consumed in them. This expenditure of money, time, and strength, this continual wrangling about disputable political theories, will now be stopped, and the legislature will be at liberty to employ itself solely in those practical measures of great public benefit which the country so much requires. This we conceive to be the great effect or public benefit of the elections; they have decided those vexed questions which disturbed the public peace, and thereby have left the province free to pursue a noble career of extensive public improvement. It is quite possible that some individuals may attempt to revive bygone discussions on "theoretical points," but they will meet no countenance in the legislature. Their "occupation is gone." They cannot instruct or alter, and they will hardly be allowed to distract and delay. The great questions that have agitated the public mind are settled, the character of the government is established, speculative political controversy is determined, and we may look forward with pleasure to a peaceful course of practical reforms and general improvement in all that can render a people intelligent, prosperous and happy.

In the list of members returned that was published in the last number of the *Review*, there were three blanks, the returns having not been made. For Kent, there is no return, and there must be a new election. For Shefford, Dr. Foster, and for Stanstead, Marcus Child, Esq., have been returned; but a protest has been entered against the return for Stanstead, on the ground that above 100 illegal votes were polled for Mr. Child. This is therefore another case to be examined and decided by the Assembly.

The friends of the opposing candidate (Dr. Colby) say they can prove that he has a majority of 50 legal votes.

MONTHLY SUMMARY.

We have reserved for this place the following explanation:—

In reference to the communication of our correspondent in New Brunswick, given in our March number, we are requested to correct an error with respect to an observation there attributed to a gentleman of that province in conversation with the Governor General at Government House, the anonymous opposition to Sir John Harvey's government being there stated to have been ascribed to a certain party in that province, by whom that part of the press which had been made the organ of its communication was said to be supported. This is a mistake, the observation in question having had no reference to the source from whence the opposition emanated,—but being confined exclusively to its character.

The Assembly of New Brunswick on being made acquainted with the contemplated retirement of Sir John Harvey from the government, resolved to present him with a service of plate, as an expression of their high esteem for his character and administration, and the following resolutions were passed accordingly:—

Resolved—That an humble address be presented to His Excellency, praying that His Excellency will be pleased to accept from the Legislature of this Province, a service of Plate on his retirement from the Government, as commemorative of the estimation in which his valuable services are held by the people of New Brunswick; and further

Resolved—That such sum as will procure a Bill of Exchange for £1500 sterling, be voted in supply for that purpose; and that it be placed at the disposal of a Commissioner, who shall cause to be engraved on the principal pieces of plate the following inscription:—

“Presented by the Legislature of New Brunswick to Major General Sir John Harvey, K. C. B. and K. C. H., in token of the high esteem in which his wise administration of the Government is held by all classes of Her Majesty's subjects in this Province.”

The address was presented by the members of both branches of the Legislature to Sir John Harvey, who with deep feeling delivered the following reply:—

GENTLEMEN,—

Cheered and sustained by this address, I shall be enabled to present myself with confidence to my Sovereign, and to render such an “account of my stewardship” as may satisfy Her Majesty's maternal heart, that Her anxious wishes for the happiness and prosperity of Her loyal subjects in New Brunswick have not been lost sight of by me, nor Her Majesty's delegated authority abused in my hands.

With regard to the munificent testimonial of your kind feelings towards me, I can only say, that I am proud and happy in receiving it,—subject nevertheless to Her Majesty's approbation—as the memorial of a degree of Legislative harmony, which may have been equalled, but which can never have been exceeded.

For myself I feel that it is unnecessary for me to say more; I am known to you as you are to me, and our sentiments of mutual esteem and good-will cannot change; but for my family, for my children, and my children's children, I take upon myself to assure you, that my (and consequently *their*) connexion with this noble province, which the splendid memorial now presented to me is intended to commemorate, will be affectionately cherished in their recollections, when the actors in the present scenes shall have passed away.

Government House,
March 23, 1841.

On the 26th of March the session of the New Brunswick Legislature was closed, and we make the following extract from the Speaker's address on presenting the money bills, :—

“MAY IT PLEASE YOUR EXCELLENCY,

“In presenting the money bills, I may be permitted to observe, that since your arrival in the province, six Sessions of the Legislature have been held, in all of which the best understanding existed and continues to the present moment; the two deliberative branches have cordially united in sustaining your Excellency's enlightened and liberal administration of the Government.

“The results of this happy state of affairs are contentment and tranquility throughout the land, extensive improvement, a rapid development of our resources, and a great advancement of general prosperity.

“The useful and unremitting labours of the present session are not therefore particularly distinguished, but, like the five preceding, will without doubt prove highly beneficial.

"I cannot omit this opportunity of expressing my deep and painful regret that your Excellency is shortly to leave our shores, and I am sure that my feelings on this occasion are in unison with those of the whole population of this colony."

His Excellency then closed the session with the following

S P E E C H :

*Mr. President and Honorable
Gentlemen of the Legislative Council,*

*Mr. Speaker, and Gentlemen
of the House of Assembly,*

In releasing you from further attendance upon your legislative labours, it is again my pleasing duty to renew to you, for myself and for my Royal Mistress, my acknowledgments of the assiduous and satisfactory discharge of your legislative duties, and, in Her Majesty's name to thank you for the liberality of the supplies which you have granted in aid of the public service, and more especially for the noble provision which you have made for the improvement of the great lines of communication between Halifax and Quebec, passing through this province; thereby unequivocally manifesting your readiness to meet the wishes and suggestions of the Imperial Government in all that tends to bind and consolidate the connexion of New Brunswick with Great Britain. By these proceedings you have, I am well convinced, faithfully fulfilled the wishes of your constituents, whose gratitude you have thereby merited, while you have at the same time nobly sustained the lofty position which New Brunswick has taken among the colonies of the British Empire for unshaken loyalty to the Sovereign, and affectionate attachment to the Mother Country. And here I ought not to refrain from observing, that anxiously desirous as I have ever been to conduct my administration in accordance with the "best interests" of the community over which I was appointed to preside, it has been with no ordinary degree of satisfaction that I have found that principle of Government to be identical with the "wishes" of a rational—a sound judging—and a loyal people.

The Queen having been pleased to terminate my official connexion with New Brunswick, the painful necessity is imposed upon me of bidding you adieu, which I know you will believe that I do with feelings of deep emotion—arising as well from gratitude for the confidence which you so frankly reposed in me from the first hour of our intercourse,—confidence which has alleviated and facilitated the anxious duties attaching to my station, and rendered their performance satisfactory and delightful, and as I will hope, and as you have been pleased to assure me, beneficial to the Province,—from regret at my dis severance from a people among whom several of the happiest of my years have been

passed, and to whom I shall ever feel myself linked in sentiments of unceasing regard and affection,—and lastly, from pride and satisfaction at the prosperous and happy state in which I leave you.

In imploring for the people of this noble province the continuance of those blessings to which their many high-minded qualities so justly entitle them, I will add, that for myself it will constitute one of the chief consolations of my remaining days, to witness, though at a distance, the rapid progress which New Brunswick is destined to make in all that relates to her prosperity and improvement.

England already looks with great interest to the people of New Brunswick as an impregnable barrier against the spread of unsound and unconstitutional opinions on this continent;—and I foresee, that in the course of events, that feeling will be elevated into one of just pride in the possession of so noble a bulwark of her glorious institutions.

I have yet one more observation to make, and if that observation should be deemed superfluous, I trust to your candour to impute it to its true motive,—an anxious desire to perpetuate to you, as far as my advice or influence may be permitted to extend, the blessings which must ever attend the harmonious working of the machinery of which Legislation and Government are composed. Permit me then to impress upon you the advantage to the public interests which must result from according to the distinguished individual who may be selected by the Sovereign to represent Her Majesty in this province, the same degree of confidence which you were pleased to repose in me, and to which, I repeat, I mainly impute, under the blessing of Divine Providence, whatever of success may have attended my efforts to be useful.

It is stated that Major General Sir Jeremiah Dickson, K. C. B., has been appointed to command the troops in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

On the 12th of March, Mr. Labouchere, President of the Board of Trade, introduced resolutions into the House of Commons to effect important reductions in the tariff of duties in British North America and the West India Islands. The following speech explains the proposed alterations.

COLONIAL DUTIES.

Mr. Labouchere brought forward the subject of the Imperial Duties leviable in the colonies, with a view to their modification. He began by referring to the old system, which confined the trade of the colonies to the mother country; even Ireland being considered as a dependency of Great Britain. This system was maintained in all its rigour until the year 1780;

when, at the termination of the American war, it became necessary to conciliate the discontent of Ireland, and that country was then allowed to export to the colonies. In 1822, Mr. Robinson (now Lord Ripon) was President of the Board of Trade, and he introduced a system of regulating or protecting duties in lieu of the prohibitory system. Some of the duties established by Mr. Robinson still remain in force. In 1825, Mr. Huskisson passed an Act, which, with few exceptions, is still the law regulating colonial trade. He further relaxed the navigation laws, established bonding warehouses in the colonies, and removed the prohibitory duties which Mr. Robinson had suffered to remain.—All these measures of enlargement were met by determined opposition in the House of Commons, and by forebodings of the deplorable effects likely to result from free trade opinions, pronounced to be impracticable. Every step, however, had been attended with the most perfect success; a great encouragement to proceed in the same course. Mr. Huskisson proposed that there should be direct open trade between the colonies and foreign countries; but he did not so enact in his bill; he only gave the Crown power to adopt the open trade whenever foreign countries were willing to concede reciprocal advantages by treaty. Many foreign countries had availed themselves of the act; but others, as Spain, Portugal, and Naples, had been unable to offer the advantages which it required. France had only permitted a very restricted use of the act. By the difficulties which Mr. Huskisson had had to encounter, he was deterred from carrying out his liberal principles to an adequate extent; and several of the duties proposed by his bill were in effect prohibitory, though no longer so in name. Besides, since 1825, very important changes had occurred in the trade, and in the social, political, and financial condition of the West Indian and British North American Colonies. Hitherto it had been the policy of the House of Commons to prevent the imposition by the Colonies of any duties on British manufactures; but many colonial duties had now become unproductive or intolerable. The poll-tax of the West Indies, for example, which was a species of property tax under the system of slavery, was totally inapplicable to the existing state of society.—And emancipation had brought new expenses on the Colonies, to provide for the immigration needed to supply the labour withdrawn under freedom, and for the correctional, ecclesiastical and educational establishments required by the new state of things. In Jamaica alone, the additional expenses for such purposes in the year 1839–40, amounted to no less than £183,000. Those colonies, therefore, had both right and reason to call for relief. The House had recently, at his request, rendered a piece of justice to the East Indies, and he now called upon it to do a similar act for the West. And the policy of enabling the Canadian to receive his

goods from all parts of the world, upon payment of the lightest duty, while looking across the border he should see the American burdened with heavy taxes, was obvious.

Mr. Labouchere in the course of his observations said, with respect to Canada he was sure that there was no one that did not feel, that it was at the present moment peculiarly necessary, to apply themselves without delay to the consideration of what there was of justice in their complaint of the onerous burdens and restrictions placed upon their trade. An address had lately been submitted to his noble friend, Lord Sydenham, by the late Assembly that had sat in Upper Canada, asking that they might be left almost to themselves to deal with those questions, liable to have their laws disallowed by either House of Parliament, but not to be subject to laws passed in that House.—Although he did not think it advisable to comply with this request of the Assembly, yet they ought to consider what changes the Colony required, and to comply with them so far as was consistent with the general interest of other parts of the Empire.—(Hear, hear.) The true principle was, that they should place the Colonial Legislature under as little restrictions as possible.—(Cheers.) The Home Government and the House should tell them what they absolutely required by way of general regulations, rendering them as little onerous as possible, and then permitting the Colonial Legislatures to make such other regulations consistently with these as they might think best for themselves, and which they were sure to do infinitely better for themselves than others could do for them.—(Cheers.) There was no course that was more calculated to strengthen the ties between the Colonies and the Mother country, than by placing our Colonies in an enviable position with respect to foreign trade and commerce. He would be glad, indeed, if the Canadian, looking across the border, should see that whilst the American was burdened and taxed with heavy duties, the Canadian was himself able to receive his goods from all parts of the world, upon the payment of the lightest duty. By leaving them, therefore, cheaply taxed, with the power of carrying on a free trade to all parts of the world, the House would not only be adopting the best means of advancing the prosperity of the Colonies, but would also eminently contribute towards the union between them and this country.—(Cheers.)—The main principle upon which, he would confess, he was anxious that the proposals which he had made, should meet with favourable consideration and adoption at the hands of the House, was, that he believed that they would be advantageous to the colonies themselves.—He always considered that the privileges which that House enjoyed, and which it was necessary that they should sustain, of regulating the trade of our Colonies, was one which they should exercise with the greatest self-examination and

Together with the amount of duty levied at the same time upon any similar articles, the produce of and imported from the United Kingdom and other British possessions. Connected as our fisheries were with our own prosperity, if any protecting duty was justifiable, it would be one on foreign fish; in removing the prohibition on the importation of foreign fish into the West Indies, therefore, he should impose a duty of not less than 25 per cent. Tea, the importation of which was prohibited in the West Indies and British North America, except direct from England, would be admitted on payment of a duty equal to one-tenth of the duties imposed in the colony into which it was imported. This would prevent the smuggling which the present system created in Canada. Owing to a blunder, he believed, in an act of Parliament, West India rum paid 6d. a gallon higher duty than that brought from the East Indies: Mr. Labouchere was for equalizing the duties on East India rum in all places. And he should allow the Channel Islands, which could at present export their produce to this country free of duty, to take it on the same terms to the Colonies, where it was prohibited. Mr. Labouchere believed that no interest would suffer by the change proposed. Those connected with the provision-trade in the South of Ireland, had made abundance of representations to the effect that they should be injured; but great alterations had taken place in the condition of that trade since the regulations now in force had been established; formerly the stock-grower of the South of Ireland could only dispose of it in the shape of salt meat; but since the increased facility of steam communication, he could dispose of his live stock in South Wales, and even in London. Pork, which used to be sold at 25s. the hundred-weight, had risen to 30s. and 35s.; and beef had risen from 10s. to 15s. It would therefore be a hardship still to confine the West India consumer to that market. Nor did Mr. Labouchere think that the interest of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick would suffer; they would not suffer from the competition of the United States, because so far from the wood goods of the States having any superiority over those of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the United States were the best market for the produce of those Colonies; and it would be of great advantage to the West Indian to be able to avoid the additional expense caused by his having to procure his wood through the United States.

The sentiments expressed by Mr. Labouchere in the preceding speech will be received with great pleasure in these Colonies, and the proposed changes in the duties will be on the whole advantageous to their interests. The duty on tea will be too high to prevent smuggling, in fact the duty at present levied on tea imported

from England is that, considering that tea is imported into the United States free. The whole duty in Canada must not exceed 8d. per pound if smuggling is to be stopped; indeed at that duty it would almost pay to smuggle tea from the United States, where they pay none. At 1d. per lb. the duty on a box of tea would amount to from 15s. to 27s. 6d., according to its quantity, and would therefore pay the smuggler. It will be impossible to maintain higher duty on tea in Canada while the United States import it free, than 3d. per lb.

The West India Islands will receive their supplies of flour, and probably of pork and beef, from the United States under the proposed tariff, but the North American Provinces will still supply them with lumber and fish. Altho' part of the West India trade will be diverted, yet we think that the other advantages of the new scale of duties will far more than compensate for that difference.

A deputation from the Montreal Board of Trade waited on His Excellency the Governor General, with Memorials and Petitions from Montreal, Quebec, and Bytown on the subject of a rumoured alteration of the Timber Duties in England, to which His Excellency was pleased to make the following reply:—

} GOVERNMENT HOUSE,
} Montreal, 21st April, 1841.

Sir,

I am commanded by the Governor General to acknowledge the receipt of a Memorial from the Board of Trade of Quebec, which you have transmitted, upon the subject of the timber duties levied in the United Kingdom; and His Excellency further directs me to take this opportunity of formally acknowledging two Memorials upon the same subject—one from the Board of Trade of this City, and the other from Bytown, which have been presented to him at interviews at which you were present.

No official intelligence has been received by the Governor General of an intention to propose to Parliament a change in the Duties affecting Timber, but it is not unlikely that the information communicated to the Memorialists is correct, as from the state in which the question has been for some years, it is likely to attract public attention.

His Excellency will not fail, however, to represent to Her Majesty's Government, the feelings with which the subject is viewed by the Memorialists, and he will be prepared to express his opinion that in any alterations which Parliament may determine upon, due consideration should be given to the existing interests,

and fair notice afforded, so as to diminish, as much as possible, any loss to individuals engaged in the trade.

I have the honor to be, SIR,
Your most obedient, humble servant,
T. W. C. MURDOCH,
Chief Secretary.

The Honorable PETER M'GILL, }
&c. &c. &c. }

It is therefore probable that if the differential duties in favour of timber from the British Colonies be reduced, full information and time will be afforded to all concerned, so as not to prejudice existing engagements.

The United States were enshrouded in gloom by the unexpected death of President Harrison, on the 4th of April, after a short illness, having held the Presidency only one month. An universal tribute of respect was paid to his memory, on the day of his interment, by all parties in the States. Mr. Tyler, the Vice President, assumed the Presidency, under the provisions of the Constitution.

Nothing definite has yet transpired respecting Mr. McLeod. It is probable that the death of the President would delay the negotiation in some degree. Mr. McLeod's case has been introduced into the Legislature of New York, and sundry speeches made thereon, but no decision had yet been made. Mr. Hoffman vindicated Mr. McLeod, and moved an amendment to bring in a bill, "to enter a *nolle prosequi* on the indictment, and to grant Mr. McLeod a safe conduct to his Sovereign."

His Excellency Lord Sydenham had an attack of illness during the past month, but has recovered. T. W. C. Murdoch, Esq., Chief Secretary was appointed Deputy Governor, so far related to signing warrants for money, marriage licenses, &c.

The Quebec Official Gazette, of the 22nd April, contains a Proclamation establishing Municipal Districts in what was Lower Canada, according to the provisions of an Ordinance of the Governor and Special Council. These consist of twenty-two, and are called the Districts of Quebec, Portneuf, Sagueway, Rimouski, Kamouraska, Saint Thomas, Dorchester, Chaudiere, Nicolet, Sherbrooke, Missisquoi, Richelieu, Saint Hyacinthe, Saint Johns, Beauharnois, Montreal, Sydenham, Lake of Two Mountains, Terrebonne, Leinster, Berthier, and Three Rivers.

The Provincial Parliament is summoned for the *Despatch of Business*, by the following Proclamation.

PROVINCE OF } SYDENHAM.
CANADA. }

VICTORIA, by the Grace of GOD, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, QUEEN, Defender of the Faith.

To our well beloved and faithful, the Legislative Councillors of the Province of Canada, and the Knights, Citizens, and Burgesses, elected to serve in the Legislative Assembly of our said Province, summoned and called to a meeting of the Provincial Parliament of our said Province, at our TOWN OF KINGSTON, on the eighth day of the present month of April, to have been commenced and held, and every of You.—

GREETING :

WHEREAS for divers urgent and arduous affairs, Us, the state and defence of our said Province concerning, We did summon and command you on the day and at the place aforesaid to be present, to treat, consent, and conclude upon those things, which, in our said Provincial Parliament, should then and there be proposed and deliberated upon; We, for divers causes and considerations Us to this especially moving, have thought fit to prorogue our said Provincial Parliament until the TWENTY-SIXTH day of MAY next, so that You nor any of You on the said Eighth day of the present month of April, at our said Town to appear, shall in no wise be held or constrained; for We do will that You and each of You, be as to Us in this matter entirely exonerated; and commanding and by these presents firmly enjoining You and every of You, and all others in this behalf interested—that on the said TWENTY-SIXTH day of MAY next, at our TOWNSHIP OF KINGSTON, personally You be and appear for the DESPATCH OF BUSINESS, to treat, do, act and conclude upon those things which in our said Provincial Parliament by the Common Council of our said Province may by the favour of GOD be ordained.

IN TESTIMONY WHEREOF, we have caused these our Letters to be made Patent, and the Great Seal of our said Province of Canada to be hereunto affixed.

Witness our Right trusty and well beloved the Right Honourable CHARLES, BARON SYDENHAM, of Sydenham, in the County of Kent, and Toronto in Canada, one of our most Honourable Privy Council, Governor General of British North America and Captain General and Governor in Chief in and over our Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Island of Prince Edward, and Vice Admiral of the same.

At our Government House, in our City of Montreal, in our said Province of Canada, the SIXTH day of APRIL, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Eight Hundred and Forty-One, and in the Fourth year of our Reign

THOMAS AMIOT,
Clerk of the Crown in Chancery.

S.

NOTICE TO THE PUBLIC.

No returns having been received from many persons to whom the REVIEW has been sent, they are respectfully requested to remit their Subscriptions without delay, in order that we may ascertain the total number required.

Messrs ARMOUR & RAMSAY, of Montreal, will receive Subscriptions in that City for the REVIEW.

Every Post-master, or other person, procuring six Subscribers, and remitting the Subscriptions, shall receive a copy GRATIS, for the same period.

The terms are—Twenty Shillings per Annum, including Postage, payable half-yearly in advance.

TORONTO, MAY 1ST, 1841.