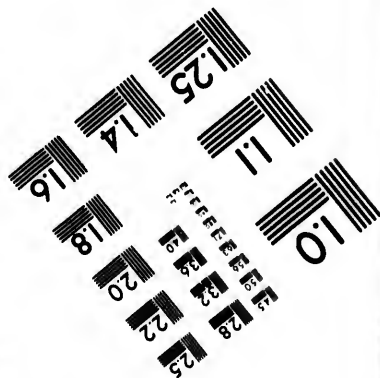
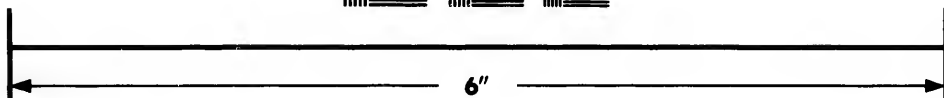
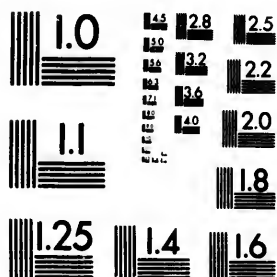


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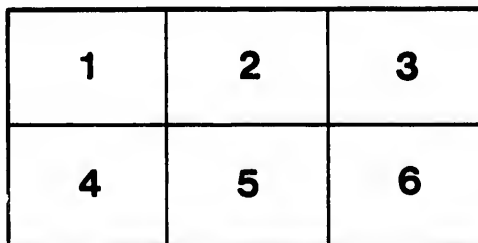
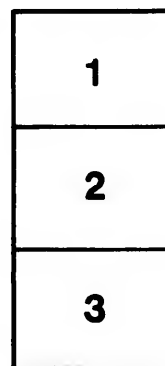
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DEDICATED BY SPECIAL AUTHORITY

TO HER MOST GRACIOUS MAJESTY THE QUEEN.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS
IN
NORTH AMERICA;
OR,
UPPER AND LOWER CANADA:

THEIR

History, Extent, Condition, and Resources:

BY R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, ESQ.,

LATE TREASURER TO THE QUEEN AT HONG KONG; AND MEMBER OF HER MAJESTY'S
LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL IN CHINA.

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TO THE
QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

MADAM,

IN soliciting authority to lay this Work before your Majesty, I was actuated not merely by the desire common to every faithful subject of testifying, however humbly, a sense of dutiful affection to my Sovereign, but yet more from a conviction that a History of the Colonies, their Extent, Condition, and Resources, could with propriety be dedicated only to a Monarch most deeply interested in their welfare, and fully impressed with the value of these integral parts of the British Empire.

I have briefly traced the origin and progress of your Majesty's Colonial Dominion, the foundations of which were laid by the provident policy of your royal ancestors, Queen Elizabeth and King James the First, aided by the sagacious counsels of the great Lord Bacon; the wondrous structure has been reared with persevering energy by the wisdom of such statesmen as Clarendon, Halifax, Chatham, Burke, Pitt, Peel, and Russell; it has been enlarged and adorned by the genius of such patriots as Raleigh, Baltimore, Penn, Cook, Clive, Hastings, Cornwallis, and Wellesley; defended by the valour of such warriors as Wolfe, Elliott (Heathfield), Brock, Lake, Sale—Wellington, Hardinge, Gough, and Napier; and by the naval skill of Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Blake, Anson, Rodney, Duncan, Howe, Jervis, Collingwood, and Nelson.

The acquisition and improvement of Colonies has indeed been deemed so essential an element of national power and prosperity, that the best blood, the wealth, the talent of England have been unsparingly devoted to this great end; which, though at a costly sacrifice, has been attained; and in every quarter of the globe the Transmarine Territories of the Crown exhibit monuments of British heroism, proofs of patriotic deeds, and permanent illustrations of administrative ability.

The rule of your Majesty now controls an Empire so vast in its extent, that the influence of England is exercised in the remotest parts of the globe; the Sceptre of Your Power protects (beyond the limits of the United Kingdom) more than one hundred million FREEMEN—civil and religious liberty being the birthright of every Citizen of a State, whose first principles of government will

not allow her to tolerate slavery in any form, or persecution under any pretence—whether affecting her own children, or the stranger who comes within her gates.

Blessings such as these render the sway of your Majesty a substantial benefit to every denizen of this mighty Empire;—all share in its glory and prosperity, and have a common interest in the progress and proceedings of their fellow-subjects. The social and domestic habits, manners, and customs of the Parent State are preserved and adopted in the Colonies; the numerous temples of worship, schools, and hospitals, which distinguish England from every other nation on the face of the earth, and are the best evidence of her Christian character; the general principles of obedience to the laws, respect for authority, and love of order—are equally manifest in our most distant settlements as in any county of the United Kingdom.

To another striking point of resemblance I am enabled to bear my humble testimony; in the course of a personal examination of the greater part of your Majesty's Transmarine Dominions, I have had many opportunities of witnessing the loyalty of the Colonists;—they love "the island home," that is to them the nucleus of their national feelings—cherish a strong attachment to their Sovereign and to Her Illustrious Consort—and earnestly desire to participate in the honours and distinctions which, emanating directly from the Throne, cause its dignity to be appreciated, even in the remotest portions of the Realm.

Two members of the Royal Family have visited the Colonies: his late Majesty King William the Fourth, who ever evinced an earnest solicitude for their welfare—and your Majesty's Royal Father, whose memory is still venerated in British America; for there, as in England, his just and generous mind—his catholic and philanthropic spirit—found its purest delight in promoting the welfare of his fellow-subjects, and in mitigating human suffering.

I acknowledge with deep respect the gracious indulgence of your Majesty in authorizing a Dedication of my endeavours to make the condition and worth of the Colonies more generally known and more fully appreciated—and I sincerely hope that the intrinsic importance of the subject may not be undervalued through my inadequate efforts for its development.

I have the Honour to be,

MADAM,

Your Majesty's dutiful Subject,

R. M. MARTIN.

INTRODUCTION.

SECTION I.

COLONIZATION OF ANCIENT AND MODERN NATIONS.

COLONIZATION,* that is the occupation and tillage of waste lands, is in accordance with the primary decree of Heaven, that man should be "fruitful and multiply, and replenish the earth, and subdue it." The earliest records of mankind consist chiefly of the history of migrations from one part of the globe to another, as population increased, or civilization created new wants.

This great principle, like the other primary laws of the creation, is universal in its operation, and extends throughout the animal and vegetable world; what man does from reason, the brutes do from instinct: gregarious animals separate into herds, and disperse themselves over a country as pasture diminishes; trees and roots send winged seeds or offshoots to a considerable distance to perpetuate their stock, or in search of nourishment; fish migrate from sea to sea; and insects traverse diverse regions according to their respective exigencies.

But the natural desire for abundant sustenance which impels the migration of animals, is counteracted in man by a strong attachment to his birth-place—by love of kindred, and by those social ties which bind together human societies. And it is wisely ordained that it should be so: man would never have advanced beyond the nomadic or wandering state, but for those local associations which attach him to his native land, and give an indescribable charm to the river, the mountain, or the glen, where the days of childhood have been spent, and where the emotions connected with his first ideas have been enjoyed.

Many urgent reasons, however, arise to counteract the force of local attachments. The duty of providing for offspring—a desire for adventure—the love of fame or conquest—a difference in religious or political opinions—a thirst for information,—each and all tend to disseminate mankind over regions which, from their position, climate, soil, or other advantages, present the best prospects of gratifying their desires.

We see these motives operating in successive ages; we trace them in the lives of Shem, Ham, and Japhet; of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob; and when individuality is merged

* *Colonus*, in the Roman acceptance of the word, originally signified as much land as one person could cultivate—"Quantum Colonus unus arare poterat;" from *Colonus* was derived *Colonia*, signifying a body of husbandmen sent out from the parent stock to cultivate other lands, and by a metonymy the place to be cultivated received the same appellation as the inhabitants who were to cultivate it,—*Colonia*:—hence the word Colony, which is used in the present work to designate all the maritime possessions and dependencies under the dominion of the British crown, not represented in the Parliament of the United Kingdom.

in national history, we mark them influencing the destinies of Egypt, Greece, Carthage, and Rome; and, in a later age, those of Spain, Portugal, Holland, France, and England.

Egypt appears to have been colonized by a race who, after the dispersion of mankind on the plains of Shinar, *b.c.* 2287, travelled westward, and spread themselves over Upper Egypt, founded Thebes, occupied the fertile banks of the Nile, and established Phœnician settlements, which, for a time, included almost the whole of the South coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt to Gibraltar.

In the year 1556, *b.c.*, Cecrops, at the head of a band of colonists, migrated from Egypt into Attica, and became the first king of Athens; in 1546, *b.c.*, Scamander from Crete, founded Troy; in 1493, *b.c.*, Cadmus introduced into Greece the Phœnician letters, formed the Greek alphabet, and founded Thebes. The expedition of the Argonauts was undertaken *b.c.* 1263, with the intention of opening the commerce of the Euxine Sea, and of establishing Colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis.

As the kingdoms or republics of Greece advanced in art, science, and literature, internal commotions arose. Food was with difficulty obtained for a superabundant and increasing population, consisting chiefly of slaves, and expeditions were fitted out by vanquished or disappointed politicians, or by adventurers desirous of fame, or prompted by a spirit of commercial enterprise, for the formation of colonies in the maritime ports of Asia Minor, in the Ægean and Ionian Seas, and in Italy. *b.c.* 1243, the Arcadians were conducted by Evander into Italy; *b.c.* 1124, the migration of the Æolian Colonists took place; *b.c.* 1044, the Ionian Colonies were formed by Greeks; *b.c.* 732, Syracuse was built by Corinthian Colonists; *b.c.* 713, Gela in Sicily was founded; *b.c.* 707, Tarentum was built by the Parthenians when expelled from Sparta; *b.c.* 703, Coreyra was founded by the Corinthians; *b.c.* 665, the Messenians, on their expulsion from the Peloponessus, passed into Italy; *b.c.* 658, Byzantium was built by a colony of Argives; *b.c.* 539, the Phocæans settled in Gaul, and built Marseilles; *b.c.* 469, the Tuscan formed a colony at Capua; *b.c.* 444, the Athenians sent a colonizing expedition to Thurium in Italy, and among the adventurers were Herodotus, Thucydides, and Lysias; *b.c.* 304, Seleucus founded Antioch, Edessa, Laodicea, &c. The Colonies of the Dorians were chiefly established in Italy and in Sicily, then inhabited by barbarous tribes; those of the Ionians and Æolians in Asia Minor and the islands of the Ægean Sea.

The Greek term for Colonies was *αποικια*—a “separation of dwelling”—a “departure from or going out of a house;” and the word well expresses the character of the Greek Colonies, which were often formed by a large number of individuals emigrating in organized communities from their native country, whose Government ceased to possess any authority over them; but with which, in many instances, they remained feudally united; aiding the parent state in time of war with money, ships, and warriors, or furnishing mercenary troops, as the Greeks (themselves originally Egyptian Colonists) had done to Alexandria. The Greek Colonies frequently asserted their independence by refusing assistance to the mother country, unless their own terms were conceded; thus the Sicilians denied the admission of an Athenian army into their territory to rest, when proceeding on an expedition; and Syracuse refused to co-operate with the Lacedæmonians during the Punic war, until Gelon, their chief magistrate, was allowed to command the united forces. In some cases the colonists severed themselves entirely from their native

land, and sought the protection of another government; thus Corcyra and Pontde, colonies of Corinth, united themselves to Athens.

In the present day such settlements would not come under the denomination of Colonies; they were virtually independent states, maintaining an alliance with governments able to afford them protection, but they added neither power nor wealth to the states from which they sprung, or with which they were connected.

The Colonies of Carthage were formed on a different principle from those of Greece; they were regarded chiefly as a means of commercial advantage, and maintained as strict monopolies for the benefit of the parent state. Carthage, the most celebrated of the Phœnician Colonies, was established by settlers from Tyre. The city of Carthage was built b.c. 878, and destroyed by the Romans b.c. 146.

Throughout the greater part of the intervening period of 732 years, Carthage was engaged in extending her dominion beyond the limited spot on the African coast where the city was first established. Three hundred African cities owned her sway, which extended for 2000 miles along the sea coast, from the Syrtis Major to the "Pillars of Hercules." Sardinia, formerly belonging to Etruria, was one of her earliest colonies, and the agricultural resources and mineral wealth of the island rendered it a very valuable possession. Malta, Majorca, and Minorca, previously under the rule of Tyre, yielded to the supremacy of Carthage. Along the coasts of Spain, on the shores of Great Britain and Ireland, as far, if not farther south along the coast of Africa than Senegal and the Gambia, Carthage acquired settlements, or extended her commerce. The sole occupation of Sicily was long contested with the Greeks; its entire possession would most probably have delayed, if not averted, the ultimate effects of the Punic wars; but in the first of these wars Sicily and Sardinia were lost to Carthage. Deprived of those possessions, and consequently of the commerce and maritime position which they secured, the ruin of the Carthaginian power was rapid, and its conquerors became in their turn a great Colonizing nation.

The Romans, soon after the foundation of the Imperial City, planted settlements in its neighbourhood, which served as outworks for defence, and for the supply of the necessaries and luxuries of life. During the second Punic war, sixty such colonies were established. After the destruction of the Carthaginian power, the spirit of conquest and the urgent necessity of providing for large numbers of disbanded and often mutinous soldiery, whose only means of subsistence lay in the tillage of the earth; the agrarian laws by which the senate was obliged to provide all its citizens with land, the augmentation of slaves, and the abundance of money, for which a profitable investment was found almost exclusively in the cultivation of the soil, all led to a rapid extension of the Roman Colonies.

The lands of conquered countries were considered the property of the state, and they were parcelled out among the public officers of the government, apportioned to the citizens for whom land could not be provided at home, and distributed among the soldiery. Military establishments were formed in the most fertile or the most secure places, where the wealth of the colony could be obtained, and its possession secured against any rising of the native inhabitants. Colonies such as these extended over Gaul, Germany, Spain, and England, and throughout various parts of Asia and Africa. It is difficult to estimate the area occupied by these colonies. From the foundation of the city to the death

of Augustus, 164 colonies were established in Italy, and 199 in the provinces. Crete became a Roman colony B.C. 66. Caesar formed plans (B.C. 45) for rebuilding Carthage and Corinth. London was built by the Romans A.D. 50. Agricola reduced South Britain to a Roman Province, A.D. 82. Augustus planted twenty-eight colonies in Italy; fifty-seven were established in Africa, exclusive of Egypt; twenty-five in Spain; four in Dacia, and five in Britain. It was estimated in the reign of Claudius, that Rome and its colonies contained 126,000,000 people.

The colonies furnished employment for the more adventurous of the Roman citizens, and yielded large returns for invested capital. Seneca (who at his death had money to the value of £600,000 sterling due to him from colonists in Britain) assigns the following reasons for the formation of colonies, which are equally applicable in the present day:—

“Nec omnibus eadem causa relinquendi quærendique patriam fuit. Alios excidia urbium suarum, hostilibus armis elapsos, in aliena, spoliatis suis, expulerunt: Alios domestica seditio submovit: Alios nimia superfluentis populi, frequentia, ad exonerandas vires, emisit: Alios pestilentia, aut frequens terrarum hiatus, aut aliqua intoleranda infelicitas soli eiecerunt: Quosdam fertilis oræ, et in rinjus laudate, fama corripit: Alios alia causa excivit domibus suis.”—(*Consol. ad Helviam*, c. 6.)

The colonists sent out by the senate were either Roman or Latin citizens.

The *Coloniæ Romanæ* enjoyed only to a limited extent the *Jus Romanum*; they were not permitted to exercise the right of suffrage, and magisterial dignities, military command, &c., were denied them; they were permitted solely the *Jus Quiritum*, namely, personal liberty, honours of gentility, dignity of family, &c.; and they were compelled to furnish such contributions as the senate and emperors chose to demand.

The *Coloniæ Latine* possessed rights and privileges of their own; were empowered to a certain extent to form their own laws; and whoever became an ædile, or prætor, in a Latin town, enjoyed, by right of office, the rank of a Roman citizen. These Latin colonies also rendered tribute to the parent state. Their rights were styled *Jus Latii*, and it was not until after the Servile War that the privileges of Roman citizens were granted by the *lex Julia* to all the Latin Colonists.

There were other colonies whose privileges were comprised in the *Jus Italicum*; they were free from the taxes paid by the *Coloniæ Latine et Romanæ*; of this class were the Colonies of Tyre, Heliopolis, Palmyra, &c. Most of the colonies furnished their quota of troops for the Roman legions; the natives of each colony were drafted into regiments serving in distant settlements.

Political selfishness and inordinate ambition were the predominative motives of Rome, both in the formation and in the government of her colonies; which, as they grew powerful, threw off the yoke of their military tyrants. After 400 years' occupation of England, excepting in the roads made for the more complete subjugation of the islanders, we find few traces of the boasted Roman civilization, and no permanent benefit from their rule. Fifty years after the conquest of Asia, 150,000 Roman citizens were massacred by order of Mithridates; there was no binding link to connect distant parts of the empire; no community of language or of interests, and centuries of conquest and despotism, slavery and crime terminated, happily for mankind, in the complete overthrow of the “Mistress of the World.”

Proceeding chronologically (passing over the incursions and migrations of the

Northmen, Normans, or Danes, in the ninth and tenth centuries), the next Colonizing Power is the Republic of Venice, which was founded on the lagunes of the Adriatic, A.D. 737, by colonists from the Romana-Italian province of Venetia. The colonies of Venice extended along the coast of Dalmatia, to the Ionian islands, the Morca, the Greek Archipelago, Candia, &c. They were designed chiefly with a view to the extension of commerce; but Corfu and other settlements in the Ionian Islands evince to this day the power, opulence, and deep-laid policy of the Venetians. Genoa, on the acquisition of colonies in the Levant, along the coast of Provence, and in the Crimea, rivalled Venice; but both states fell into decay through the loss of their foreign possessions. The discovery of the new continent of America, (A.D. 1492) and of a passage by the Cape of Good Hope to India, opened to Spain and Portugal the means of acquiring colonial dominion, and gave a new direction to the commerce of the eastern and western hemisphere.

Heretofore all European, Asiatic, and African trade had been carried on by land, or by frail barks skirting the coast-line, or passing from island to island by circuitous and expensive routes. But the introduction of the mariner's compass into Europe from Asia (A.D. 1229) made the trackless ocean the high road of daring navigators, and brought the distant parts of the earth into comparatively close communication. From this era may be dated the commencement of a new and important epoch in the history of maritime commerce and of modern colonization. The nautical skill and daring of Prince Henry of Portugal, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, were rewarded by the discovery of Madeira and of Western Africa; the politic and thrifty Henry the Seventh of England gave employment to navigators in the hope of adding to his wealth and extending his dominions; but to the noble-minded Isabella of Spain, and the profound speculations, courage, and perseverance of Columbus, Europe is indebted for the discovery of a "new world" on the 11th of October, 1492. Between the years 1508 and 1510 Spain formed colonies in Cuba, Porto Rico, and Jamaica. In 1519 Cortez landed at Vera Cruz, and in 1521, with a few adventurers, conquered Mexico. Peru, Chili, and Quito were added to the crown of Spain between 1529 and 1535 by Pizarro and his generals. In 1532 Terra Firma was occupied: in 1536 New Grenada was subjected, and Manilla in 1564. The narrow-minded policy of Spain prohibited one colony trading with another, the colonial commerce was restricted to certain ports in the mother country, and for a long period Seville was the only port in Spain with which the colonies were allowed to hold intercourse. The object of the Spaniards in the acquisition of these colonies was neither that of the Egyptians, Grecians, Carthaginians, or Romans. Gold was the prevailing motive; the desire for immediate wealth over-ruled every consideration of humanity, of justice, or of sound policy; the natives were worked to death in the mines, shot like wild beasts, if they offered the slightest resistance to their merciless oppressors, or hunted with blood-hounds if they attempted to escape from the demons in human form who wantonly sported with their sufferings. Language would fail to convey an adequate idea of the atrocities perpetrated by the Spanish colonizers on the Indians, whose rapid extermination led to the introduction of negro slaves from Africa. Spain, for a time, derived great wealth, and obtained much power by means of her colonies; but no lasting benefit could arise from such ill-gotten riches and dominion. Spain lost in succession all her vast possessions in the

Floridas, Mexico, California, Darien, Terra Firma, Buenos Ayres, Paraguay, Ch^{il}, and Peru. She was entirely driven from every continental territory; Cuba, Porto Rico, Manilla, Teneriffe, &c., now alone remain; and notwithstanding her internal wealth, fine climate, and advantageous position on the peninsula of Europe, Spain, with her thirteen million inhabitants, is now the most sunken, degraded, and powerless nation of the western world.

Portugal competed for colonial territory with Spain, and by a papal decree the new countries in the eastern and western hemispheres were divided between the rival states, without reference to any other European nation. Madeira was discovered A.D. 1419, Cape Bojador, in Africa, 1439; Cape de Verd, 1446; the Azores, 1448; Cape de Verd Islands and Sierra Leone, in 1449. In 1484 the Congo was visited and the Cape of Good Hope discovered. In 1498 Vasco de Gama, after doubling the Cape, landed in Calicut, on the shores of Hindoostan, and subsequently the Portuguese built forts and formed colonies at Mozambique, Sofala, Melinda, and other places on the eastern coast of Africa; at Ormus and at Muscat, in the Persian Gulf; at Goa, Diu, and Damann, on the western or Malabar shores of the peninsula of India; Negapatam, and Meliapoor, on the Coromandel coast; at Malacca, and on the coast of China. In 1500 Brazil was discovered, in 1511 the Spice Islands were colonized, and about 1520 Ceylon was occupied by the Portuguese.

Although the hope of obtaining gold did, to a certain extent, encourage the progress of Portuguese discovery and colonization, the predominating motives were a love of adventure, a hope of attaining fame, or of acquiring honours from a patriotic sovereign; and, in a great degree, a religious spirit, verging on fanaticism, prompted many to seek, by converting the heathen, to extend the faith of the Cross. With the chivalry and enthusiasm of the Portuguese character in the sixteenth century was united nautical skill and commercial enterprise, of which latter the Spaniards were exceedingly jealous, and on the union of Portugal with Spain, the colonies of the former were quite neglected in favour of the latter. As Portugal lost her foreign possessions she sank in the European scale, and her colonies are now reduced to a few wretched forts in Africa: the small town of Macao in China, the island of Timor in the Eastern Archipelago, Goa (once a place of great splendour in India, now deserted, and in ruins), Madeira, the Cape Verd Islands, and some smaller places. As in other instances, the loss of her colonies has been followed by a change of the national spirit into apathy, indolence, and degradation.

A power that had reclaimed its territory from the ravages of the ocean, competed with Spain and Portugal for colonial dominion. The Dutch, while yet struggling for independence, were employed as the carriers to Lisbon from the colonies of Portugal, and thus became acquainted with the value of colonial trade. In 1584, Philip II. of Spain prohibited the intercourse of the Dutch with Lisbon; these orders being evaded were revived with greater strictness in 1594, and a number of Dutch vessels seized in Lisbon harbour were destroyed. The Dutch, being deprived of the carrying trade, were compelled to seek colonies for themselves; to which they were stimulated by the writings of John de Witt, who urged that colonies offered a field for exertion to men of abilities—were a good substitute for hospitals and charitable foundations—and were advantageous for men who had been unfortunate in trade. An association was soon formed to trade to "remote

parts." The first expedition sailed for India, 20th March, 1602. Batavia, in the island of Java, was colonized in 1618; a trade with Japan opened in 1611; a West India Company established in 1621; settlements were formed and conquests made in Brazil from 1630 to 1640; Ceylon captured from the Portuguese in 1640; St. Eustatia, Curaçoa, Saba, and St. Martin in the West Indies, colonized from 1632 to 1649; Surinam, Essequibo, Berbice, and Paramaribo acquired in 1670. Dutch settlements were formed in Asia, also at the Cape of Good Hope, and several parts of the African coasts; at New York, and other places on the continent of North America; and Holland soon rose superior to her former masters in maritime power, commercial opulence, and political consideration; but at the commencement of the present century, when Holland lost Ceylon, the Cape of Good Hope, Demcrara, Java, &c., she sunk into comparative insignificance, from which she was only rescued by England's restoring Java, and other possessions in the rich Eastern Archipelago, by which the Dutch are now mainly enabled to maintain their position among European nations.

France was not an idle spectator of the contests for oceanic supremacy, which the possession of colonies conferred. Francis the First, with the ardour of an enterprising mind, encouraged maritime discovery. In 1552 Gaspard de Coligny, who had early embraced the reformed faith, was appointed admiral of France; and with the hope of rivalling every other nation in Europe, he projected a grand scheme of colonization, which was to extend from the river St. Laurence to that of the Mississippi; but Coligny perished as a Huguenot on the night of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and his plans were not carried out. In the middle of the seventeenth century Colbert, minister in the earliest and best part of the reign of Louis Quatorze, made great efforts for the extension of French Colonies. Martinique, St. Lucia, Grenada, were purchased from private individuals: in 1661 France possessed Canada, Louisiana, &c.; in 1664 Cayenne was colonized; in 1697 St. Domingo; in 1670 Pondicherry in the East Indies; in 1720 the Isle of France and Bourbon. In the revolutionary war England deprived France of her colonies; St. Domingo was lost by a slave insurrection, and France has not since recovered her former naval power.

If Spain, Portugal, Holland, and France, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries deemed the possession of colonies essential to their prosperity, how much more must England have felt their importance, by reason of her insular position and limited territory. Happily for her a monarch was, at an eventful period, on the throne, who stands distinguished in the page of history for the rare discernment she evinced in promoting the welfare of her people and the glory of her country. Elizabeth clearly foresaw that England could neither obtain nor maintain a prominent position among the nations of Europe except by means of her maritime power, which could be insured only by the possession of colonies. Encouragement was, therefore, offered to facilitate the discovery of hitherto unknown regions, and for the planting of new settlements.

In 1591 English vessels first found their way round the Cape of Good Hope, and in 1599 Queen Elizabeth granted a charter for the incorporation of a company of adventurers trading to the East Indies. Towards the close of the 16th century the attention of England was directed to the coast of America. In 1583 Sir Walter Raleigh obtained, by letters patent, a large tract of country which he named Virginia, in honour

of his Sovereign; and in 1584 the first English settlers were sent out by Raleigh to North Carolina, and established themselves on the island of Roanoke; but on the arrival of Sir Francis Drake, in 1586, they quitted the settlement in his vessel. The unfortunate Raleigh made several other attempts to colonize his territory, but they were all unsuccessful; and at the commencement of the 17th century there were no English settlers in any part of the continent of America.

In 1606 letters patent were granted to two companies named the London and the Plymouth. The London adventurers were to establish themselves between 34° and 41° north latitude, and the Plymouth and Bristol adventurers between 38° and 45° north latitude, on the coast of America. Great hardships were experienced by the early settlers from famine, disease, and wars with the Indians; and, in several instances, the attempt at colonization was abandoned. In 1610 the Virginian Colonists were on the eve of quitting Virginia when Lord Delaware, the new governor, arrived with a supply of provisions and 150 men.

During the 17th century the settlements planted on the coast of North America were, in chronological order, as follows:—Virginia, A.D. 1607; New York, which was contended for and alternately occupied by the English and Dutch, from 1614 to 1674; Massachusetts, 1620; New Hampshire, 1623; New Jersey, 1624; Delaware, 1627; Maine, 1630; Georgia, 1632; Maryland, 1633; Connecticut, 1635; Rhode Island, 1636; North Carolina, 1650; South Carolina, 1670; and Pennsylvania, in 1682. Some of these settlements owed their origin to enterprising individuals, others to associations. Maryland was founded by Lord Baltimore who received a tract of country by patent 20th June, 1632. Georgia was granted to a corporation of twenty-one persons. New England was colonized by a congregation of English Puritans. Carolina was vested in a proprietary body, and in 1662 the Earl of Clarendon and seven others obtained from Charles II. a grant of all lands lying between 31° and 36° north latitude. Delaware was originally settled by an association of Swedes and Finns termed the "West India Company," who were subdued by the Dutch from New York, in 1655, and the latter by the English in 1664. In 1680-82 the whole country was transferred to William Penn by the Duke of York, to whom a large portion of the coast of North America had been granted by his brother Charles II.

In 1776 the thirteen Colonies declared their independence, constituted themselves the United States of America, to which several other States have since been added; and their territory now extends from the frontiers of Canada to that of Mexico, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The existing Colonies and possessions of England have been settled or acquired, chronologically, as follows:—Barbadoes (our oldest Colony) in 1605; Bermuda, 1609; Surat Factory 1611; Nova Scotia, 1621; Newfoundland, 1623; Nevis, 1628; Bahamas, 1629; the Gambia and Gold Coast Forts, 1618 to 1631; Antigua, Montserrat, and St. Christophers, 1632; Fort St. George, or Madras, 1654; St. Helena, 1654-5; Jamaica, 1655; Fort William, or Calcutta, 1656; Bombay Island, 1661; the Virgin Islands, 1666; Honduras, 1670; Hudson's Bay territories, 1670; Gibraltar, 1704; Canada, 1759; St. Vincents, Grenada, Tobago, and Dominica, 1763; Bengal Province, 1768; Prince Edward Island, 1771; Benares Province, 1775; Guntoor and the Circars in Southern India, 1778; New Brunswick, 1784; Penang, 1786; Sierra Leone, 1787. New South

Wales, Australia, 1787; Andaman Islands, 1793; Ceylon, 1795; Trinidad, 1797; the provinces of Tanjore, Canara, Malabar, Wynaad, and Coimbatore, in *Southern*, and of Allahabad, Moradabad, Bareilly, Rohileund, and the Doab, in *Northern* India, 1799-1800; Malta and Gozo, 1800; Perim Island, 1800; Van Diemen's Island, 1803; British Guiana, 1803; St. Lucia, 1803; Delhi, Agra, Meerut, Hurriana, and Etawah, in *Northern*, and Cuttack, Balasore, and Juggernaut, in *Southern* India; several Mahratta districts in 1803-5; Cape of Good Hope, 1806; Mauritius and Seychelles, 1810; Ionian Islands, 1810-11; the Deccan and Nerbudda provinces, 1818-19; Singapoer, 1819; Arracan and the Tenasserim Provinces, 1824; Malacca, 1826; Western Australia, 1829; Aden, 1838; South Australia, 1834-5; Port Phillip, 1835; New Zealand, 1839; Falkland Islands, 1841; Hong Kong, 1842-43; Scinde Province, 1844; Natal, 1844; Labuan, 1847; Vancouver's Island, 1848; and the Punjaub Province, in 1849.

But a small portion of our possessions have been, in the strict sense of the word, colonized from England. Barbadoes, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Upper Canada, Bermudas, Bahamas, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, Virgin Islands, Australasia, and New Zealand, were planted by settlers from Britain; most of our other possessions have been acquired by conquest and cession. Ceylon, the Cape of Good Hope, and Demerara, were taken from the Dutch; Jamaica, Gibraltar, and Trinidad, from the Spaniards; Canada, St. Vincents, Grenada, Tobago, Dominica, St. Lucia, Mauritius, Malta, and the Ionian Islands, were captured from the French; Aden from the Arabs; Hong Kong, from the Chinese, and the Punjaub from the Sikhs.

Although later in the field of colonial enterprise than the neighbouring continental nations, our country advanced slowly, but surely, in the acquisition of colonial or maritime dominions. The North American continent and West India Islands at first engrossed public attention, and, in accordance with the national character, useful rather than showy and specious possessions have, generally speaking, been sought for, and obtained. Agriculture was rightly judged to be the basis of wealth, and the fertility of the soil and a genial climate induced bands of adventurers to migrate to the North American continent. With the growth of maritime commerce and the discovery of tropical countries, arose a taste in Europe for foreign commodities; hence the formation of sugar, coffee, and spice plantations in the West Indies. But agricultural industry, whether under the temperate or torrid zone, was not the only object contemplated; it was rightly foreseen, that the possession within the limits of our own dominion of various foreign products, would furnish lucrative and permanent employment for a large amount of shipping; that our colonists would, by their industry, acquire wealth, and become consumers of home manufactures, and that thus every item of colonial wealth would become, in the aggregate, a portion of the national riches. But in later times, other motives influenced England in the rapid extension of her colonial dominion. On several occasions, during the war with France and Spain, she was compelled, in self-defence, to deprive those nations and their allies of their colonies, as the surest means of weakening their power, and of augmenting her own. At the close of the war in 1814, England had stripped France of every colony she possessed, and had taken all that could endanger her from every other nation with whom she was engaged in hostilities; her fleets swept the ocean fearless

of encountering an European enemy, and her vast colonial commerce enabled her to bid defiance to Napoleon and his Berlin and Milan decrees for the expulsion of our trade from Europe.

The Colonial Possessions belonging to the nations of Continental Europe are—

FRANCE.—*In the West Indies*—Martinique, Guadaloupe, Marie Galante, Descada, and Cayenne. *In North America*—St. Pierre and Miquelon, near Newfoundland. *In Asia*—Pondicherry, Mahe, and Chandernagore. *In Africa*—Algiers, Bona, Senegal, Goree, Bourbon Isle, and Isle St. Marie in Madagascar.

SPAIN.—*West Indies*—Cuba and Porto Rico. *Asia*—Manilla and the Phillipine Islands. *Europe*—Teneriffe and the Canary Islands.

PORTUGAL.—*Asia*—Goa, Timor, and Macao. *Africa*—Forts on the east coast, at Mozambique, Sofala, Delagoa, Inhamban, Quiloa, and on the Zambize; on the west coast at the Congo river. *Europe*—Madeira, Porto Santo, the Azores, and the Cape Verd Islands.

HOLLAND.—*West Indies*—Curaçoa, Saba, St. Eustatia, Surinam, and part of St. Martin. *Asia*—Java, Sumatra, the Moluccas, Banca, and other possessions in the Eastern Archipelago. A factory in Japan. *Africa*—Some forts on the west coast.

DENMARK.—*West Indies*—St. Thomas, Santa Cruz, and St. John. *Asia*—Nicobar Islands. *Africa*—Forts on the Guinea Coast. *America*—Stations on the coast of Greenland.

SWEDEN.—The Island of St. Bartholomew, West Indies.

The foregoing brief sketch of the progress of colonization sufficiently indicates the importance attached to the possession of colonial dominion by ancient and modern nations; nor can any one examine their history without perceiving how materially their destinies have been influenced by the possession and government of colonies.

SECTION II.

EXTENT, POPULATION, CLASSIFICATION, ADMINISTRATION, AND IMPORTANCE OF THE BRITISH COLONIES AND MARITIME POSSESSIONS.

THE Colonies and Transmarine Possessions of England, of which it is intended to give a history and description, are so vast in their extent, so varied in their position, so diversified in their population, forms of government, products, and capabilities, that it is difficult to convey in few words a just idea of their relative importance; if arranged according to their position in the temperate or torrid zones, a very imperfect estimate would be formed of their capabilities, as the degree of elevation above the level of the sea materially influences the products of the soil; moreover, some territories principally situated in the

temperate zone, may be extended to the tropic, as Australia; some settlements reach from the torrid to the temperate regions, as Hindostan, and British America stretches to the Arctic Circle.

The following is a classification of them according to their Territorial Importance, Commercial Value, and Maritime Position:—

POSSESSIONS COMBINING TERRITORIAL IMPORTANCE, COMMERCIAL VALUE, AND MARITIME POSITION.—Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Scinde, the Punjaub, Assam, Arracan, Tavoy, Tenasserim, Wellesley Province, Ceylon, Malacca, New South Wales, Port Phillip, South Australia, Western Australia, Van Diemen's Island, New Zealand, Cape of Good Hope, Canada (Lower), Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Jamaica, Honduras, Trinidad, and British Guiana.

TERRITORIAL IMPORTANCE.—Canada (Upper), Rupert's Land, Vancouver's Island, Hudson's Bay Territories, Prince Edward Island, Natal, Northern Australia, and other parts of New Holland, the Central Provinces of India, and the Punjaub.

COMMERCIAL VALUE.—Newfoundland, Cape Breton Island, Barbadoes, St. Vincents, Grenada, Tobago, Antigua, Dominica, St. Christophers, Lucia, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bahamas, Sierra Leone, the Gambia, Mauritius, Ionian Islands, Penang, and Singapore.

MARITIME POSITION.—Gibraltar, Malta, Gozo, Bermuda, Virgin Islands, Anguilla, Cape Coast Castle, Acera, Annamaboe, the Falkland Isles, Seychelles, St. Helena, Ascension, Heligoland, Aden, Hong Kong, Labuan, Auckland Islands, and the Andaman, and other islands in the Eastern Seas.

This classification, though perhaps the least objectionable, is still imperfect; for it is evident that several of the West India Islands and other settlements are of political as well as commercial value, by affording secure havens for our shipping; thus, mere fortresses such as Gibraltar, are useful commercial depôts, as well as political positions, and, with few exceptions, all are of some territorial importance from their rich and productive soil.

Geographical Position of our Maritime Possessions and Dependencies:

IN ASIA.—Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Scinde, the N.W. provinces of Hindoostan, the Punjaub, Assam, Arracan, Tavoy, Tenasserim, Wellesley Province, and Malacca; the Islands of Ceylon, Penang, Singapore, Labuan, Hong Kong. Area (in round numbers) seven hundred thousand square miles; population about one hundred and twelve million. In addition to this territory actually belonging to the British crown in Asia, there are tributary states extending over half a million square miles, and containing more than fifty million people.

IN NORTH AMERICA.—The Canadas (Upper and Lower), Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Cape Breton, and the Islands of Prince Edward, Newfoundland, and Vancouver's and Queen Charlotte; with an area of more than half a million square miles, and two million inhabitants. We have also on the continent of N. America, the territories belonging to, and under the control of, the Hudson Bay Company, extending from the northern frontiers of Canada to the Frozen Ocean, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific, which comprises upwards of three million square miles, and a population of about one hundred and twenty thousand.

In **SOUTH AMERICA**.—Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice; Honduras and the Falkland Islands. Area about two hundred thousand square miles; population one hundred and fifty thousand.

In the **WEST INDIES**.—The islands of Jamaica, the Caymans, Trinidad, Tobago, Barbadoes, St. Vincents, Grenada, Antigua, St. Lucia, Dominica, St. Christophers, Nevis, Montserrat, Anguilla, Tortola, and the Virgin Islands, Providence, and the Bahamas, and the Bermudas. Area about twenty thousand square miles; population nearly one million.

In **AFRICA**.—The Cape of Good Hope and Natal, the Mauritius and Seychelle Islands, Aden (in Arabia), Sierra Leone, the Gambia, Cape Coast Castle, Accra, and Annamaboe, the Islands of St. Helena and Ascension. Area, four hundred thousand square miles; population eight hundred thousand.

In **AUSTRALASIA**.—The great Island of Australia, or New Holland, which contains the settlements of New South Wales, Port Philip, South Australia, Western Australia, or Swan River, Northern Australia or Port Essington; Van Diemen's Island, New Zealand, Norfolk Island, and the Auckland Islands. Area more than three million square miles; population half a million, of whom 325,000 are Europeans and their descendants.

In **EUROPE**.—Gibraltar, Malta, Gozo, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, and Cerigo, in the Mediterranean; and Heligoland in the German Ocean. Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, have been held as fiefs of the Crown since the reign of William the Conqueror. The area of these territories and dependencies is about fifteen hundred square miles; population nearly half a million. Total area, *eight million* square miles; population* about *one hundred and twenty million*.

The numerous, intelligent, and industrious population inhabiting the British trans-marine territories are as varied in their appearance, character, language, and religion, as the diversified regions in which they dwell. British India possesses a greater variety of races than the continent of Europe. Some of the subjects of the Crown in the East are bold and warlike, others timid and peaceful; some of olive hue, with Roman noses and flowing hair, others have the negro characteristics; some use a polished language, others a barbarous jargon; some are Monotheists, others sunk in the grossest idolatry; some generous and confiding, others treacherous and distrustful. Even in the island of Ceylon there are three races—the Coast Cingalese, the Kandians, and the aborigines or Vedhas. In some of our Eastern possessions Malays predominate; in others, as at Singapore and Hong Kong, Chinese constitute the mass of the population. A fine race, termed the Parsees, or Guebers, settled in Bombay from Persia, and many Armenians reside in Calcutta. Jews dwell in several of our Indian settlements. In the W. Indies there are nearly a million negroes of African descent, and in Guiana and Honduras several aboriginal tribes still remain. There are also in our western colonies many Mulattoes, the offspring of the white and dark-coloured races. The purely white race are few in number, and descended from the English, French, Spanish, Dutch, and Portuguese in the West Indies.

In British N. America there are about two million white inhabitants, of whom six

* In this and other places round numbers are used as best suited to a general summary of facts;—the latest official figures will be given in the body of the work.

hundred thousand are of French descent, and the remainder of the Anglo-Saxon race. There are also about one hundred thousand Indians in the territories confided to the management of the Hudson's Bay Company.

In South Africa, the British subjects are Dutch, English, Hottentots, Caffres, &c. At the Isle of France and Seychelles, principally French; at Aden, Arabs; on the W. coast of Africa, negroes.

In Australasia there are about three hundred and twenty-five thousand of the Anglo-Saxon race, and no other European blood; there are probably one hundred thousand New Zealanders, a fine race; and scattered savage hordes, in Australia. At Gibraltar, there is a medley of many Mediterranean and African races. At Malta, a peculiar population, partaking of the characteristics of the various nations under whose dominion the island has passed. In the Ionian Islands, the inhabitants are principally Greek, with some Venetian blood; in Heligoland, German; and in the Norman, or Channel Islands, French.

The languages spoken throughout the British empire, are English, French, Italian, Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese, Greek, Persian, Arabic, Maltese, Chinese, Armenian, Hindoostance, Bengallee, Marhatti, Tamul, Telooogo, Carnatica, Ooria, Singalese, Malay, Burmese or Assamese, Hottentot, Kaffre, Negro, New Zealand, and various barbarous unwritten tongues. There are about 5,000,000 Christians in our foreign possessions, including the Lutheran, Latin, Greek, and Syriac churches. There are about 50,000,000 Hindoos, professing the religion of Brahm or Brahma; about 20,000,000 Mahomedans; about 10,000,000 Buddhiats, or Jains; a small number of the Zoroaster creed; and the remainder are idolaters of various descriptions.

The other less striking diversities which distinguish the population of an empire exceeding in extent, opulence, and power, Rome in her palmyest days, are deserving of some consideration. The distinction between free and bond—to the honour of Christianity—no longer exists; that fearful outrage on humanity has, to some extent, been redressed, at a cost of £20,000,000 sterling; and in recording the millions of inhabitants congregated within the pale of a single government, the historian cannot but rejoice that he speaks of freemen and not of slaves.

Climate, food, and drink, as well as religion, laws, and language, produce differences in thought, feeling, and action. The Indo-British subject, living on the verge of the Himalaya mountains, is a totally different being from his fellow-citizen dwelling in the flat regions of Bengal. The Mussulman of Calcutta, who eats animal food, possesses far more energy and intelligence than the Hindoo dwelling in the same city who lives on rice and water. The ponderous brandy-drinking boor of South Africa, is a totally different man from the vivacious French Canadian, on the banks of the St. Laurence. A wide difference is invariably found to exist between the denizens of a low, hot, and damp region, and those of an elevated, cool, and dry atmosphere; varieties of food and drink produce equally distinctive effects. Estimating the whole population of the British Empire at 130,000,000, not more than 20,000,000 consume flesh abundantly; about 10,000,000 eat of it sparingly; 24,000,000 occasionally partake of it, and 70,000,000 live principally on vegetables and fish. Wheat, oats, and barley constitute the principal granivorous food of about 34,000,000; potatoes, pulse, and other vegetables, of about 16,000,000; and

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rice, maize, millet, and several minor grains, of about 80,000,000 people. With regard to fermented or distilled drink, about 10,000,000 use wine frequently, 25,000,000 malt liquors, 35,000,000 distilled liquors, and about 60,000,000 confine themselves chiefly to aqueous beverages. About one-half the population of the British empire reside within the temperate, and the other half within the torrid zone.

These facts shew that the British is far from being a homogeneous empire; they indicate the great care required even in the application of ordinary rules, much more in the adaptation of abstract principles to vast and varied masses of men under different degrees of civilization.

It may be necessary to offer a succinct view of the home administration of our maritime possessions.

The whole of the British territories on the peninsula of India, and the settlements of Penang, Malacca, and Singapore, are under the management of the East India Company, whose delegated trust expires in 1853-54. The affairs of the East India Company are managed by a court of twenty-four Directors, and controlled by the India Board, which is presided over by a cabinet minister representing the Crown, who has under him a working department distinct from that maintained at the East India House. The India Board consists of the President, of paid or unpaid Commissioners (whom the Crown may nominate), and of the two principal Secretaries of State and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who always, *ex officio*, form three of the unpaid Commissioners of the India Board. There are two Parliamentary Secretaries to the Board, and the Clerks are divided into judicial, revenue, political, and other departments. There is a permanent Secretary of the Board, and a Librarian.

The Court of Directors of the East India Company are elected by the proprietors of East India stock, and presided over by a Chairman and Deputy Chairman annually chosen by the Court, which is divided into judicial, revenue, and other committees. The secret Committee, consisting of the Chairman, Deputy Chairman, and Senior Director, confer on all matters of importance with the President of the India Board. The patronage, consisting of the appointment of writers or civil servants, military cadets, surgeons, and chaplains, is annually divided into thirty shares, of which the President of the India Board, and Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the East India Company have each two shares; and each Director of the East India Company, one share. In India promotion, both in the civil and military service, goes chiefly by seniority. Staff appointments rest with the Commander-in-Chief, and high political trusts are in the appointment of the Governor-General. In England the President of the India Board has, under the advice of Her Majesty's ministers, the appointment of Commander-in-Chief of the Anglo-Indian army, and of Judges and Bishops. Her Majesty's government also possess a *veto* on the nomination (by the Directors of the East India Company) of Governors-General, Governors, and Members of Council. The Court of Directors may, however, recall a Governor-General without the consent of the Crown. The India Board, on behalf of the Sovereign, exercises a controlling power in revising all despatches prepared by the Court of Directors and addressed to the governments in India, at Bengal, Madras, Bombay, &c., and the Board alone sanctions increased expenditure at home or abroad. It also possesses an *originating* power of requiring the Court of Directors to prepare a despatch on any

named subject, of altering such despatch as it may seem fit, and of enforcing its transmission to India by a mandamus from the Court of Queen's Bench at Westminster. The joint power of the Court and Board is exercised in framing laws for the government of India, and in approving or annulling the enactments made in India by the local governments.

The Hudson's Bay territories in North America have been confided to a chartered body called the "Hudson's Bay Company," since 1670. To this company, in 1818, has also been confided the colonization of Vancouver's Island. The powers entrusted to this Corporation and its mode of working will be detailed when describing the territories under their rule.

The Norman or Channel Islands have their respective legislatures under the supervision of the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

All the other colonies are in charge of the Colonial Secretary, and may be divided into three classes:—1st, Those having a Representative Assembly, a Legislative Council nominated, and a Governor also appointed, by the Crown. 2nd, Those having *no* Representative Assembly, but a Legislative Council and Governor. In some colonies of this class the members of the Legislative Council are partly nominated by the Crown, and partly elected by the colonists. 3rd, Those having neither an Assembly or Council, but only a Governor, such as Gibraltar. In many instances there is also an Executive Council, composed of the principal servants of the crown. The Secretary of State for the Colonies is a cabinet minister of the highest rank, and during war he represents the military department of the government in the cabinet; he has the nomination of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, who retires with him on a change of administration; he acts always in the name of the sovereign, whom he is supposed to consult previous to taking any important step; and he is bound to submit to his colleagues in the cabinet measures of importance previous to their final arrangement. Colonial charters and other questions may be referred by the Secretary of State to a department of the Privy Council for trade and plantations. Emigration and land sales in the colonies are confided to the management of three Emigration Commissioners, acting under the orders of the Secretary of State. The permanent department of the Colonial Office consists of two Under Secretaries (one of whom is law adviser on colonial subjects to the Secretary of State) of a chief, and several head clerks, gentlemen of great ability and much general experience, to each of whom is confided a group of colonies, according to their geographical position; several assistant or subordinate clerks and writers, and a librarian or registrar, to whom is entrusted the custody, arrangement, and preparation for printing of public papers.

The patronage of the Secretary of State consists in the nomination of the Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, Commanders-in-Chief, Judges, Bishops, and Church Dignitaries, Law Officers, Secretaries, Treasurers, Auditors, and civil functionaries of every description in the colonies; also the members of the Colonial Executive Council, and the Crown members of the Colonial Legislative Councils; he likewise fills up vacancies in the Emigration Commission, and such as may occur in his own office in Downing-street, where the principle of seniority is not involved.

The power of the Imperial Parliament is exercised in framing constitutions for the colonies, or laws applicable to one or more of our possessions; in the appointment of select

committees to inquire into grievances, or procure information; and in addressing the crown on any subject requiring attention.

Parliament may suspend the constitution, alter, abridge, or extend the functions of any Colonial Legislature: the House of Commons may also interfere in the internal taxation of colonies not possessing Legislative Assemblies; and, as a high court of judicature, the House of Lords may try any governor, or other functionary, impeached by the Commons.

Acts of the Colonial Legislatures, unless disallowed by the crown or parliament, within two years, become permanent laws. The crown, through its representative, sanctions the introduction of money bills into the colonial assemblies. A department of the Privy Council investigates colonial matters referred to its jurisdiction by the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

The Colonies of England were formerly under the management of a board, to whose care was confided the trade and plantations of the kingdom. On the abolition of the Plantation Board, and the office of third Secretary of State, on the economical motion of Mr. Burke, after the loss of our American possessions, the remaining colonies were transferred to the care of the Secretary of State for the Home Department. On the breaking out of the revolutionary war at the close of the last century, a Secretaryship of State for War was created, and to this department the control of the colonies was confided in 1801. Since then our colonies have been largely augmented, and it has become a question, whether the Home Administrative Department for their management in England does not require enlargement and modification.

In 1837 the writer of this work petitioned the House of Commons on the subject, pointing out the difficulty of exercising a wise and satisfactory rule over numerous and distant transmarine territories, through the medium of a single chief, who was changed with every party majority in the House of Commons,—urging, that within three years there were five different Secretaries and five Under-Secretaries of State for the colonies, whose brief duration of office rendered it next to impossible for them, however great their talents or energies, to enter fully into the various and complicated questions connected with our colonies; and suggesting, therefore, that it might be advisable to constitute a *Colonial Board or Council* to assist the Secretary of State,—such Board to be composed chiefly of governors, and other servants of the crown. An effective measure of this nature, which may be adopted without any additional expense to the British Exchequer, might avert the necessity of yielding to extreme and unconstitutional propositions. A Colonial Board, such as that of the Treasury, Admiralty, &c., composed of members possessed of local knowledge, as well as general ability, if permanent, would mitigate, if not altogether remove the evils now unavoidably resulting from the frequent change of the Secretary of State, whose labours are exceedingly arduous and responsible.

This is not the place to enter into any examination of possible retrenchments in Colonial Expenditure, civil or military. The whole sums voted by Parliament for the *civil* expenditure of the colonies in 1849, derived from the revenues of Great Britain, were, in round numbers,—Bahamas, £300; Bermuda, £4,000; Prince Edward Island, £2,000; Western coast of Africa, £13,000; Western Australia, £7,400; Port Essington, or Northern Australia (about to be abandoned), £1,700; New Zealand, £20,000; Heligoland, £1000,

Falkland Islands, £5,700; Hong Kong, £25,000; Labuan, £10,000; governors and others in the West Indies, £18,000; St. Helena, and retired servants of East India Company, £17,000. *Total* £125,000. Clergy in N. America, £11,500; Indian department Canada, £14,000; Justices or Stipendiary Magistrates in the West Indies, Mauritius, &c., £41,000; Militia and Volunteers in Canada, £16,000; Emigration department, £13,000 Colonial Office, £37,000. *Total* £133,000.—Thus it will be seen that the total civil charges of the whole of our colonies defrayed out of the Home Exchequer, directly or indirectly, permanently or temporarily, is about a quarter of a million sterling.

The people of British India provide *the whole* of the civil and military charges of Hindoostan, defray annually the expenses of twenty to thirty thousand of the Queen's troops; the cost of the Court of Directors of the East India Company in Leadenhall-street, and of the India Board in Westminster. The convict expenditure in Australia and Bermuda is about £225,000 a-year, but this outlay results from vice and crime in the United Kingdom, and is not chargeable to our colonies. The total military cost for the pay and commissariat of the Queen's troops in all our colonies was, for the year 1847: pay, £1,503,059, commissariat, £670,142 = £2,174,059. Of this sum £603,718 was for the Cape of Good Hope during the Kaffre war.

In some of the colonies there are local corps, as in the West Indies, Ceylon, and Malta. There are militia corps in several of our settlements; those of our N. American Colonies comprise 339,189 men.

It is deserving of consideration, with regard to our military expenditure in the colonies, that England is obliged to maintain a standing army; which, considering the extent of the standing armies of all European nations, it is a grave question, whether it would be prudent in us materially to reduce.

But, as the constitutional jealousy of a free country objects to the presence of a soldiery which might be made the instruments for wielding despotic power, it is well that those troops should be scattered in different colonies, inured to privation, seasoned in various climates, and ready on any emergency for effective service.

A similar remark applies to the Royal Navy, which our insular position and wide extended commerce requires to be maintained in considerable force. The possession of strongholds and havens in every part of the globe enables us to dispense with the large amount of naval strength that would otherwise be requisite; and our seamen are rendered perfect, and retained in a high state of discipline by being stationed for three or four years on the shores of the distant colonies, in various climates, and amidst many dangers, yet always among their own countrymen, and losing nothing therefore of their nationality.

The shipping registered as sailing-vessels, in the British Colonies in N. America, Australia, Africa, and the West Indies, amounts to half a million tons, and the steam-vessels to sixteen thousand tons. The British shipping cleared out of the ports of the United Kingdom for the British possessions alone, in 1847, amounted to more than *two million tons*. Steam communication has now brought the most distant parts of the empire into close, frequent, and regular intercourse. Mails and passengers arrive in ten days from our North American Colonies, in twenty from the West Indies, in thirty days from the East Indies, in fifty from China; and, according to a new line, they will arrive in sixty days from Australia. This diminution of time or distance between the parent state and

her possessions will greatly tend to consolidate the empire. Lord Brougham, in his able work on "Colonial Policy," has well described the beneficial effects of frequent international communication in the following words:—"The only constant, regular, and extensive intercourse, arising from the circulation of inhabitants, is that which is carried on between the different provinces of the same empire, either contiguous or remote—between the country and the towns—the provinces, or provincial towns, and the capital—the districts of industry and self-denial, and the seats of opulence and pleasure—the mother country and her colonies. This intercourse and circulation tends, more than any other thing, to preserve the connexion of the different component parts of a great and scattered empire, and to cement the whole mass."

The colonies yield us a *certain* supply of necessaries and luxuries which no foreign war or hostile tariffs can lessen. Of 7,000,000 cwt. of sugar imported, our colonies furnish 5,500,000. They send us also 35,000,000 lbs. of coffee, 4,000,000 lbs. of cocoa, 7,000,000 gallons of rum, 1,000,000 lbs. of cinnamon, 6,000,000 lbs. of pepper, 2,000,000 gallons of vegetable oils, 8,000,000 lbs. Indigo, 40,000,000 lbs. of wool (sheep), 100,000,000 lbs. of cotton wool, 1,000,000 lbs. of silk, 1,000,000 cwt. of rice, 1,000,000 loads of timber; also corn, provisions, flax, hemp, hides, skins, saltpetre, gums, drugs, dyes, metals, &c., all capable of indefinite increase. In fish alone Newfoundland has contributed to the empire to the value of about £200,000,000, a richer wealth than the South American mines yielded to Spain.

The exports of manufactured articles from the United Kingdom to the colonies nearly equals our whole exports of similar articles to every part of the globe. Mr. Disraeli stated in Parliament, on July 2, 1849, that "in the article of *calicoes alone* there has been an export to the British Colonies, from 1831 to 1846, of 313,000,000 yards more than to all the rest of the world;" and it must be remembered, that a colonial trade is even more valuable than a home trade, because not only are the two profits on buying and selling obtained by the citizens of the same empire, but a large and valuable amount of shipping is employed.

British India and Ceylon consume annually British and Irish produce and manufactures of the value of £6,000,000; N. American colonies, £4,500,000; West Indies, £3,500,000; Australian Colonies, £2,000,000; the African settlements more than £2,000,000; the European and other settlements, require for use or sale, about £2,000,000. Our colonial export trade therefore amounts to £20,000,000 a year, and is annually increasing. This commerce, in a national point of view, is double the value of an equal amount of foreign commerce, for the reasons above stated; namely, that the whole profits thereon accrue to the empire, and are in no way divided with foreign states.

Much of our foreign trade may be, and indeed often is, earned on at a loss. When goods accumulate in the warehouses of our great hives of industry, in Lancashire and Yorkshire, they must be sold at any sacrifice; and the difference between the cost and sale price is made up out of the profits on the home and colonial trade. The extent of foreign trade is not an infallible criterion either of individual or national wealth. It is often difficult for exporters to realize in cash, or otherwise, the value of goods sent to a foreign country; but in our colonies goods are consigned to corresponding firms;

or, there are English courts of law there for the ready recovery of debts. Moreover the Metropolitan-Colonial Banks established in London, since 1834, such as the "Austrian," "British North American," "Colonial W. I.," "Oriental," "Ceylon," "Ionian," &c., render the remittance of money between England and her colonies as easy and secure as between London and Liverpool. The increasing value of our Colonies is thus shown by T. F. Elliot, Esq., Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies:—

	A. D.	Population.	Imports.	Exports.	Value of Imports per head.	Value of Exports per head.
Old American Colonies (in 1773) . .	2,312,000	£1,000,000	£1,800,000	£0 8 8 . .	£0 15 6	
Australian Colonies (in 1845) . .	283,873	£2,070,000	£2,180,000	£7 5 10 . .	£7 14 3	

The duties levied in foreign countries on British produce and manufactures, vary from ten to fifty per cent.; but in New South Wales, South Australia, Van Diemen's Land, New Zealand, Ceylon, Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, Sierra Leone, &c., British manufactures of woollen, cotton, and silk are received as *free of all duties* as if transmitted from one part of the United Kingdom to another. In our North American Colonies, the duty on British manufactures is 5 to 7, in the West Indies 3 to 4, and in British India but 3 per cent. The consumption of British produce and manufactures in our colonial possessions, ranges from two to ten pounds sterling per head annually; in the United States of America, our best foreign customers, the average is under ten shillings a head annually. It has been said that colonies must become useless as commercial markets under what is termed "Free Trade." But it may also be urged that "free imports" do not constitute free trade;—that the United States and European nations do not admit British and Colonial produce and manufactures on the *same terms* as England admits their products into the United Kingdom and its dependencies;—that since the adoption of our tariff of free imports in 1816-7, no nation has entered into reciprocal arrangements,—in some instances foreign tariffs have been increased, and that but for the revolutionary state of Continental Europe during 1848 and 1849, by which the manufactures and commerce of the revolutionary countries have been suspended or deranged, it may be doubted whether the newly-adopted system could have been maintained. An European war, the blockade of important rivers, such as the Elbe or Scheldt, the occupation of the territory of a commercial ally, as that of Mexico by the United States, all tend to the diminution of our precarious foreign trade; but a colonial traffic is always within our own control, both for the consumption of British manufactures and for the supply of food and of raw products; and the time is probably not far distant when England and her maritime dependencies will be included in one commercial league, with as perfect freedom of trade as if no ocean rolled between them.

The imperious expression of Napoleon when seeking the destruction of England, and unable to accomplish it by the means in his possession, was—"I must have ships, colonies, and commerce!" The sagacious Talleyrand also, when urging France to acquire and maintain colonies as the best mode of sustaining a fleet which might "reach the vitals of England," declared, that colonies were the sheet anchor of Britain—the support of her navy—the fortress of her power: "Render these useless," said Talleyrand, "or deprive her of them, and you break down her last wall—you fill up her last moat." "Whatever," said Talleyrand, "gives colonies to France, supplies her with ships and

sailors, manufactures, and husbandmen. Victories by land can only give her mutinous subjects, who, instead of augmenting the national force by their riches or numbers, contribute only to disperse or enfeeble that force; but the growth of colonies supplies her with zealous citizens, and the increase of real wealth and effective numbers is the certain consequence."

Napoleon, in one of his prophetic moments at St. Helena, truly remarked, "England should look wholly to commerce and to naval affairs; she never can be a continental power, and in the attempt must be ruined: let her maintain the empire of the seas, and she may send her ambassadors to the courts of Europe, and demand what she pleases."

There are other forcible reasons which enhance the value of the Colonies; especially the existing density in England of four hundred mouths on each square mile of arable surface, and a population still further increasing in the United Kingdom at the rate of nearly a mouth every minute, or upwards of one thousand a day beyond the deaths, which makes emigration a matter of state policy as well as individual necessity, if we would avert the evils of a social or servile war, which is inevitably caused by an excess of inhabitants in any country.

If England had no foreign possessions or waste lands, the extrusion of the excessive population might be the sole object, even if the surplus went to enrich and strengthen a rival state; but when there are millions of acres ready for the plough in different parts of the empire, it seems suicidal to transfer, or suffer to be transferred, to another nation, the blood and bone of our own. Of the two million emigrants who have quitted the United Kingdom within the last twenty-four years, four-fifths have strengthened the power and added to the wealth of the United States of America. When emigration is left to itself, men of small capital, the bold and the energetic, are the first to quit their native home; society thus becomes weakened, and less able to bear with accumulating difficulties; the pressure on the labour market, which alone required relief, is increased by the departure of the employers of labour; capital, unable to find secure and profitable investment at home, seeks its interest in foreign lands; the mysterious link which unites national with individual weal is destroyed; a democratic spirit looks to political changes for social amelioration; and the whole frame-work of society becomes unhinged. A state paper addressed by Lord Bacon to James I. in 1606, contains reasons for emigration, and for the planting of new settlements, which well deserve consideration in the present day. "An effect of peace in fruitful kingdoms where the stock of people receiving no consumption nor diminution by war doth continually multiply and increase, must, in the end, be a surcharge or overflow of people more than the territories can well maintain, which many times insinuating a general necessity and want of means into all estates, doth turn external peace into internal troubles and seditions. Now what an excellent diversion of this inconvenience is ministered to your Majesty in this plantation of Ireland (colonies), wherein so many families may receive sustentation and fortune, and the discharge of them out of England and Scotland may prevent many seeds of future perturbation; so that it is as if a man were troubled for the avoidance of water from the places where he had built his house, and afterwards should advise with himself to cast those floods, pools, or streams for pleasure, provision, or use. So shall your Majesty in this work have a double commodity in the avoidance of people here, and in making use of them there."

Our Colonies offer a noble field for British industry. They could sustain with ease an addition of one hundred million to their present population. In the Canadas there are not *six* individuals to each square mile of area, in Australasia not *three*, in Southern Africa not *two*. Wordsworth's beautiful lines are peculiarly appropriate at the present time:—

“As the element of air affords
An easy passage to the industrious bees,
Fraught with their burdens; and a way as smooth
For those ordained to take their sounding flight
From the thronged hive, and settle where they list—
In fresh abodes their labour to renew:
So the wide waters open to the power,
The will, the interests, and appointed needs
Of Britain, do invite her to cast off
Her swarms; and, in succession, send them forth,
Bound to establish new communities
On every shore whose aspect favours hope,
Or bold adventure; promising to skill
And perseverance their deserved reward.
Change, wide and deep, and silently performed,
This land shall witness; and, as days roll on,
Earth's universal frame shall feel the effect,
Even to the smallest habitable rock
Beaten by lonely billows, hear the songs
Of harmonized society, and bloom
With civil arts that send their fragrance forth,
A grateful tribute to all-ruling Heaven.—*Book IX. Excursions.*

From seven to eight million sterling are now annually expended in the United Kingdom in the support of two million paupers; if a portion of that sum were appropriated towards the conveyance of a part of the able-bodied poor to the less populated parts of the empire, a grievous burthen, which is now weighing down the energies of the country, would be converted into a source of wealth and strength to the nation; unprofitable consumers would become producers of food and other exchangeable articles, demanding in return British manufactures, and the waste lands of the Crown would become sources of national and individual prosperity. Two hundred million sterling have been levied by law and expended for the relief of the poor in England and Wales, between the years 1815 and 1819. The sum which it costs to maintain a pauper in England would convey him to another part of the Empire, where he might in the same space of time be a useful consumer instead of a waster of capital.

Every tree felled, every acre cultivated, in our Colonies, furnishes additional employment for the looms, shipping, and commerce of England; and our rich possessions in the East and West Indies are capable of furnishing an inexhaustible supply of tropical and other products, so much in demand throughout Europe and America. By judiciously directing the stream of emigration where it may fertilize our own waste lands, we not only provide for the immediate exigencies of a superabundant population, but we preserve to ourselves the main element of national strength, and thus render it conducive to the permanent welfare of the Empire.

China, Japan, Corea, Cochin China, and Siam—containing nearly one-half the population of the globe, are scarcely yet known to us; and our possessions in the Pacific and Indian Oceans may be the means of opening the door for extensive intercourse with those vast regions.

Again, the Colonies afford a wide sphere of action for enterprising or restless spirits, who, with good education but limited means, are desirous of improving their condition. How many young men of good family, and of industrious habits, have found honourable and lucrative employment in the East and West Indies, North America, Australia, &c. The East Indian and Colonial Civil Services contain many able and distinguished servants of the crown, whose minds, expanded by their position, fit them for the government of an empire; and the Anglo-Indian army of two hundred thousand men is commanded by military officers whose science, skill, and prowess is unsurpassed by that of any other army in the world.

There are few counties in the United Kingdom in whose soil wealth acquired in the colonies has not been invested. British India alone, in payment of military, civil, and other charges, pensions, &c., has remitted to England in bullion and produce at least three millions sterling per annum for the last fifty years, making the enormous sum of £150,000,000. Sir Charles Forbes, whose name is revered at home, and almost worshipped in India by the affectionate and grateful people of that vast country, as the just, generous, and unswerving advocate of their interests, declared in Parliament, when deploring the lamentable inattention too generally evinced to their welfare, and the absence of a policy conciliatory to their feelings, that "*the wealth which England has obtained from the natives of India would, at compound interest, pay off the National Debt!*" The balance of trade, the private fortunes made abroad, and the savings of civil and military men, are, generally speaking, spent "at home."

By means of her colonies England is enabled to assume a high national position; and should, unfortunately, a general European war arise, she is independent of every foreign country for the supply of the necessaries or luxuries of life, or for the raw materials required for her manufactures.

In estimating the political value of our colonies, it must not be forgotten that their possession gives an enlarged tone even to the minds of those who have never quitted the shores of Britain. Mere islanders, whose views and thoughts are limited to the narrow territory in which they dwell, acquire contracted ideas, unsuited to the policy of a great nation; but England exists in each quarter of the globe—her people become familiarized with the distant regions of the earth, and a national spirit is fostered, eminently conducive to the creation and preservation of a vast empire.

Throughout the greater part of the globe a stupendous moral, as well as political, revolution is working for some great end. England is not only the heart of a mighty empire, whose branches and roots extend to the uttermost parts of the earth, she is also the "nursing mother" of nations yet in their infancy, and on her righteous fulfilment of this responsible duty, depends alike their future welfare and her own. If true to her trust, she may, under Divine Providence, be the instrument of establishing peace—extending civilization—and disseminating the inestimable blessings of Christianity throughout the world.

R. M. MARTIN.

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Engraved by J. Cochran

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

OB. 1596.

FROM THE ORIGINAL IN THE COLLECTION OF

THE MOST NOBLE THE MARQUIS OF LOTHIAN



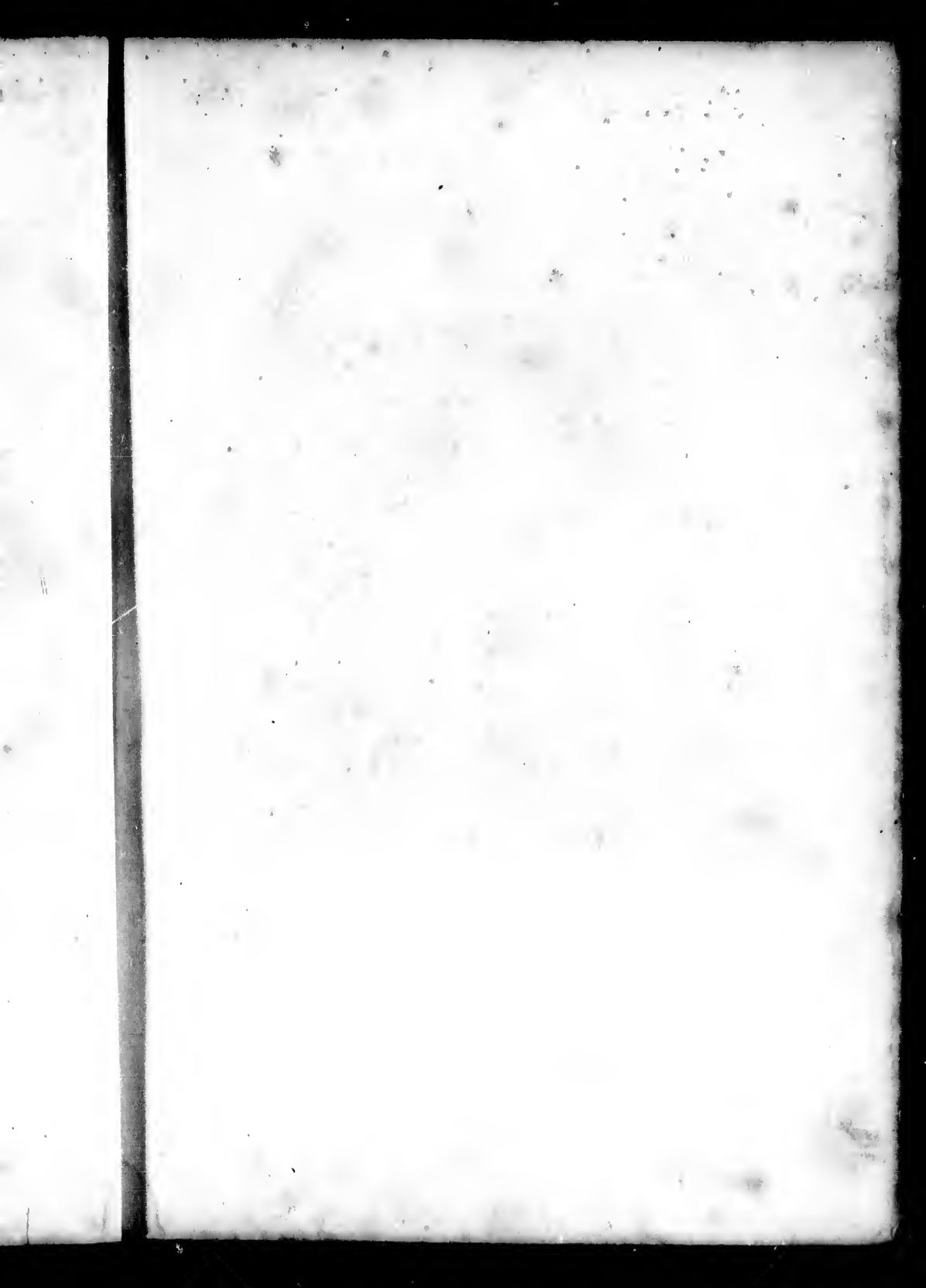
Engraved by R. Robinson.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

OIL. 1618.

FROM THE ORIGINAL OF ZUCCHERO IN THE COLLECTION OF

THE MOST NOBLE THE MARQUIS OF BATH.





Engraved by J. Cochin.

FRANCIS BACON, VISCOUNT ST ALBAN.

OB. 1626.

FROM THE ORIGINAL OF VAN SOMER, IN THE COLLECTION OF

THE RIGHT HON^{BLE} THE EARL OF VERULAM

LONDON: PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY COMPANY



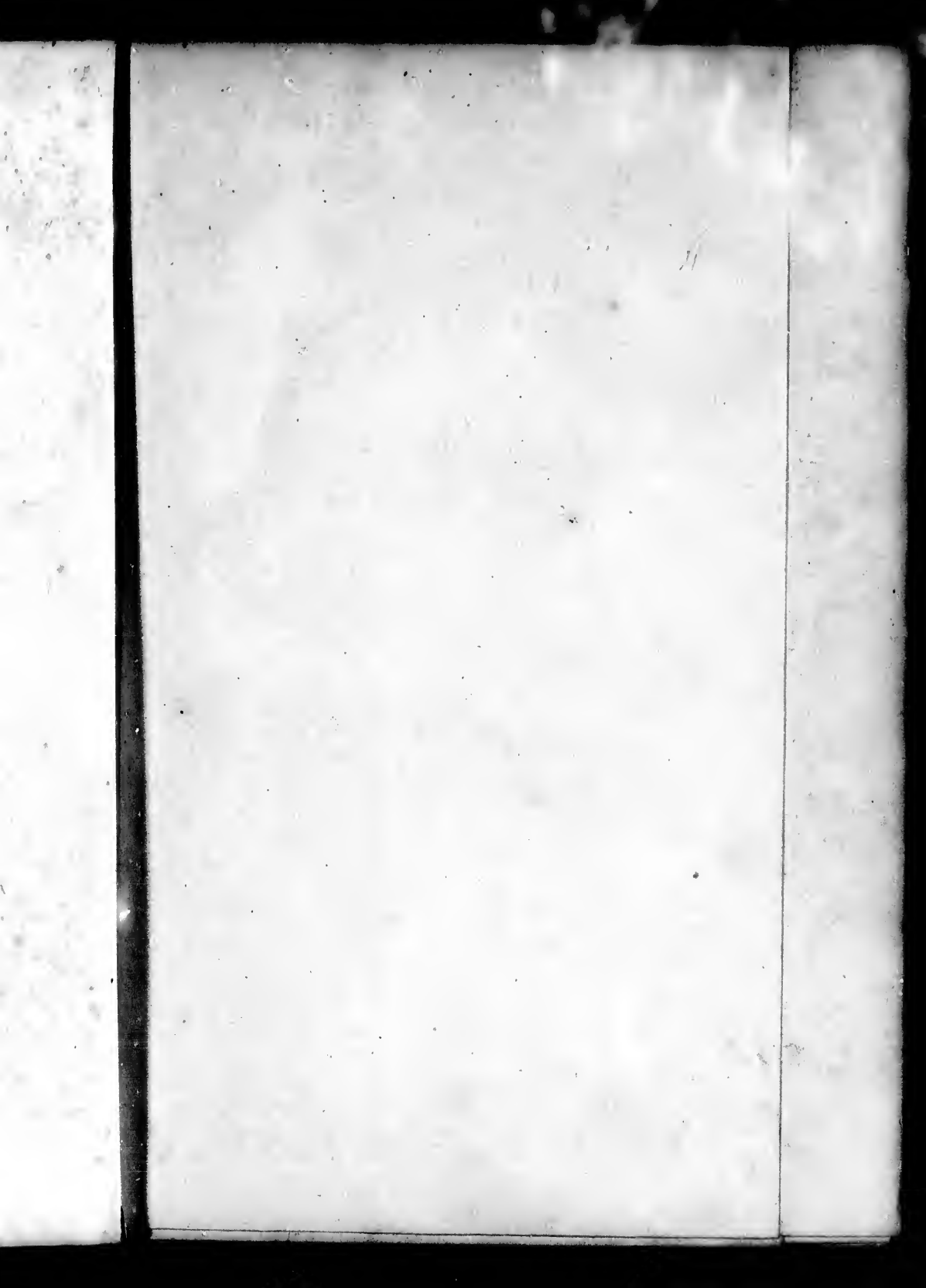
Engraved by G. Cochran.

QUEEN ANNE.

1683-1714.

FROM THE ORIGINAL BY KNELLER IN THE COLLECTION OF

THE RIGHT HON^{BLE} THE EARL OF EGREMONT



THE WORLD ON MURKIN'S PROJECTION



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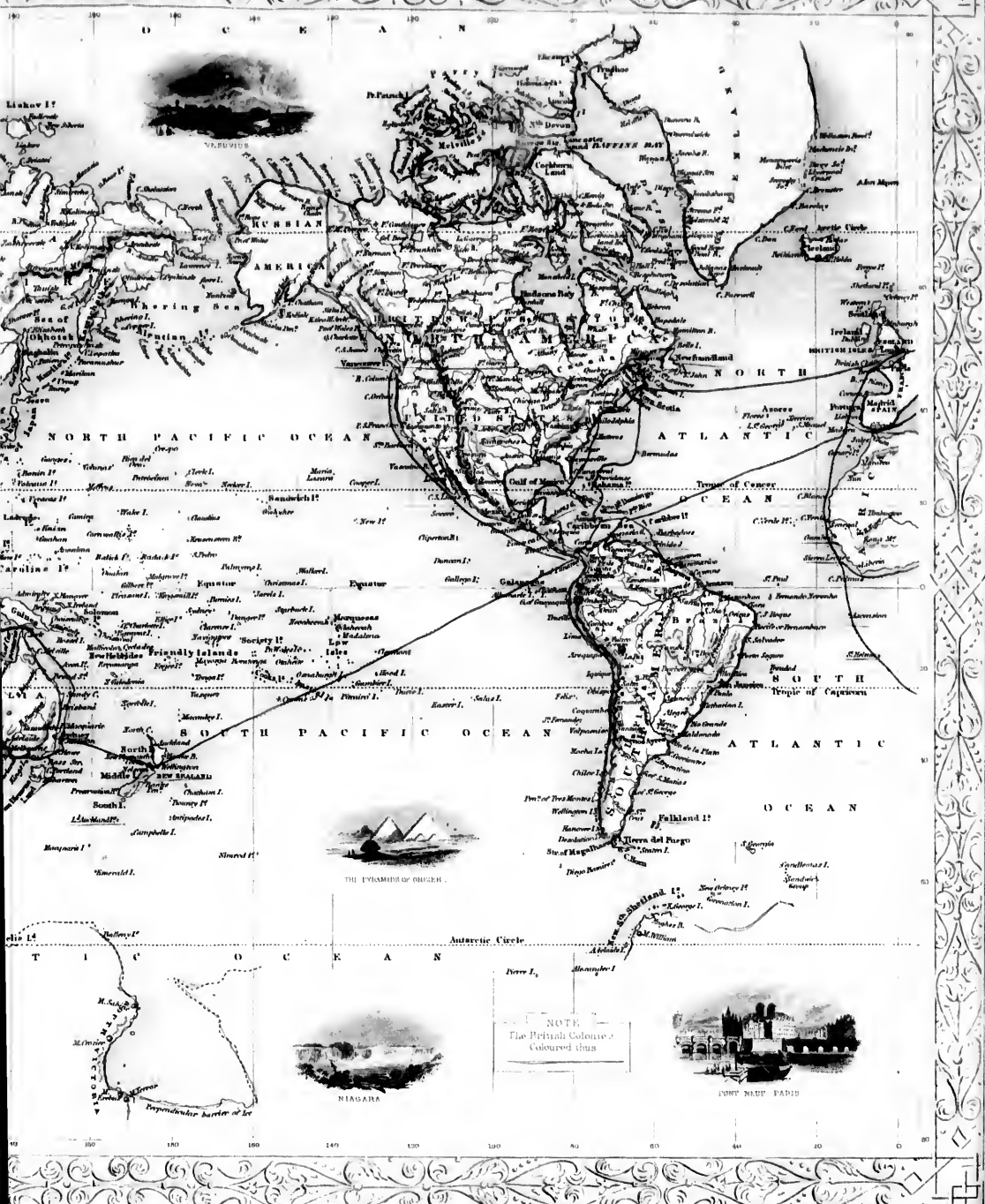
CONSTANTINOPLE

NOTE
Steam Route to the Colonies
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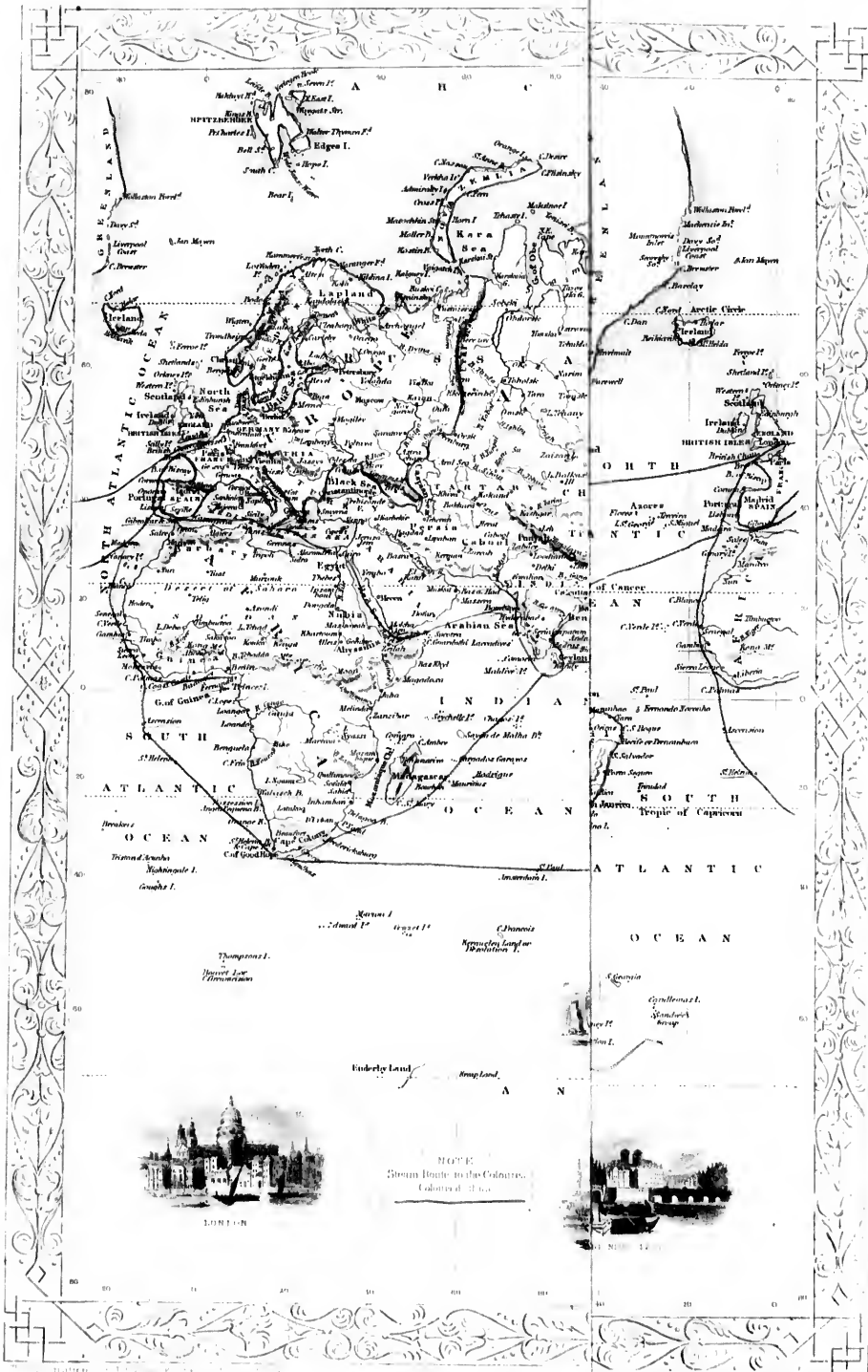
The Illustrations by H. Warren, & Engraved by J. B. Allen

THE WORLD

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MERCATOR'S PROJECTION



NOTE
The British Colonies
Coloured thus





NORTH AMERICA.





WARTI DEER

NORTH AMERICAN WILDS.

ANCIENT MONUMENT, MEXICO.

SCALE

CONTOY OF DIAMONDS

Longitude 100° West from Greenwich

NORTH AMERICA



SCALE
Miles
Longitude (ad.) West from Greenwich

ANCIENT MONUMENT MEXICO

CONVOY OF DIABOLUS

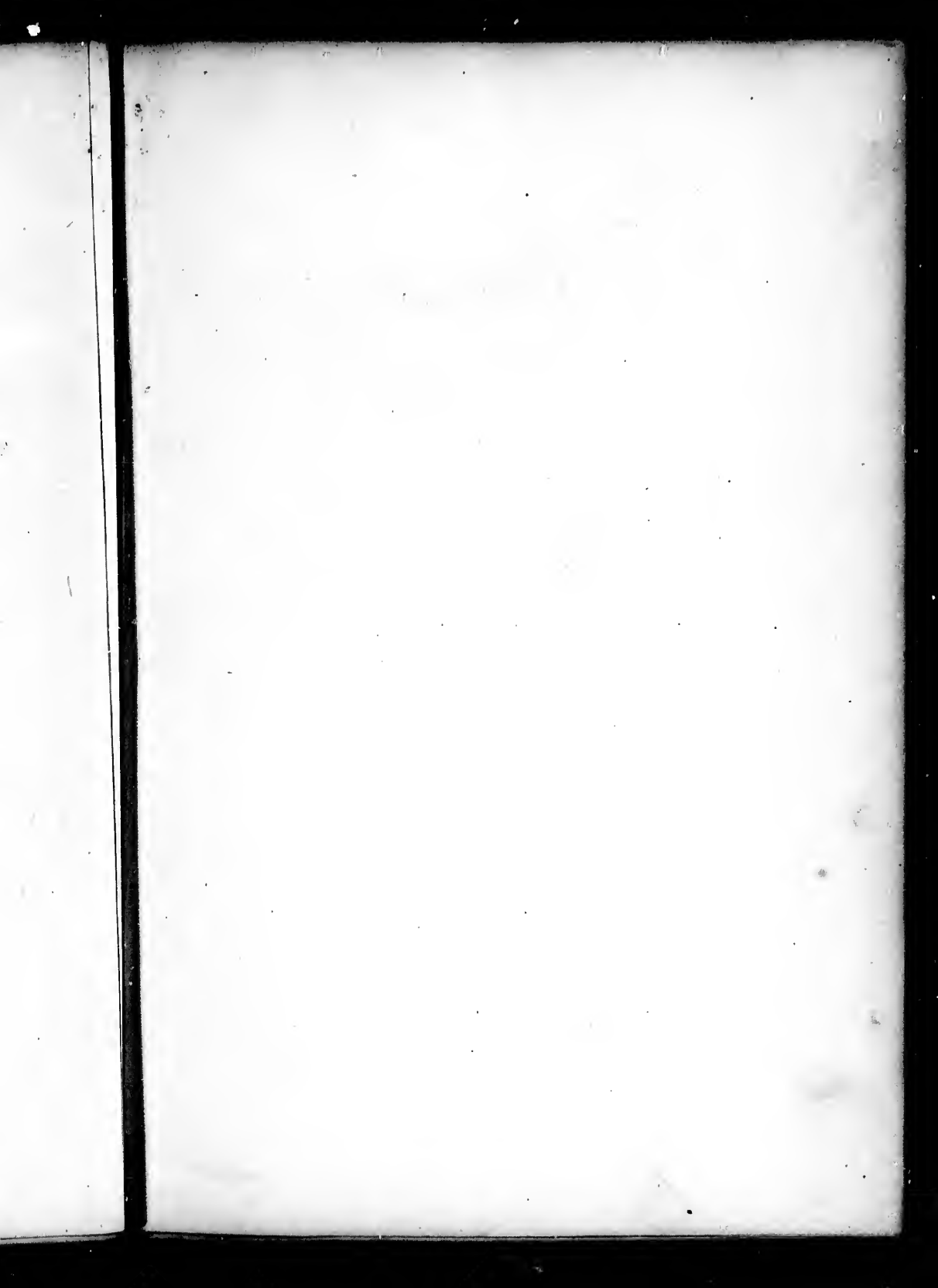
Decorative border with intricate scrollwork and floral patterns along the left edge of the page.



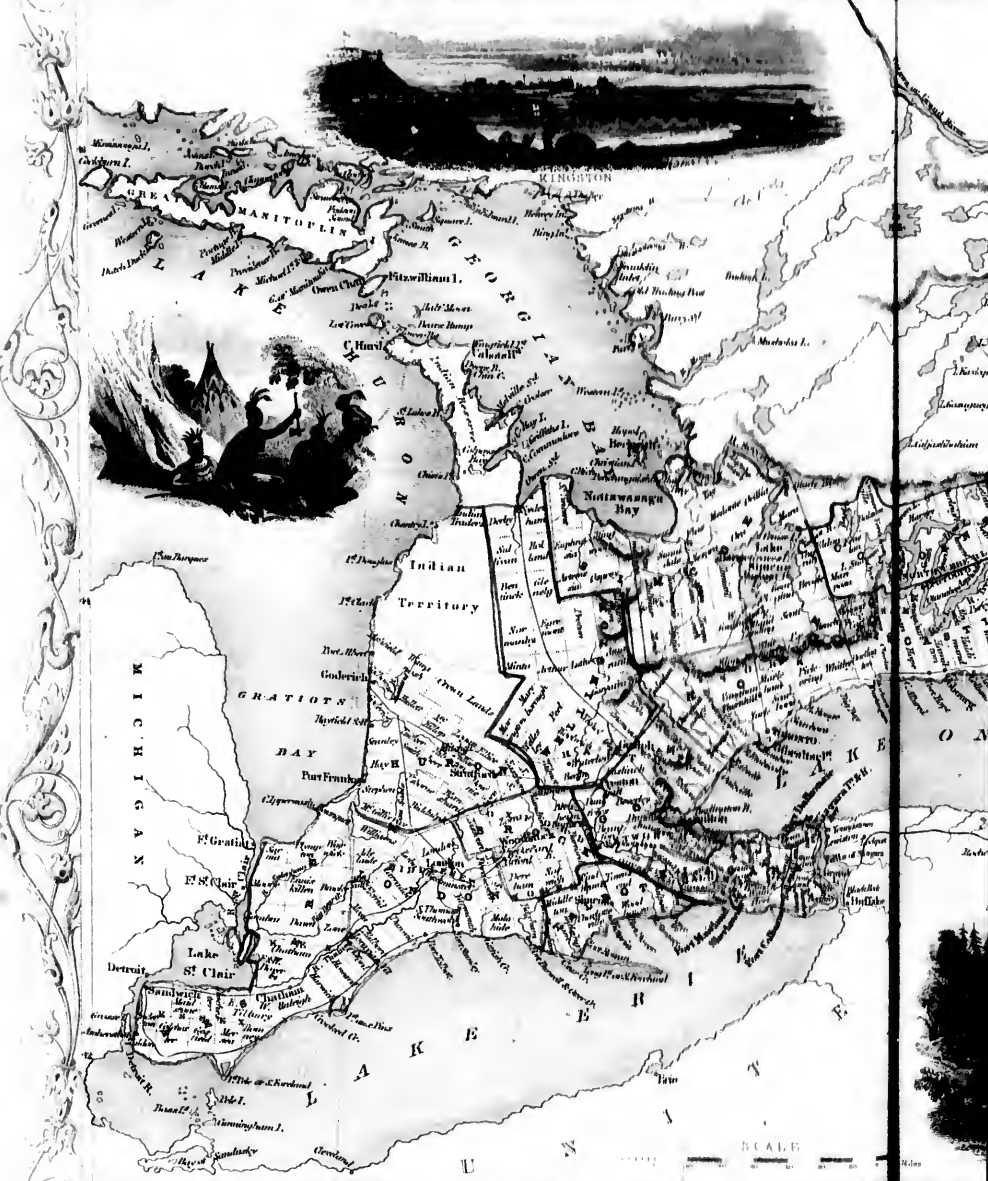
NOTE - The Dots Colored thus indicate the Ports and principal Stations of the Hudson Bay Company.

BRITISH AMERICA





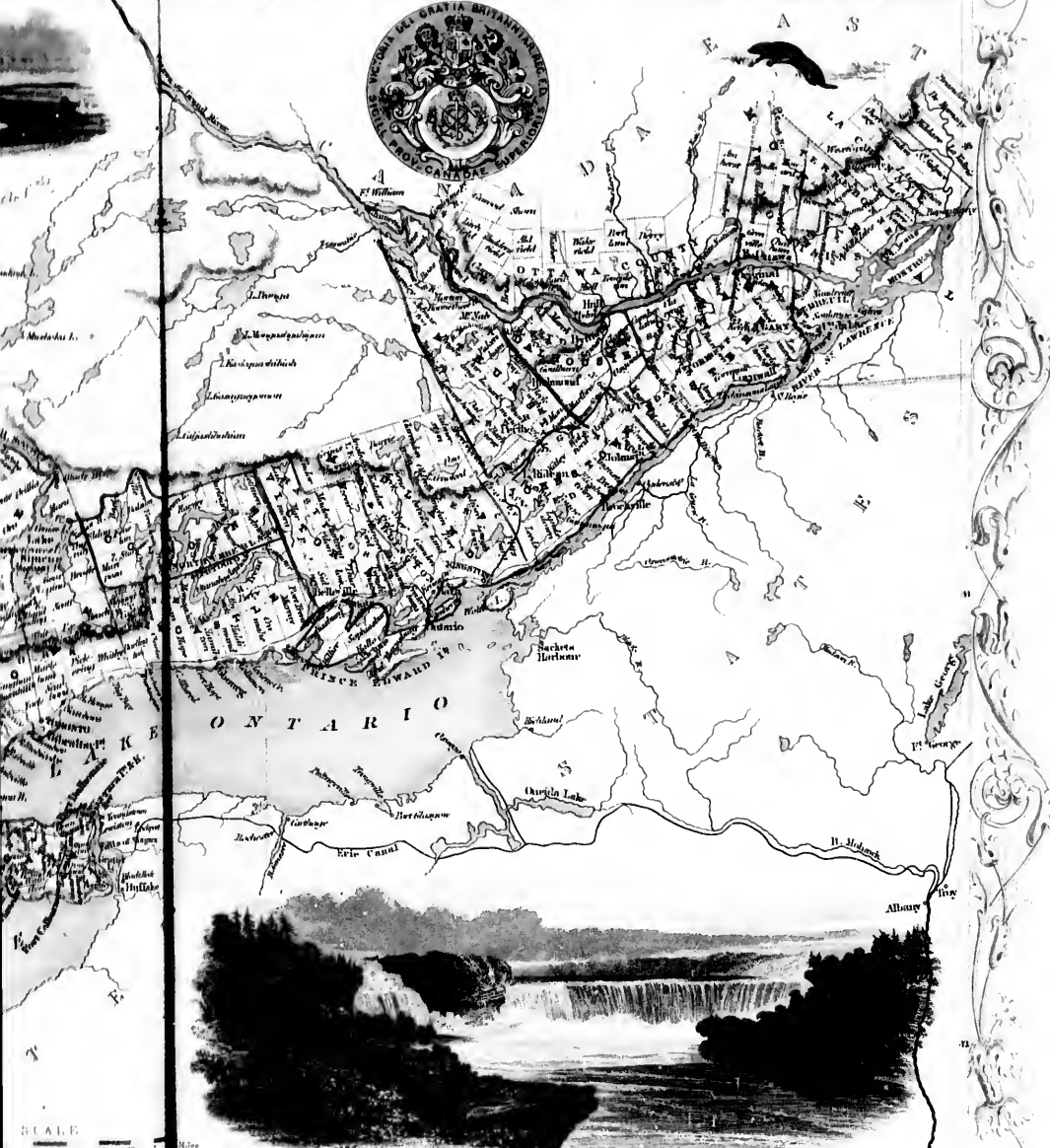
CANADA



The Illustrations by H. Warren, & Engraved by J. S. Lee

THE LONDON PRINTING AND PUBLISHING CO.

CANADA

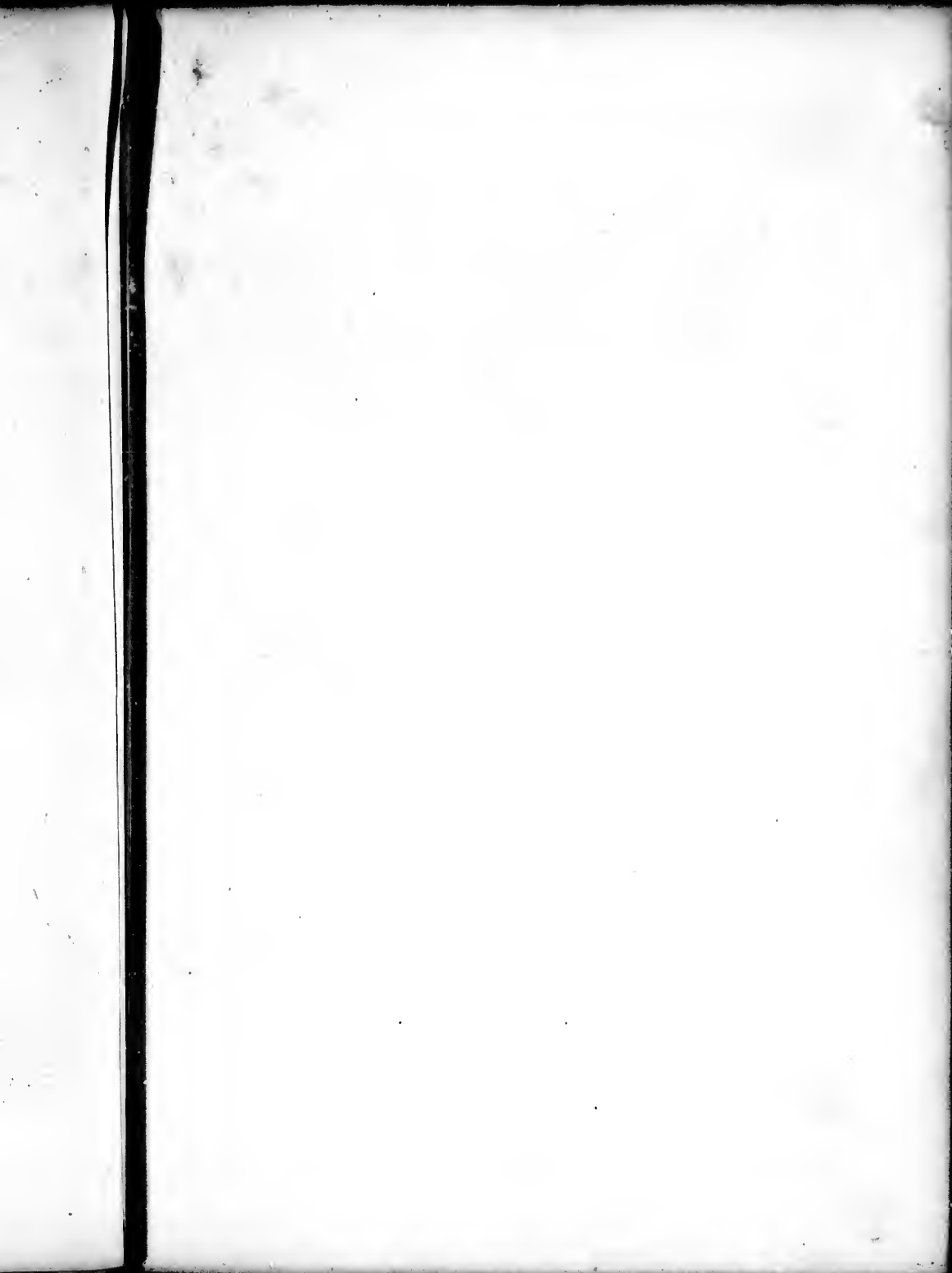


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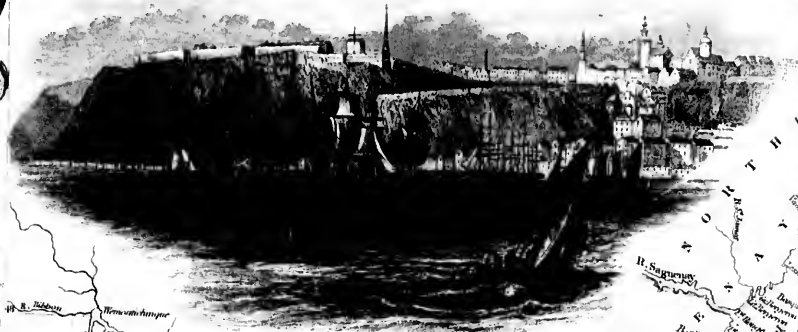
Longitude from Greenwich

FALLS OF NIAGARA

The Map Drawn & Engraved by J. H. Mason



CANADA
NEW BRUNSWICK



QUEBEC



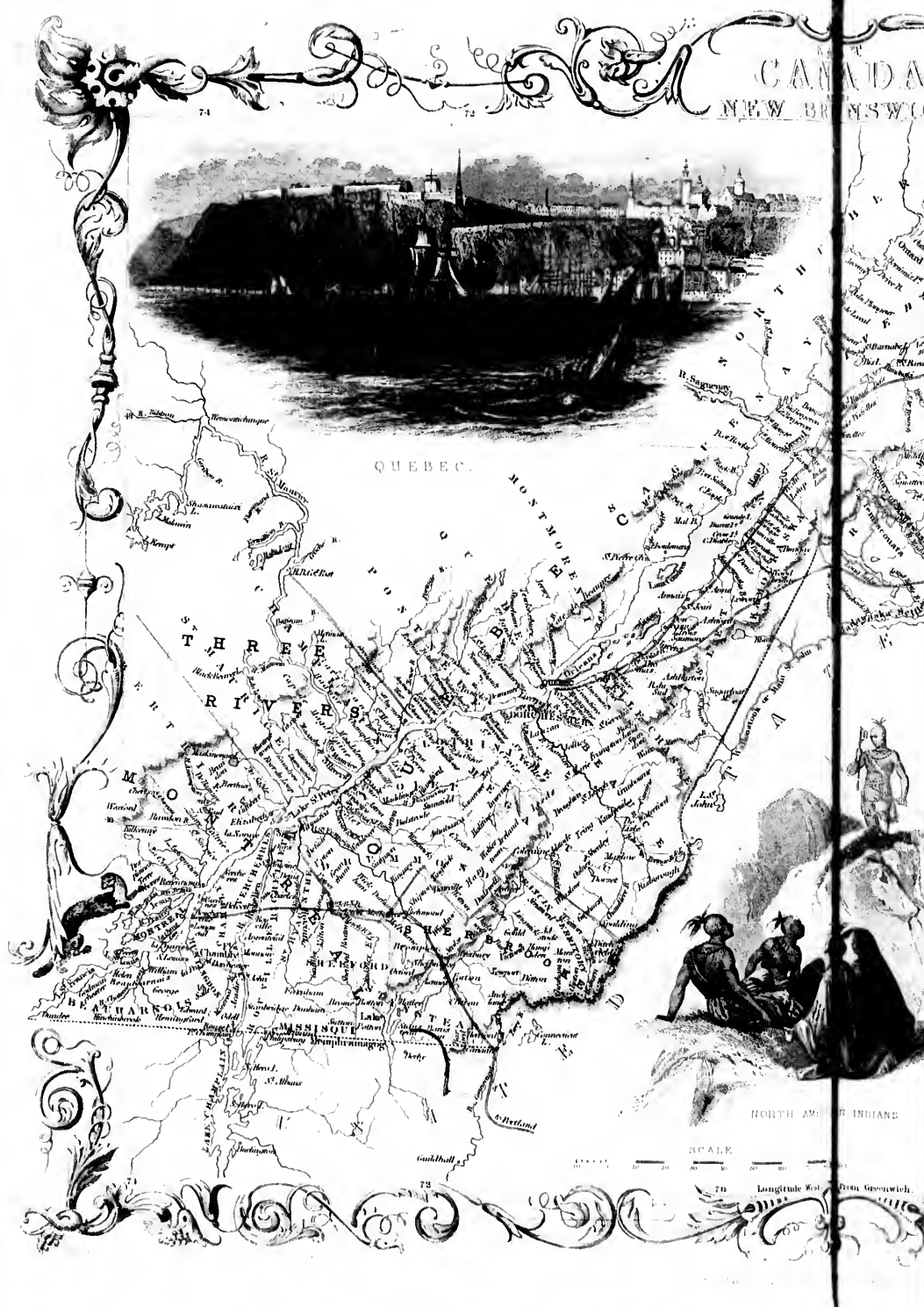
THREE RIVERS

MONTREAL

NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS

SCALE

Longitude West from Greenwich



CANADA, NEW BRUNSWICK



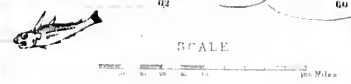
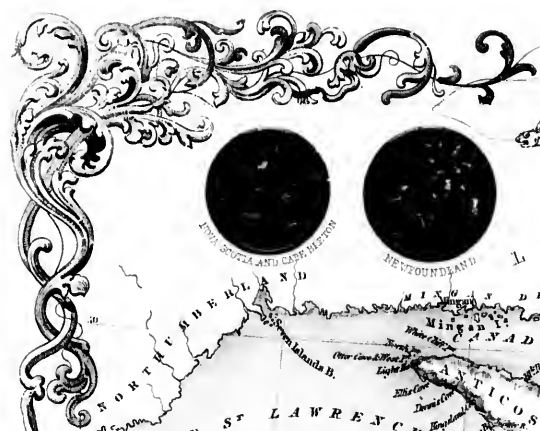
NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS.

SCALE
70 Longitude West from Greenwich.

1830?

1842

NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK



Longitude West From Greenwich



NEWFOUNDLAND



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THE BRITISH COLONIES.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

BOOK I.—EASTERN AND WESTERN CANADA.

CHAPTER I.—HISTORY.

THE British dominions in North America comprise an area of 4,000,000 square miles; their extreme length between east and west, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, is 3,000 miles; and from north to south, 2,000 miles. The boundaries of this vast region are, on the *north* the Arctic Ocean and the adjacent seas and islands many of them yet unexplored; on the *west*, Russian America; on the *west* the Pacific Ocean; on the *south*, the territories of the United States; and on the *east*, the Atlantic Ocean.

The southern boundary is defined (see map) by an irregular line drawn from the extreme end of Vancouver's Island, extending along the parallel of 49° N. to the head of Lake Superior, thence through the centre of that lake and the centres of Lakes Huron, St. Clair, Erie, the Falls of Niagara, and Lake Ontario, to St. Regis on the St. Lawrence, 60 miles S. W. of Montreal, thence along the parallel of 45° N. to some Highlands, which divide the waters that flow into the Atlantic from those that flow into the St. Lawrence; from thence to the source of St. Croix, and to the mouth of that river in Passamaquoddy Bay in the Gulf of Fundy. The whole country lies between the parallels of 41° 47' and 78° or 80° N., and the meridians 52° and 141° W.

The British territory is divided into the provinces or districts known as the Canadas, Eastern and Western, or Lower and Upper; New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, the Coast of Labrador, the Hudson's Bay Ter-

ritories, Vancouver's Island, Queen Charlotte's Island, and other islands and districts west of the Rocky Mountains, each of which will be separately described.

The statements of the Norwegians, or Danes, having visited the coast of America in the tenth and eleventh centuries, and colonized "*Vinland*," or New England, are too vague and unsatisfactory, to deprive Columbus of the honour of having been the first discoverer of the western hemisphere on the 11th of October, 1492. But the explorations of this truly great man were restricted to the West India Islands and a portion of the middle and southern part of the adjacent continent, which received its name from Amerigo Vespucci, who, in 1499, visited some parts of the coast. The discoverer of the northern portion of the continent of America was Giovanni Caboto, generally called John Cabot, a Venetian, in the service of Henry VII. of England, who, with his three sons, sailed from Bristol in May 1497, having under his command two caravels and five ships laden with goods for traffic, supplied by the merchants of London. Cabot sailed to the westward in the expectation of reaching "*Cathay*," or China; but to his surprise, on the 24th of June, 1497, made the coast of America, discovered Newfoundland, sailed as far N. as 67° 30', in hope of finding a passage to the Pacific; then steered to the southward, and entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence in search of a supposed north-west passage. After taking possession of the country in the name of

England, Cabot returned in August, 1497, with ten natives (whom he brought from Newfoundland or Prince Edward Island), and was knighted by the king. Sir John Cabot made three subsequent voyages, but no settlement then took place on this part of the North American continent; the tide of European adventure being directed to Mexico and Peru by the Spaniards.

In 1500 Gaspar Cortereal, a Portuguese captain, visited the north coast of America, followed the track of Sir John Cabot, and kidnapped several of the Indians or natives, whom he sold as slaves. In 1502 Hugh Elliot and Thomas Ashurst, English merchants, were authorized by Henry VII. to establish Colonies in the countries discovered by Cabot; but they do not appear to have availed themselves of this permission. In 1518 Baron de Lery, a Frenchman, landed at Isle du Sable, and ineffectually attempted to form a settlement at Canseau. In 1525 Giovanni Verrazano, a Florentine, and Gomez, a Spaniard, in an expedition fitted out by Francis the First, coasted from Newfoundland to Florida, landed in Nova Scotia, proceeded as far as 50° N., and, regardless of the prior claim of England, took formal possession of the country for his royal master, under the title of "*La Nouvelle France.*" Verrazano, like Cabot, returned without gold or silver, was coldly received, and died in obscurity. Henry VIII. in 1527 fitted out an expedition to discover a north-west passage to the East Indies: one of the ships was lost, and no settlement was made.

The valuable fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland had early attracted the attention of European nations, and in 1517 there were about fifty vessels under the English, French, Spanish, and Portuguese flag engaged in the fisheries. In 1534 Jacques Cartier, a navigator who had been fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, received a commission from Francis the First; sailed with two vessels of 60 tons each from St. Maloes, April 20; arrived at Newfoundland, May 10; remained there ten days, then sailed to the northward; subsequently took a southerly course, passed through the Straits of Bellisle, traversed the Gulf of St. Lawrence; on the 24th of July erected a cross surmounted by a *fleur-de-lys*, and on the 25th of July sailed for France, taking with him two Indians.

Cartier was well received, and sent by his sovereign in the ensuing year to the St. Lawrence. (so called on account of its dis-

covery on the day of the festival of that saint) with three larger vessels, and accompanied by a number of young gentlemen as adventurers. The explorers entered the river St. Lawrence in August, and anchored off Quebec, then called Stadaconna, and the abode of an Indian chief, named Donnaconna. Cartier here quitted his ships and proceeded up the river in boats. On the 3rd of October, he reached an island, which he named *Mont Royal* (now Montreal), returned to his ships, where he wintered, called the coast St. Croix, and in 1536 seized Donnaconna, and two other chiefs, and conveyed them with eight natives to France, where they all died. The precious metals not having been discovered, the French sovereign made no further efforts to occupy the country until 1541, when an expedition, at the renewed entreaties of Cartier, was sent out to colonize La Nouvelle France, or Canada, so called from the Iroquois word *Kanata*, signifying a collection of huts, which the early discoverers mistook for the native name of the country. Francis I. gave the command of the expedition to François de la Roche, Siegneur de Roberval, who was appointed the viceroy of his sovereign in Canada, Hochelaga (Montreal), &c. In July, 1542, the viceroy arrived in Canada, built a fort about four leagues above the Isle of Orleans, but the destructive effects of scurvy which appears to have afflicted all the early colonists, and the deadly hostility of the Indians, in consequence of the kidnapping of Donnaconna and other Indian chiefs in 1536, prevented any permanent settlement. Roberval was recalled by Francis I. to assist in the war against Charles V., and Jacques Cartier, after an unsuccessful attempt to form a settlement at St. Croix, returned ruined in health and fortune to France, where he soon died.

After the death of Francis I., Roberval, accompanied by his brother Achille and a numerous train of enterprising volunteers, embarked for Canada in 1549, but having never been heard of since, are supposed to have perished at sea. The idea of discovering a north-west passage to the Pacific Ocean, still filled the minds of the people of Europe; in 1575 Davis explored the Straits which bear his name, and in 1576, queen Elizabeth, ever bent on taking the lead of every other nation, sent out Martin Frobisher, with three ships, on a voyage of exploration. Frobisher discovered the Straits bearing his name, and finding some *mundic*

or copper pyrites, which he mistook for gold, he returned with a large quantity to England. In the ensuing year Frobisher was despatched by some merchants with three vessels to explore the coast of Labrador and Greenland, with a view to the discovery of a north-west passage. He returned, however, with only 200 tons of the supposed gold ore, and a man, woman, and child, of the Indian race.

In 1578, the expectation of discovering extensive gold regions, induced the merchants of England again to send forth Frobisher, with fifteen vessels. The expedition being attended with as little success as the preceding one, caused the ruin of many adventurers, who received, as before, copper ore, instead of gold.

In 1579, queen Elizabeth, desirous of obtaining some advantage from the discoveries of Cabot, granted to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, half-brother to Sir Walter Raleigh a patent for "the discovering or occupying and peopling such remote, heathen, and barbarous countries as were not actually possessed by any Christian people." Sir Humphrey is described by Haliburton, as "a man of prepossessing manners, commanding esteem and veneration at first sight;" he was celebrated for courage and prudence, genius and learning, eloquence and patriotism, and Elizabeth was so pleased with his conduct that her majesty presented him, as a mark of peculiar favour, an emblematic jewel, consisting of a small gold anchor with a large pearl at the peak, which Sir Humphrey ever after wore at his breast. Many friends from personal attachment agreed to join him, but before the time of departure withdrew from their engagements. Undeterred by disappointments, he sailed with several vessels, one of which foundered at sea and compelled the return to England of the expedition, where misfortune pressed hard upon the gallant adventurer. To assist him in again proceeding to sea, Sir Humphrey granted the lands he was to occupy in America, and then sold his estate in England, by which he was enabled to sail from Plymouth on the 11th June, 1583, with five ships and 250 men. On the 11th July, the fleet arrived off Newfoundland, and on Monday, August 5, proceeded in state to take formal possession of the island, in the presence of the masters and merchants of 36 vessels of different nations, then in the harbour of St. John's. A tent was pitched on shore, the commission of the

queen of England was read in different languages, a turf and twig were then delivered to him, and sir Gilbert declared the island of Newfoundland to belong to his sovereign; and to the dominions of the crown of England it has ever since been attached. Obedience having been promised by the people with loud acclamations, a pillar, with a plate of lead and the arms of the queen engraved thereon, was erected; a tax levied on all ships, and three laws promulgated for the colony: 1st, for the celebration of public worship, according to the Church of England ritual; 2nd, declaring that anything which might be attempted prejudicial to the queen of England was, according to the laws of England, treason; and 3rd, that the uttering of words to the dishonour of her majesty was to be punished with the loss of ears and confiscation of property. On the 20th August, Sir Humphrey sailed from St. John's, with the *Squirrel*, *Delight*, and *Hind*, for Sable Island, to search for swine, and cattle, said to have been landed there thirty years previous. The *Delight* was lost on a sand-bank, and no cattle being procurable, Sir Humphrey determined on proceeding to England, but the *Squirrel*, which he commanded in person, foundered in a storm, and all on board (above 100 persons) perished. Sir John Gilbert, brother to Sir Humphrey, at an advanced age, proceeded with sir John Poplam to fit out a fleet for the revival of his brother's claim, and in 1607 they wintered on a small island in the Kennebec river (state of Maine), where distress and cold killed sir John Gilbert, and his followers returned to England.

France made renewed efforts for the acquisition of territory in this part of the North American continent, and in 1598 Henry IV. sent out the marquis de la Roche with a number of convicts, forty of whom he landed on Sable island, and proceeded to explore the adjacent coasts. But unfavourable weather compelled the marquis to return to France, without revisiting Sable island, where the convicts would have perished but for a French ship being wrecked there, which contained provisions for their sustenance, until they could kill seals, and catch fish for their support. Seven years after the king of France sent a vessel to look after his subjects; twelve only were found alive, whose miserable condition induced the king to pardon them on their arrival in France.

In 1600 Henry IV. granted an exclusive trade with Canada, and other privileges to M.

Chauvin, a naval officer, who associated with himself M. Pontgrave, a merchant who had made several profitable trading voyages for furs, to the Saguenay river, and other places in the St. Lawrence. On the death of Chauvin in 1603, Sieur de Monts, a Calvinist, received from Henry IV. a further patent, conferring on him the exclusive trade and government of all the territories between 40° and 54° N. lat., totally regardless of the prior claims of England. De Monts fitted out an armament to carry on the fur trade, under Pontgrave and an enterprising naval officer, named Samuel Champlain, which sailed up the St. Lawrence in 1603, as far as Sault St. Louis. Trading posts were established at different places; Acadia, or Nova Scotia, was visited; and on the 3rd July, 1608, Samuel Champlain founded Quebec as the future capital of New France.

The French unhappily took part in the contests of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, with the Algonquins, who, supplied with fire-arms by Champlain, were enabled to carry on a destructive contest, which tended so rapidly to depopulate the country, that in 1622 Quebec did not contain fifty persons. The first child born of French parents in Quebec, was the son of Abraham Martin and Margaret L'Anglois, who was christened Eustache, on the 24th October, 1621.

To remedy the distressed condition of the colony, which had heretofore been confided to the charge of two or three individuals, Canada was transferred to an association, called the "*Company of One Hundred Partners*," composed of clergy and laity, and headed by the celebrated cardinal Richelieu, whose leading principles were, in the *first* place, the conversion of the heathens to christianity, and in the *second*, the extension of the fur trade and commerce generally, and the discovery of a route to the Pacific Ocean, and to China through the great rivers and lakes of La Nouvelle France.

The king, on the 19th April, 1627, granted Canada to the company, with extensive privileges as a feudal seignory, to be acknowledged by the presentation of a crown of gold, of eight marks weight, on the accession of every sovereign to the throne. With the right of soil, a monopoly of trade was granted; but French subjects were permitted the free exercise of the whale and cod fisheries on the coast, and such colonists as were not servants of the company, might trade with the Indians for peltries (skins) provided they brought all beaver

skins to the factors of the company, who were compelled to purchase them at 40 sous a piece. A Jesuit corps was supported by the company, and "Protestants, and other heretics and Jews," were rigidly excluded from the colony.

The company engaged to send over to La Nouvelle France, in the following year (1628) two or three hundred workmen of all kinds, and before 1644 to augment the number of French inhabitants to 10,000; to lodge, maintain, and find the emigrants in all necessaries for three years,—then to make an equal distribution among them of all cleared lands, and to furnish them with seed according to the wants of each family. In every district three priests were to be supplied by the company, with all necessaries both for their persons and missions for fifteen years, after which cleared lands were to be assigned for their maintenance. The territorial rights of the company extended over Canada, and part of Florida; the company might erect fortifications, cast cannon, and make all sorts of arms, grant lands, annex titles and rights, but the creation of duchies, marquises, earldoms, and baronies, required royal letters of confirmation. The king granted the company two ships of war, of two or three hundred tons each, to be victualled by the company. The ships were to be paid for, if within the first ten years the company did not convey 1,500 French of both sexes to Canada, and the charter was to be void, if within the last five years an equal number was not conveyed to the colony.

A subsequent ordinance enlarged the privileges of the company; merchandise manufactured in Canada, was, on importation into France, to pay no duty for fifteen years; natives of the colonies were to be deemed citizens of old France; tradesmen or mechanics, after being employed six years by the company, were, on their return to France, to be privileged to carry on their business in Paris, or elsewhere; ecclesiastics, noblemen, and others, might associate with the company, without derogation of honour, and twelve of the partners of the company were to be created nobles by the king.

These arrangements were frustrated by David Kirtek, a French Calvinist, who sought refuge in England from religious persecution, fitted out an English armament in 1627, and captured eighteen French transports, with 135 pieces of ordnance, destined for Quebec and other places belonging to

the company. Next year Kirtek captured Port Royal, in Acadia (Nova Scotia), visited Tadoussac, destroyed the cattle, and plundered the houses at Cape Tourmente, and proceeded to Gaspe bay, where he met M. de Roquemont, one of the hundred partners, commanding a squadron of vessels freighted with French emigrants, and filled with provisions. Kirtek provoked Roquemont to fight; the French were defeated, and the whole fleet captured. The colonists at Quebec suffered greatly by this disaster, and their distress was increased by the shipwreck, on the coast of Nova Scotia, of a vessel laden with provisions for their relief. Kirtek aided by some other English vessels commanded by his two brothers, proceeded up the St. Lawrence, and on the 29th July, 1629, took possession of Quebec, whose famishing inhabitants were then existing on five ounces of bread a day.

The value of the conquest was at the time but little appreciated, the attention of England being directed to the more southern part of the continent of America; the French opened a negotiation; peace was restored, and by the treaty of St. Germain, in 1632, Charles I. relinquished to Louis XIII. the right which England had always claimed, by reason of the discovery of Cabot, to this portion of America; upon which Canada, Acadia (Nova Scotia), and Isle Royal (Cape Breton), were re-occupied by the French, between whom, and the English in the adjacent states, rivalry and internecine hostilities were frequent, notwithstanding the peaceable relations existing between the home governments.

In 1644 Montreal was ceded to the religious order entitled the St. Sulpicians of Paris; the monopoly of the company of a hundred partners gradually broke down, colonization was extended by a growing attention to agriculture taking the place of the almost exclusive consideration heretofore given to the fur trade, and in 1663 the company having become obnoxious, by reason of their arbitrary proceedings, the king of France abolished the company, and converted Canada into a royal government. M. de Méry was appointed governor, and proceeded from France to Quebec, with 400 regular troops, 100 families as settlers, horses, cattle, and implements of agriculture. The administration of the colony was changed from an ecclesiastical mission to a secular government by the great Colbert, and under the royal jurisdiction, the governor, a king's

commissioner, an apostolical vicar, and four other gentlemen, were formed into a sovereign council, to which was entrusted the jurisdiction of all causes civil and criminal, according to the laws and ordinances of France and the practice of the parliament of Paris, the regulation of commerce, and the expenditure of the public monies. The emigration of French settlers was promoted by every possible means, and a martial spirit was imparted to the population by the location in the colony of the disbanded soldiers of the Carriguan regiment (1000 strong), and of other troops, whose officers became the principal seigneurs on condition of their making cessions under the feudal tenure to the soldiers and other inhabitants.

Louis XIV., aided by the politic Colbert, desirous of establishing Frenchmen in every part of the globe, founded a *West India Company*, with powers and privileges somewhat similar to those granted to the English *East India Company*. The regions recited in the patent of the West India Company, as the fields for operation, were the country from the river Amazon to the Orinoco, the Antilles, Canada, L'Acadia, both continent and islands from the north of Canada to Virginia and Florida; also the coast of Africa, from Cape Verd to the Cape of Good Hope, "so far as the said company may be able to penetrate, whether the said countries may now appertain to France, as being or having been occupied by Frenchmen, or in so far as the said company shall establish itself by exterminating or conquering the natives or colonists of such European nations as are not our allies." Louis XIV. agreed to advance one-fourth of the whole stock without interest for four years, subject to a proportion of all losses which might be incurred during that period. The West India Company was to enjoy a monopoly of the territories and trade, and an exclusive navigation, conceded for forty years, and to receive a bounty of thirty livres on every ton of goods exported from France. The company was authorized to levy war against the Indians or foreign colonies in case of insult; to build forts, raise and maintain troops, grant lands, commute seigneurial dues, and it was bound to carry out a sufficient number of priests and to build churches and houses for their accommodation. All colonists and converts professing the Romish faith were declared to be entitled to the same rights in France and in the colonies as if they had been born and resided within the kingdom.

The arbitrary proceedings of this company soon excited general dissatisfaction in Canada, and on the 8th April 1666, a royal arret of the council of state granted to the Canadians the trade in furs, subject to an allowance of one-fourth of all beaver skins, and one-tenth of all buffalo skins, and the total reservation to the company of the trade of Tadoussac, at the mouth of the Saguenay river.

The colony was kept in continual alarm by the war waged by the Canadians against the Mohawk Indians, who were in alliance with the English colonists at New York. For purposes of military defence, the colonists by a royal edict were directed to concentrate their settlements, and no lands were permitted to be cleared or cultivated but such as were contiguous to each other: this accounts for the peculiar military style of the French Canadian townships. The wars with the Indians were carried on with great barbarism on both sides. In an incursion made by the marquis de Tracey into an Iroquois settlement, the Indians saved themselves by flight; but the old men, women, and children were slaughtered and a *Te Deum* thereon celebrated in the cathedral of Quebec. On another occasion a French army, consisting of 28 companies of regular troops and the whole militia of the colony, marched 700 miles in the midst of winter, from Quebec into the Mohawk territory for the purpose of utterly extirpating the Indians. As usual the Indian warriors escaped, but the sachems (old men), women, and children, were massacred. For every human scalp delivered into the war department a sum of forty livres was paid.

The Canadians, however, not unfrequently experienced the revengeful fury of the Indians. Charlevoix in his history of La Nouvelle France, when describing the atrocities committed by the Indians, says—" Ils ouvrirent le sein des femmes enceintes pour en arracher le fruit qu'elles portoient; ils mirent des enfans tout vivant a la broche et contraignerant les mères de les tourner pour les fair rotir." The colonists, frequently taken by surprise, had their houses, cattle, and crops destroyed, and thousands of the French were slain. The French, reinforced from Europe, sent a strong force in February, 1690, who massacred the greater part of the unresisting inhabitants of Shenectady. According to Colden (page 79) the Indians whom the French took prisoners at Shenectady, were cut into pieces, and boiled to

make soup for the Indian allies who accompanied the French!

The contests of the British and French colonists were carried on through their respective Indian allies, and for several years the tide of success was in favour of the French, as the British were by nature not so well adapted for conciliating the natives. The hostilities waged by the Indians were destructive to the scattered colonists: setting little value on life, they fought with desperation, and gave no quarter; protected by the natural fastnesses of their country, they chose their own time for action, and when they had enclosed their enemies in a defile, or surprised them amidst the intricacies of the forest, the war-whoop of the victor, and the death-shriek of the vanquished, were simultaneously heard, and while the bodies of the slain served for food to the savage, the scalped head of the white man was a trophy of glory, and a booty of no inconsiderable value to its possessor.

In 1683, the Mississippi, which had been previously visited by the French missionaries from Montreal (in 1673), and by fur hunters from Quebec, under the guidance of the Indians, was navigated to the sea by M. de la Salle; and all the country watered by that vast river claimed for France under the title of *Louisiana*, in honour of Louis XIV.

The British colonists in Albany became alarmed at the success and increasing strength of the French, not only in Nova Scotia, where hostilities were almost incessant with the English at Massachusetts, but also by their occupation of the two great rivers, the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and their successful prosecution of the fur trade and fisheries, then deemed the chief source of wealth in North America. The population of Canada, which in 1674 did not exceed 8,000, including the converted Indians, had rapidly increased; and the intermarriages of Frenchmen with the natives, enabled the government of Quebec to command at all times, a large force of Indian warriors. As an illustration, one instance may be noted: the baron de St. Castine, formerly an officer of the Carrignan regiment, of prepossessing appearance and noble spirit, took up his abode with the Indians, learned their language, adopted their customs, married an Indian wife, and lived with them for twenty years. The Indians made the baron their chief, they looked upon him as a tutelary deity, and during his abode with them, were ready to devote their lives to his

service. The skins and furs collected in hunting were brought to him by the savages in large quantities, and he supplied them in return with European goods. The baron accumulated a large fortune, gave good dowries to his daughters by the Indian wife, whom he married to Frenchmen, and was always ready with a chosen band of warriors to accompany the troops of the governor-general of Canada, against the British and their Indian allies.

The French, feeling more secure in their dominions, pushed forward their outposts with vigour, by means of the fur traders, who established fairs in the different towns, especially at Montreal, to enable the Indians periodically to dispose of their furs. This trade was open to all the colonists, subject to a contribution of one-fourth of the beaver, and one-tenth of the buffalo skins, to the king of France, which right his majesty sold to certain patentees or farmers-general. The trade at the distant posts, whence the Indians could not bring their furs, was licensed and granted as a bounty to old officers, or to the poor gentry of the colony, and these licences were sold for 600 crowns, to inland merchants or traders, who were thus authorised to convey merchandise into the interior of the country for barter; and the purchaser of the licence was bound to employ two canoes, with crews of six men each, who were entitled to provisions and clothing, and who shared legally in the returns of the adventure, after the cost of licence and merchandise, and a profit of 400 per cent. had been reimbursed to the merchant. The extent of trade attached to each licence, was merchandise to the amount of 1,000 crowns, which the seller of the licence had the right of furnishing, at an advance of 15 per cent. on the market price. A successful adventure gave the merchant who bought the licence, 400 per cent. profit on his outlay, and 600 crowns to each of the canoe-men—hence, a spirit of adventure arose; the canoe-men, or voyageurs, looked to the fur trade as a means of obtaining money to clear and stock a farm, though it was too frequently dissipated in riot or debauchery; a bold and hardy race of colonists was trained to danger, accustomed to the forests, familiarised with long and intricate inland navigation, and intimately associated with the Indians, with whom they frequently co-operated in their attacks on the British settlements. In this desultory warfare the Canadian militia were always desirous of ac-

companying the regular French troops, and for many years it was the favourite boast of a Canadian—that he had been employed in an expedition against the English, on the "Belle Riviere," or on the "Ohio."

The injurious effect of these proceedings was so great, that the British colonists at Albany were preparing to abandon their territory, when the New England colonies agreed to form a coalition for their mutual defence. A mission was despatched to London, explaining the views of the New Englanders, and soliciting aid towards the naval and military expedition, which was organising for the destruction of the French settlements in Canada and Nova Scotia.

The attack was to combine two expeditions—one to proceed by land and inland navigation against the southern frontier of the French; the other, consisting of a frigate mounting 40 guns, another ship of 16, and a third of 8 guns, with transports for the conveyance of 800 to 1000 men, in all about 34 vessels—against the French seaboard: the expedition cost the colonists £150,000. The naval force was confided to the charge of Sir William Phipps, a man of considerable ability, who had raised himself by persevering energy to a high station. Mr. Haliburton says that he was the son of a blacksmith at Pemaquid in New England; born in 1650, and apprenticed to a carpenter to learn shipbuilding. On the expiration of his indentures he built a vessel, which he navigated himself; and hearing of the wreck of a Spanish ship near the Bahamas, containing bullion, made an unsuccessful attempt to raise it. In 1683 Captain Phipps was sent by the English government in search of another Spanish wreck, in which he was also unsuccessful. Five years after, the Duke of Albemarle, then Governor of Jamaica, provided him with the necessary apparatus, and sent him to renew his search for this valuable wreck, which was reported to contain much wealth. After many fruitless endeavours Phipps was about retiring to Jamaica, when a sea-feather growing out of a rock, attracted the attention of some sailors who were crossing the reef in a small boat. A diver was sent to fetch it up, who, on descending, found several guns at the foot of the rock, and on a second descent obtained a quantity of silver. Finally, Phipps raised from the wreck thirty-two tons of silver bullion, and a large quantity of gold, pearls, and jewels, which had been lying in the sea for more than half a cen-

tury. Phipps was knighted by James II., made sheriff of New England, and on his solicitation entrusted with the command of a colonial expedition against the French in Nova Scotia, in which he was unfortunate; and he subsequently obtained the command of the fleet fitted out by the New Englanders against the French in Canada, whose proceedings we are now detailing. On the 20th of May, 1690 (according to Haliburton), Sir William Phipps and his squadron appeared before Port Royal in Nova Scotia. Manival, the French Governor, having only 80 men and very insufficient defences, surrendered, as did also the Governor of Chedabueto, and the commanders of other posts in Acadia and Newfoundland. Phipps likewise captured several posts on the Saint Lawrence, and was within a few days' sail of Quebec before the alarm spread thither. Frontenac, the Governor, hastened from Montreal with reinforcements, and strengthened the defences, which consisted of little beyond rude intrenchments of timber and mounds of earth. On the morning of the 16th of October, 1691, Sir William reached the shores of Quebec, and summoned it to surrender: the summons was unhesitatingly rejected, yet the English, who had previously evinced so much activity, now appear to have been strangely remiss, for no hostile measure was taken until the 18th, when Phipps landed 1,500 men on the banks of the river St. Charles. The French, with only 300 irregulars, kept up a brisk firing, which caused much loss to the British, though at night they retreated into the town, leaving them masters of the field. The larger vessels anchored off Quebec, and directed a cannonade against the upper part of the city, which they renewed the following day, but with little effect. Meantime the ships had sustained considerable damage, and about noon the squadron moved up the river beyond Cape Diamond. The troops previously continued to advance, and Phipps sent on shore six pieces of ordnance, and pushed forward his men in hopes of capturing the place by means of land batteries. But the French militia harassed them severely, and maintained so steady and destructive a fire from behind some palisades that the English commander, considering further advance hopeless, re-embarked his troops on the 22nd, leaving behind their cannon and ammunition. Phipps has been much blamed for not attacking the body of the place, which, ac-

ording to Colden, he might easily have captured. Owing to some misunderstanding, or want of concert, the attack which was to have been made on Montreal simultaneously with that on Quebec, did not take place; but in the following year (1691) the Iroquois, aided by some English and native allies, advanced towards Montreal. The military command there was then held by De Callière, an able officer who was very popular with his Indian neighbours, having even joined them in their war dances, and spared no pains to ingratiate himself with them; in which he appears to have been so successful, that when mustering his troops for defence, 800 Indians assembled to aid him at the Prairie de la Magdeleine. The Iroquois, nevertheless, succeeded in capturing several of the advanced posts and a considerable number of prisoners; but were eventually obliged to retreat, though they long afterwards continued to make sudden inroads upon the colony in every direction, headed by a favourite chief named the *Black Cauldron*; but their incursions were greatly checked by Frontenac's judicious distribution of military posts. The treaty of Ryswick in 1697, by which peace was concluded between Britain and France, produced a temporary cessation of hostilities in Canada; but with the renewal of war between the mother countries in 1702, they recommenced, and the English, elated by the successes of Marlborough and Eugene, and alarmed by the rapidly increasing number of the French colonists, then amounting to 15,000, conceived the bold design of embracing within their territory the whole of North America. The wars in which Louis XIV. was engaged compelled him to leave the Canadian government very much to its own resources. De Callière, who had succeeded Frontenac, died in 1703, and the Count de Vaudreuil was appointed governor in his stead. He was a man of great ability, but his policy, like that of his predecessors, was to extend, in every possible manner, the French dominion; to cut the English off from the fur trade, and gradually to hem them in between the highlands of Nova Scotia and the Alleghany Mountains. The English now called upon their allies of the "Five Nations" to renew hostilities against their old enemies; but these tribes were exceedingly unwilling to move, and alleged, that when they concluded a treaty, they did so with an intention to keep it; while the Europeans seemed to enter into such engage-

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ments solely with the view of immediately breaking them. One chief intimated his suspicion that both nations were drunk. They did little, therefore, of themselves, or by their own impulse; and when called upon to join in an expedition, came slowly and reluctantly forward. At this period the aborigines were numerous and powerful. Tribes of Abenagua, Algonquin, Iroquois, Mississauga, and Huron Indians, occupied the country from below Quebec to Lake Huron.

In 1709 a plan for the conquest of Canada was approved by the parliament of queen Anne, and authority and resources deemed sufficient for its accomplishment, were sent to New York. De Vaudreuil, who had some time before made an incursion on the English frontier, and destroyed a village named Hewreuil, or Haverhill, was on the watch, and soon learned that 2,000 English had issued from New York, and were to be joined by an equal number of savages: he assembled his troops, and would have carried the war into the enemy's country, but his allies objected, and he then turned all his attention to strengthening his own frontier. The British formed a chain of posts from New York, occupied in great force lakes George and Champlain, erected forts to protect their descent upon Canada, and made every preparation for attacking Montreal; but a large body of the forces whose assistance they expected, being required for the war on the continent of Europe, and the Iroquois having, in a general council, come to the determination that the prolongation of strife between the two European nations was the best security for the maintenance of their independence, which would in all probability be lost if either became dominant, suddenly deserted them; the English, in consequence of this double disappointment, weakened also by a pestilential fever which had broken out among them, and was said to have been caused by the Indians poisoning the water of which they drank, were compelled to abandon the enterprise; and after destroying their forts they returned to New York. The interval of peace between the rival colonies was, however, of very brief duration, and the French were employed during the greater part of it in barbarous and exterminating warfare with an extensive tribe, called the Outagamis, or Foxes, whom they did not succeed in wholly destroying, and whose incursions, though carried on by a mere remnant, rendered their communication with their settlements on the Mississippi

insecure. The British government resolved to give the New Englanders stronger support, in their endeavours to expel the French from Canada and Nova Scotia; in 1710 an armament was fitted out for a combined attack on Canada by sea and land, and on the 18th September, a fleet, consisting of the *Dragon*, *Leostaff*, *Feversham*, and *Chester* men-of-war, the *Star-bomb* and *Massachusetts*, provincial galleys, with fourteen transports in the pay of Massachusetts, five of Connecticut, two of New Hampshire, three of Rhode Island, a tender, and five English transports, with one regiment of marines from England, and four regiments of provincials raised in New England, but commissioned by the queen, and armed at the royal expense, sailed from Boston bay for Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, where it arrived on the 24th September, 1710. The particulars of the siege, and capitulation of the French governor, Subercase, belong to the history of Nova Scotia. The English lost 15 men, besides 26 who were wrecked in a transport at the entrance of the harbour; 200 marines and 250 volunteers were left to garrison Port Royal, and on the 26th October the expedition returned to Boston. Meanwhile, the Count De Vaudreuil was busily engaged strengthening the fortifications, constructing barracks, and training militia, amounting to 5,000 in a population of 25,000. Much apprehension was felt by the Canadians notwithstanding the strength of Quebec, which was deemed so impregnable that a proposed attempt for its capture was one of the articles of impeachment against Harley, the English minister. The plans of the British were frustrated by an unforeseen disaster, arising partly from tempestuous weather, and partly from their ignorance of the coast; in one day (22nd August) 8 transports containing 884 officers, soldiers and sailors, were wrecked at the Seven Islands, near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and the remaining vessels returned to Boston. General Nicholson, had already taken the field, at the head of the land forces, but on learning the loss of the fleet, he fell back on New York. The English colonists, again defeated, still persevered, and were making fresh preparations for renewing hostilities, when the change of ministry in England, and the treaty of Utrecht on the 13th March, 1713, relieved Canada for a time from further apprehension, for by this treaty England resigned her claim to Canada, and France hers to Acadia and Newfoundland, and

made over to England her assumed rights to the sovereignty of the Five Nations, which she having never been able to enforce, and England being in that respect equally powerless, was a merely nominal concession.

This treaty was the commencement of a new epoch for Canada, and the unusual period of tranquillity which followed it, caused a great increase in her agriculture and commerce. In 1720, Quebec had a population of about 7,000, and Montreal of 3,600. Nineteen vessels cleared from Quebec, laden with peltries, lumber, tar, tobacco, flour, pork, &c., and four men-of-war were built in the colony. From Charlevoix's description of the city, which he visited in 1720-21, part of the upper and lower towns must have been built, but the adjacent shores and islands were still covered with forests. The society generally, he describes, as gay and sociable, consisting chiefly of military men, and the lower order of noblesse, all poor, and likely to continue so, being much better adapted for practising the most agreeable ways of spending money, than the more laborious methods of making it. They saw their English neighbours steadily employed in accumulating wealth, but consoled themselves with the reflection that they did not know how to enjoy it. Their favourite employment was the fur trade, the only one indeed at all adapted to their excitable natures and desultory habits, but the little fortunes they occasionally made thereby, were compared by Charlevoix to the hillocks of sand in the deserts of Africa, which rise and disappear almost at the same moment. Below Quebec, the banks of the St. Lawrence were laid out in tolerably cultivated scigniories. Trois Rivières then contained only 800 inhabitants; the city of Montreal was rapidly extending, and was in a great degree protected from the incursions of hostile Indians by the barriers formed by the villages of Sault St. Louis, and Montgomery, which were inhabited by friendly tribes. Above Montreal there were only detached stations for defence and barter with the Indians. Fort Catarqui, or Frontenac, on Lake Ontario, appears to have stood in the midst of an uncultivated country, without any settlements in its vicinity. At Niagara, Charlevoix speaks of a cottage dignified with the name of a fort, and guarded by a few French officers and soldiers.

In 1725 the Marquis De Vaudrenil died, after having ably administered the affairs of Canada during 22 years. He had shewn

his judgment in the attention paid by him to the agricultural and commercial interests of Canada, an unusual feature in the policy of a French governor, their general aim being to extend the dominion, and strengthen the power of France by conquest and military rule; while the English, on the contrary, strove rather to establish themselves by the arts of peace.

In the following year (1726) he was succeeded by the Marquis de Beauharnois (a natural son of Louis XIV.) whose ambitious administration excited yet more the alarm and jealousy of the English colonists of New York and New England, while the intrigues of the Jesuits with the Indians contributed not a little to bring about the final struggle for dominion on the American continent, between the two most powerful nations of Europe. De Beauharnois continued in office for twenty years, and was followed by a succession of governors, whose tenure of office was too brief, and comparatively uneventful, to render their administration worth detailing.

The war between Great Britain and France in 1745, led to the reduction in that year of Cape Breton, by a British naval and military force, combined with the provincial troops of the New England colonies; but the successful battle of Fontenoy roused the martial spirit of the Canadians to attempt the re-conquest of Nova Scotia, in 1746 and 1747, in which they failed, and the treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle in 1748 for a time suspended hostilities. Commissioners were then appointed to settle a boundary line between the British and French territories in North America.

The object of the French was to confine the English within the boundary of the Alleghany mountains, and thus prevent their approach to the Lakes, the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, (where the former had now established themselves) and their tributary streams. The local Government, without any authority from home, and with a display of military pomp, calculated to impress on the minds of the Indians the idea that France would assert her right to the territory thus marked, proceeded to survey the projected line of demarcation between the possessions of France and those which the Canadian governor was pleased, *in his liberality*, to assign to England; leaden plates, bearing the royal arms of France, were sunk at stated distances, and the whole ceremony was concluded with much formality. Such an important step, it may be

imagined, seriously alarmed the Indians, as well as the English, and ultimately led to their active co-operation for the utter expulsion of the French from North America.

In pursuance of the line of policy marked out by the French counsels at home and in Canada, the Jesuits intrigued with the Acadians or descendants of the early French inhabitants, with the view of prevailing on them to quit Nova Scotia, and migrate to a military post recently established beyond its frontier, on the Canadian side, where a new colony was to be formed, in aid of which the royal sanction was granted for an appropriation of 800,000 livres. Cornwallis, the governor of Nova Scotia, soon convinced the French that he was aware of their proceedings; he erected a fort opposite the French frontier, near the bay of Fundy, on the river Beaubassin, which he placed under the command of major Laurence, and seized at the mouth of the St. John river, a vessel laden with supplies for the French. While these measures were in progress, the French commenced enforcing their power along the line of demarcation they had marked out; three individuals who had licences to trade from their respective English governors with the Indians, on the Ohio, were seized by the French, and carried prisoners to Montreal, whence, after severe treatment and strict examination, they were at length liberated, with injunctions not to repeat their trespass on the French territories.

The intrigues of the Jesuits with the Iroquois to detach them from the English, were so far successful that the Indians permitted the French to erect the fort La Presentation, near their border; and, but for the extraordinary influence exercised by William Johnston, the wily character of the Canadians might have gone far to frustrate the confederacy forming between the English and Indians for the expulsion of the French. The arrival of the Marquis du Quesne de Menneville, in 1752,* as governor of Canada, Louisiana, Cape Breton, St. John's, and their dependencies, and the openly aggressive spirit he displayed, gave indications that hostilities might soon be expected in Eu-

rope; detachments of regulars, militia, and Indians were despatched by the marquis to the Ohio; fort Du Quesne (actually within the Virginia territory) and other posts were erected, in the hope of keeping the English within the Apalachian or Alleghany mountains; and from Ticonderago, Crown Point, and Fort Niagara, the most ferocious attacks were made on the peaceable English settlers,† notwithstanding the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. The British, though still acting on the defensive, were not idle; a fort was built in the vicinity of Du Quesne fort, quaintly termed *Necessity*, and a garrison was despatched from Virginia, under the command of George Washington, whose name has since become so illustrious, and who then held a lieutenant-colonel's commission. Washington, on his march to assume the command of Fort *Necessity*, was met by a reconnoitring party from Du Quesne fort, under M. de Jumonville, who peremptorily forbade the English to proceed further. The mandate was answered by a volley of musketry, which killed Jumonville and several of his men. The French commandant at Du Quesne, Monsieur Contrecoeur, besieged Fort *Necessity*, and obliged Washington to capitulate. England at that time was openly preparing for war with France, which the ambition of Frederick of Prussia and the state of Europe soon rendered general. A strong fleet, with troops and warlike munition, was despatched to reinforce Quebec; an English fleet pursued it, and succeeded in capturing two frigates, with the engineers and troops on board, on the banks of Newfoundland.

The Marquis du Quesne having resigned, he was succeeded in July, 1755, by the last French governor in Canada, the Marquis de Vaudreuil de Cavagnal, whose administration commenced by the defeat of the brave but rash general Braddock, on the 9th of July, 1755, in one of the defiles of the Alleghany Mountains. Braddock, accustomed to European, rather than to Indian warfare, neglected the accustomed precaution of scouts and advance posts; and refused to make the needful preparations

* In this year a 74 gun-ship was built by the French government in Canada, but owing to some mismanagement she was *hogged* in launching near Cape Diamond. Two cargoes of Canadian wheat were shipped at the same period for Marseilles; the arrival of which was naturally hailed with great satisfaction in France.

† It was at this period that the remarkable convention of the British colonists (then vulnerable owing

to their separate local governments) was held at Albany in July, 1754, when Benjamin Franklin drew up a plan for uniting the States, establishing a quota, and levying men and money throughout the different Colonies to resist the French, which, though not then acted on, became subsequently the basis of the federal union formed for the overthrow of the British dominion in America.

against the French and their Indian allies, who, when the devoted British had entered a gorge, where retreat was almost impossible, poured from their ambuscades a deadly fire, under which the soldiers of the unfortunate Braddock fell rapidly, without even the satisfaction of seeing or meeting their foes. The death of their leader was the signal that further advance was hopeless; and Colonel Washington, the second in command, succeeded by a strenuous and skilful effort in rescuing the remainder of the British army, who were afterwards joined by 6,000 provincial troops, under general Johnston and governor Shirley. Johnston, with the intention of investing Crown Point, joined general Lyman near Lake George, where they were attacked by 3,000 French, under the command of Baron Dieskau. After a contest of four hours' duration, the French retreated to Crown Point, with a loss of 1,000 men and the capture of their leader, who was severely wounded. General Johnston also received several wounds, his conduct was highly commended, and the honour of knighthood was conferred upon him. This success revived the drooping spirits of the British army, and helped to train the provincials, who were brigaded along with the regular troops, for the contest they were soon to wage with the very men by whose side they now fought. The campaign of 1755 closed in October with the retirement of the British to Albany, after reinforcing the garrison of Oswego, but without any attack on Crown Point. France, fully aware of the importance of Canada, sent out early in the ensuing year a large body of chosen troops under the command of major-general the Marquis de Montcalm, who, after continued successes during the campaigns of 1756 and 1757, captured Forts Oswego and William Henry. Their triumph was, however, stained by the brutal massacre of nearly 2,000 English prisoners by their Indian allies, sanctioned, it was asserted, by the French, though the chivalrous character of De Montcalm renders it highly improbable that he could have been concerned in it. The feelings excited throughout England and North America by the tidings of this monstrous deed may be conceived, and the deep abhorrence felt towards those who, if they did not actually permit it, at least appeared to have taken no active measures for its prevention, tended materially to accelerate the downfall of French dominion in Canada. The elder

Pitt (afterwards earl of Chatham), then recently called to the head of affairs, proved himself a great statesman, and by his extraordinary powers of eloquence infused an energetic spirit into His Majesty's counsels, and so wielded the resources of the nation, that a rapid change came over the aspect of American affairs. Preparations were made on a great scale for the assistance of the New Englanders, and the campaign was opened upon a plan of combined operations by sea and land somewhat resembling that adopted in 1690. Three divisions, under generals of acknowledged talent, were to invade Canada at different points, of which the chief was that destined to attack Quebec, which being the capital of the French dominions, situated in the midst of a hostile country, rendered almost impregnable by its position and fortifications, and defended by 20,000 regulars and militia, besides numerous Indian allies, was considered the most arduous undertaking of the whole war. The officer selected by Mr. Pitt for the command of this detachment was General Wolfe, who though only thirty-three years of age, possessed a military reputation of long standing, having distinguished himself at the battle of Laflet when only twenty. At the siege of Louisburg, in the preceding year, he had established his character as an officer of extraordinary ability, for though not first in command, being present only as brigadier-general, his exertions mainly contributed to the obtaining of this important position. The naval forces destined for the attack comprised twenty sail of the line, two ships of fifty guns, twelve frigates, and fourteen smaller vessels, under the command of admiral Saunders; and by this fleet the soldiers of Wolfe, amounting to 8,000 veteran troops, were safely conveyed to the Isle of Orleans.

The Marquis de Montcalm made vigorous preparations for the defence of Quebec; his armed force consisted of about 13,000 men, of whom six battalions were regulars, and the remainder well disciplined Canadian troops, with some cavalry and Indians; his army was ranged from the river St. Lawrence to the Falls of Montmorenci, ready to oppose the landing of the British. He possessed also a few vessels of war and some fire ships, with which an attempt was made to destroy the English fleet, but they were caught by grappling irons, and towed safely past. The strength of De Montcalm's defences was proved by the unsuccessful at-

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tempt made by Brigadier-general Monckton, who occupied Point Levi, opposite Quebec, to bombard the capital; and, again, by the failure of the attack of the 31st of July, headed by Wolfe, on the entrenchments at Montmorenci, in which the assaults were repulsed with a loss of 182 killed and 650 wounded, including 11 officers killed and 46 wounded. The boats, it is said, in which the British landed, were accidentally delayed—the grenadiers rushed forward too eagerly,—and the French, strongly posted, and aided by many Indian riflemen, poured on them a destructive fire, which compelled their retreat. Wolfe keenly felt this disappointment, and expressed in his despatches home, his doubt of being able to reduce Quebec during that campaign, as the fleet, his strongest arm, was ineffective against the rocky wall on which the citadel stood, and the positions of the French were, moreover, guarded by troops more numerous than his own. As soon as he had partially recovered from a violent fever, caused by grief and anxiety acting on a feeble frame, he called a council of war, in which it was agreed to act on the bold suggestion proposed by General Townshend, of attempting to gain the heights of Abraham, which commanded the weakest point of the city. Wolfe accordingly commenced operations, and conducted them with an address, secrecy, and presence of mind, rarely equalled. He deceived the French by still appearing to direct his whole attention to the Montmorenci entrenchments, and at nightfall on the 12th of September, 1759, the troops, consisting of the 15th, 22nd, 28th, 35th, 40th, 43rd, 45th, 47th, 48th, 58th, 60th (2nd and 3rd battalions), and 78th regiments, with a corps of rangers, embarked in two divisions; the boats dropped silently down the river, and the troops landed in safety at the place now called Wolfe's Cove. Here a new difficulty presented itself—the ascent was so precipitous that Wolfe is said to have doubted its being practicable; but the soldiers led by Frazer's Highlanders, and aided by the branches of shrubs and roots of trees growing among the rocks, succeeded in reaching the summit, where they were speedily drawn up in regular order. De Montcalm, misled by finding his vigilance had failed in guarding this important pass, lost his usual presence, and seeing that his opponent had gained so much by hazarding all, he, with an infatuation for which only strongly excited feeling can account, resolved upon

meeting the British in battle array on the plains of Abraham, without even waiting the return of 2,000 men dispatched by him as a corps of observation under De Bougainville, to Cape Rouge, nine miles above Quebec. The French sallied forth from their almost impregnable fortress without field artillery, and with a heat and precipitation which, under the circumstances, strangely contrasted with the coolness and precision of the British. The eagle eye of Wolfe took in at a glance all the details of his position. He knew that for him retreat was next to impossible; yet while directing his main attention to the steady advance of his right division, he skilfully covered his flanks, and endeavoured to preserve their communication with the shore. Both armies may be said to have been without artillery, the French having only two guns, and the English a light cannon, which the soldiers had dragged up the heights with ropes; the sabre and the bayonet accordingly decided the day, and never was the nervous strength of the British arm more manifestly displayed. The agile Scotch Highlanders powerfully wielded their stout claymores, and filled the place of cavalry, while the steady fire of the English fusileers compensated, in some degree, the absence of artillery. On the part of the French 1,500 light infantry, and some Indian riflemen, advanced first, and began a desultory fire; but the British reserved their shot for the main body, and opened no general fire in return until their opponents were within forty yards. They then discharged a deadly volley, which Wolfe followed up by charging with the bayonet, at the head of the grenadiers of the 22nd, 40th, and 50th regiments, who had acquired the honourable title of Louisburgh grenadiers. Although wounded by a ball in the wrist, and another in the groin, and suffering from fever and dysentery, he still pressed on against the French, who fought with fury heightened by the fanaticism excited in them by the priests against the English heretics. The heroism of De Montcalm was as conspicuous as that of his illustrious opponent; both headed their men—both rushed with eagerness wherever the battle raged most fiercely, and often by their personal prowess and example changed the fortune of the moment—both acutely sensible of the responsibility of their respective positions, and stimulated by the enthusiasm which only those who have mixed in the heavy current of battle can conceive—

though repeatedly wounded still pressed on at the head of their men, till almost, at the same moment, both of these gallant commanders received their death wound. A ball entered the breast of Wolfe, who, faint with the loss of blood, reeled, and leant against the shoulder of one of his officers, whispering, "*Support me! let not my brave soldiers see me drop.*" He was carried to some distance in the rear; his eyes were waxing dim, and the life-blood ebbing fast from his strong and generous heart, when the cry of "**THEY RUN! THEY RUN!**" rent the air, and seemed to stay for a moment his fleeting spirit. "*Who run?*" he eagerly inquired. "**The French,**" was the reply. Then, said the general, "*Pray, do one of you run to colonel Barton, and tell him to march Webb's regiment with all speed down to Charles River, to cut off the retreat of the fugitives. Now, God be praised! I shall die happy.*" The patriotic soldier then closed his eyes, and expired. The gallant Montcalm also perished, rejoicing in his last moments that he should not live to witness the surrender of Quebec; and both the conquerors and the conquered joined in deploring the loss of their brave and beloved commanders. General Townshend thus wrote home respecting the British here:—"I am not ashamed to own to you, that my heart does not exult in the midst of this success. I have lost but a friend in general Wolfe; our country a sure support and a perpetual honour. If the world were sensible at how dear a price we have purchased Quebec in his death, it would damp the public joy. Our best consolation is, that Providence seemed not to promise that he should remain long among us. He was himself sensible of the weakness of his constitution, and determined to crowd into a few years actions that would have adorned length of life." The contest had scarcely ended when De Bougainville appeared in the rear; but he perceived that the fortune of the day was decided, and retreated without attempting to retrieve it. On the 18th Quebec capitulated. The French lost about 1,500 men killed and wounded. The loss of the British was as follows:—1 general, 1 captain, 6 lieutenants, 1 ensign, 3 serjeants, and 45 rank and file killed; and 1 brigadier-general, 4 staff officers, 12 captains, 26 lieutenants, 10 engineers, 25 serjeants, 4 drummers, and 506 rank and file wounded. The expeditions by land were also successful. General Amherst marched from New York with

a large force, and reduced Ticonderago and Crown Point; while General Prideaux, aided by Sir William Johnston, with a body of Indian troops, took Niagara—and thus ended the campaign. In the spring of 1760 general De Levi having assembled an army of regulars and militia amounting to 12,000 men, advanced to the heights of Abraham, and prepared to besiege Quebec, which had been left under the command of general Murray with a garrison of about 5,000 men, but whose numbers had been greatly reduced by sickness. Relying on the bravery of his troops, and fearing, perhaps, that his fortifications were not sufficient to withstand the enemy, general Murray quitted his fortress with about 3,000 men to give De Levi battle; but overpowered by numbers he was compelled to return to Quebec, with the loss of 1,000 men and all his field artillery. The French, it is said, lost 2,500. De Levi then besieged the town, but Murray held out bravely until the arrival of a small squadron under admiral Swanton on the 15th of May, compelled the precipitate retreat of De Levi. The French army then concentrated itself in Montreal; but being enclosed by the three divisions, viz., that under General Amherst, and those from Quebec and Niagara, the French could no longer maintain their ground, and the Marquis de Vaudreuil on the 8th of September, 1760, was compelled to sign a capitulation surrendering to the British the whole of Canada. The population of Canada then amounted to about 69,000, including 7,400 converted Indians, and were described by general Murray as a frugal, industrious, and moral race, with a noblesse also very poor, but much respected. The land chiefly cultivated was a comparatively narrow strip on the banks of the St. Lawrence. No people ever had juster cause of gratitude for a change of government than the Canadians in the present instance. The colonists were suffering severely from rapacity and misgovernment. Bigot, the French Intendant, or king's financier, and his creatures, plundered the colonists in all possible ways; a paper currency, termed card-money, based on the responsibility of the king of France, for the general support of the civil and military establishments of the colony, and which, from having been faithfully redeemed during a period of thirty years, enjoyed unlimited credit, enabled Bigot to conceal for a long time his waste and peculations; and while the British were capturing Canada by force of arms, the French monarch was

destroying the commerce and prospects of his subjects by dishonouring the bills of exchange of the Intendant to whom he had granted absolute power; thus involving in ruin those who possessed any bills or paper currency, which at the conquest amounted to nearly £4,000,000 sterling, the only compensation received for which was four per cent. on the original value.

Civil and religious liberty was granted to the Canadians; and in the words of the writer of the Political Annals of Canada, "previous history affords no example of such forbearance and generosity on the part of the conquerors towards the conquered—forming such a new era in civilised warfare that an admiring world admitted the claim of Great Britain to the glory of conquering a people, less from views of ambition and the security of her other colonies, than from the hope of improving their situation, and endowing them with the privileges of freemen."

At first the English civil law was introduced, and all offices were conferred on British subjects, then consisting of military officers and about 500 petty traders, who treated with contempt even the French noblesse, many of whom were fine specimens of the French gentlemen of the "old school." General Murray, the first English governor of the province, strongly protested against the home policy, which was at length altered, and in 1774 the "Quebec Bill" was passed, which restored to the French, in civil matters, the ancient system called the *Coutume de Paris*, established a legislative council for the regulation of all matters except taxation, and substituted a modified oath of allegiance for the previous oaths of abjuration and supremacy.

A new cause of disturbance again involved the Canadian colonists in the horrors of war, for they were ere long called upon to defend their territory from the very men who had assisted them in acquiring it from the French. The refusal of the New Englanders to contribute their share of taxes levied by the British government, mainly for the purpose of defraying the expenses incurred in the capture of Canada, unless permitted to send representatives to the British parliament, with other reasons which it is not within the scope of this work to detail, led to their declaration of independence, and the formation of the United States republic, which was no sooner established than the New Englanders, henceforth to be termed the

Americans, attempted the conquest of Canada. Towards the close of the summer of 1775, the American forces, amounting to 4,000 men, invaded Canada by Lake Champlain, and from the sources of the Kennebec river. The main division, under brigadier-general Montgomery, was eminently successful; Montreal, Chambly, St. John's, Longueuil, and other posts then of importance were captured, and all the military stores and provisions at Montreal and on the rivers fell into their hands. The smaller division of the American army under colonel Arnold, consisting of 1100 men, sailed up the Kennebec, and after traversing with great difficulty the forests and swamps of Maine, where their sufferings from hunger were so intolerable as to induce them to eat the flesh of dogs, and the leather of their cartouche boxes, arrived at Satagan on the 4th of November, and on the 8th reached Point Levi, opposite Quebec, whose inhabitants were perfectly ignorant of their approach. Quebec was at this moment almost defenceless, and had Arnold been able to cross the river, in all probability it must have been captured; but, fortunately, the shipping had been removed to the other side, and the news of its danger reached the city while there was yet time to prepare for its defence. General Carleton, the British governor, was meanwhile occupied in endeavouring to repulse general Montgomery, who, having made himself master of Montreal, turned his attention to effect a junction of his own division with that of Arnold.

The British general, by a masterly manoeuvre, passed quietly down the river, and reached the citadel on the 19th of November without interruption, Arnold's troops having previously crossed the St. Lawrence a short distance above Quebec, taken possession of the environs, and encamped at Pointe aux Trembles, 21 miles from Quebec, awaiting Montgomery, who on his arrival assumed the command of both divisions. Carleton was welcomed in Quebec with great joy; the French Canadians vied with the oldest British soldiers in zeal and energy; and the little garrison of 1,800 men, of whom only 350 were regulars (including 230 of Frazer's Highlanders, who had settled in the country and were re-embodied under colonel M'Lean), 450 seamen, and the remainder a gallant band of Canadian militia and armed artificers, awaited with calm confidence the attack of the combined forces. Montgomery summoned the citadel to surrender and re-

ceived an immediate refusal, upon which a blockade was commenced, which lasted throughout the whole month of December, when the Americans held a council of war, and decided upon a night assault. The besiegers divided into two storming parties, and, headed by Montgomery and Arnold, advanced, during the raging of a furious snow-storm, from opposite points, intending to unite near Prescott gate, and after forcing it proceed to the upper town. As they approached the gate the assailants led by Montgomery became crowded in the long narrow pass leading to the gate of the fortress, and a confused noise, mingling with the conflict of the elements, struck the watchful ear of the outer sentinel, who, receiving no answer to his challenge, roused the guard. Montgomery, with great quickness, formed his men for the assault, but the Canadian militia, aided by nine British seamen to work the guns, opened a tremendous fire from the battery which commanded the path, and compelled their retreat. The besieged, nevertheless, unable to ascertain the real state of affairs, continued their cannonade until every sound in answer to their fire had died away. The morning dawned without at first revealing any traces of the enemy, for the falling snow had thrown, as it were, a mantle over the dead bodies of the brave Montgomery and the gallant soldiers who had fallen by his side. His death was rendered the more striking by the circumstance of his having, sixteen years before, served under Wolfe on the heights of Abraham, but on his marriage with the daughter of Judge Livingston he joined the cause of the colonists, and perished in attempting to deprive the British of the fortress he had previously aided them in acquiring.

Arnold had also been unsuccessful. In a desperate assault on the first barrier on the opposite side he had been severely wounded, and taken off the field; but captain Morgan led on his division, carried the first barrier, and pushed on to the second, but being hemmed in by a detachment of British and Canadians in the rear, captain Morgan with his men, to the number of 426, surrendered without reaching Prescott gate, where the governor had taken his stand. The death of their commander greatly dispirited the Americans, and though Arnold endeavoured to maintain his position little was done until April, 1776, when a reinforcement of 2000 men arrived under general Wooster, who made some ineffectual attacks; but the dis-

embarkation, early in May, of supplies from England obliged the Americans to retreat to Montreal, and enabled Carleton entirely to expel them from Canada.

At the time of the invasion there were not more than 900 regular troops in the British colony, and the greater part of these surrendered in Forts Chambly and St. John, or were taken while retiring from Montreal. Such, however, were the feelings of the Canadians, on account of the honourable treatment experienced from the English government, after the conquest of the colony from the French, that they cheerfully exerted themselves to preserve Canada to England, thus affording another illustration of the wisdom of humane and generous policy. It was only on the 7th September, that the Canadian officers of militia received their commissions; but their activity and zeal made amends for the tardiness with which confidence had been reposed in them, and of 1,500 defenders of Quebec, 800 were militia men. When the Americans evacuated the province, they had about 8,000 men, but the Canadian militia and regulars presented to them an organised force of 13,000, and thus compelled their retreat across the frontier.

On the termination of the American war, in 1783, many royalists sought refuge in Upper or Western Canada, where lands were freely granted them in the Western districts, adjoining the great lakes. In 1790-91, Mr. Pitt, to gratify the strongly expressed desire for representative government in Canada and for the adoption of English institutions, divided the province into two districts; the *Western* being called Upper, and the *Eastern* Lower Canada. The representative assemblies were elected by 40s. freeholders, which was nearly equivalent to universal suffrage, but the proposed counterpoise by the creation of an hereditary noblesse, including the most respectable of the French seigneurs, was prevented by the opposition of Mr. Fox, whose recommendation of a council chosen by the crown for life, was adopted. The first House of Assembly in Lower Canada, consisting of 50 members, was held in 1792. The object of Mr. Pitt in dividing the province was evidently to conciliate the feelings, and even prejudices, of the French Canadians, who, in 1778, in a memorial to the crown, thus expressed their sentiments:—"It is our religion, our laws relative to our property, and our personal surety in which we are most interested;

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and these we enjoy in the most ample manner by the Quebec bill. We are the more averse to a House of Assembly, from the fatal consequences which will result from it. Can we, as Roman Catholics, hope to preserve for any length of time the same prerogatives as Protestant subjects in a House of Representatives? and will there not come a time when the influence of the latter will overbalance that of our posterity? In this case should we and our posterity enjoy the same advantages which our present constitution secures to us? Again: have we not reason to dread lest we should soon see those taxes levied upon the estates which are at present actually levied upon articles of commerce, which the inhabitant pays indirectly it is true, but in proportion to what he consumes? Shall we not fear that we may one day see the seeds of dissension created by the Assembly of Representatives, and nourished by those intestine hatreds which the opposite interests of the old and new subjects will naturally give birth to?"

The Legislative Council of Lower Canada for some time governed the colony, and the Representative Assembly was merely the register of its acts; and previous to 1807 complaints were made, that the members of the Council made large grants of land to themselves; the Assembly demanded that the judges being dependent on and removable by the government should not sit in the Assembly, and to gain this concession they offered to defray from the funds of the colony, the whole expense of its civil administration. This was refused by the governor and representatives of the crown with indignation, the Assembly was dissolved, and a French newspaper, termed the "Canadian," which had censured the proceedings of the government, and of the Legislative Council, was suppressed, by the imprisonment of the printer, and the destruction of his types and presses. Six individuals were also taken into custody, but never brought to trial, and the period was not inappropriately called the "reign of terror." In 1811 a new Assembly was convened; it persisted in the same demands, when fortunately for all parties, general Sir James Craig, who had been governor-general from the 24th October, 1807, was on the 14th September, 1811, replaced by Sir George Prevost, who at once expressed a desire to redress existing grievances, and his sympathy with the men who were struggling for freedom, and who in 1803, had,

through the chief-justice of Montreal, declared that slavery was inconsistent with the laws of the country, and that all slaves in Canada should receive their liberty.

In 1812, the Americans, thinking the period propitious for capturing Canada, by reason of the discontent which existed, especially in Lower Canada, at the conduct of Sir James Craig, resolved to declare war against England, and invade Canada, where it was supposed the mass of the people would be disposed to receive the Americans with open arms. Dr. Eustis, secretary-at-war, said in Congress—"We can take the Canadas without soldiers; we have only to send officers into the provinces, and the people disaffected towards their own government will rally round our standard;" and Mr. Clay stated—"It is absurd to suppose that we shall not succeed in our enterprise against the enemy's provinces. We have the Canadas as much at our command as Great Britain has the ocean. *We must take the continent from them: I wish never to see peace till we do.*"

The proceedings of the United States government of that day were totally unjustifiable. The Marquis Wellesley, then Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, received intelligence from different parts of America during the year 1811, that the Americans were preparing to invade Canada. On the 24th June, 1812, it was known at Quebec that war was declared between England and America; and the Canadians rose with a noble spirit, in defence of England and of their country. They might have availed themselves of the disturbed state of Great Britain—they might have joined, on their own terms, the United States, and formed a portion of the Congress—but their efforts were those of a generous nature, which, forgetting the injuries, remembered only the benefits, received from England. Four battalions of militia were instantly raised,—the Canadian Voltigeurs (a fine corps especially suited to the country) were organized and equipped in the short space of six weeks, by the liberality of the younger part of the Canadian gentry, from among whom they were gallantly officered; thus a spirit of military enthusiasm was infused into the whole population, and an example held up to the settlers in Upper Canada, highly important at a crisis, when the regular troops of England were drained from the colonies for the purpose of combating Napoleon.

Sir George Prevost, the new governor, summoned the Canadian parliament, ap-

pealed to its honourable spirit, to the attachment of the people to the religion of their forefathers, and their ardent love for the true interests of their country. The Canadians responded to the appeal, and were expressly thanked by his royal highness the Prince Regent for their support and attachment—his royal highness declaring, that “relying with confidence on the courage and loyalty of his majesty’s Canadian subjects, he was equally fearless of the result of any attack upon them, or of any insidious attempt to alienate their affections from the mother country.”

On the breaking out of the war, Upper Canada was partly peopled by emigrants from the United States, who might be supposed unwilling to shed the blood of their kindred; the people of Lower Canada had but recently been represented by authority as seditious, or so liable to be turned from their allegiance as to endanger the government. There were only about 4,000 British troops in both provinces, scattered along a frontier of 1,300 miles; and the St. Lawrence, an immense military highway, open to the United States, and leading into the heart of Canada, was undefended, thus endangering the safety of the British forces stationed on its borders. With the view of keeping up the price of bills of exchange, of which the military government was the chief vendor, the specie of the country had been suffered to be carried into the United States, which materially added to existing difficulties. To remedy this and prepare for defence, the legislature was assembled; and government paper, bearing interest, and payable in bills of exchange on England, was substituted for specie.

The arrival of two battalions, for the purpose of relieving two others under orders for their departure, added to the regular force. At the instance of the government, a law had passed during the preceding winter, for drafting the militia for actual service, and four weak battalions had been assembled before the war. Every description of force was prepared for service; the citadel of Quebec was garrisoned by the inhabitants of the town, proud of the duty and of the confidence of the government. In a month after the declaration of war, the lower province seemed capable of becoming the assailant. The Americans had collected, in the summer of 1811, their principal regular force on their north-western frontier ostensibly against the Indians, whom they attacked. This force,

commanded by general Hull, one of the few remaining officers of the war of Independence, was joined by militia and volunteers, who had set out on their march for Upper Canada, before the declaration of war. The invaders made roads through immense forests, depending on them for their communications and supplies, and arrived at Detroit, on the fifth July, 1812, about 2,500 strong. On the 12th July, the enemy passed over into Upper Canada, took possession of Sandwich, and issued a proclamation to the apparently defenceless inhabitants, inviting them to join the American standard, or at least to remain inactive, assuring them, in either case, of the protection of the United States. After some trifling skirmishes with the handful of British troops stationed at Fort Maldon, which, under the command of lieutenant-colonel St. George protected Amherstburg, and upon hearing of the consequences of the surrender of Michilimackinac, which drew upon the Americans the hostility of nearly all the Indians, general Hull became alarmed for his own safety, and returned to Detroit, where he shut himself up on the 7th of August. Sir George Prevost had entrusted the government and command of Upper Canada to general Brock, an able and active soldier, who strenuously supported the spirit of the loyal inhabitants. On the 5th August, Brock prorogued the parliament at York; on the 12th he was at Amherstburg; he crossed the frontier and was advancing to the attack of the fort of Detroit, when a white flag was held out, and general Hull and his whole army, who, it must be owned, were greatly reduced by sickness, surrendered to a force of 330 regulars, 400 militia, and 600 Indians. People were utterly amazed when they saw so considerable a part of the American forces marched captive into Montreal and Quebec. Two months after the surrender of Hull, the enemy had collected another force of 6000 men on the Niagara frontier. On the 13th October, this force crossed over into Upper Canada, at Queenston, and overpowered the small detachment stationed there. General Brock, who was at Fort George, put himself at the head of a small party, hastened to the spot in advance of his army, and fell while valiantly, but ineffectually, resisting overpowering numbers. The enemy obtained possession of the heights, but was soon dislodged by the British troops on their arrival, and 700 men surrendered at discretion to general Sheaffe, on whom the

command had devolved. A temporary truce ensued, which was interrupted by an attempt at invasion, on the 20th and 28th November, near Fort Erie, by the American general Smyth, with 4,500 men, which was repulsed by lieutenant-colonel Bisshopp, with 600 regulars and militia. An equally unsuccessful attempt was made about the same time, by the British naval force on Lake Ontario, against Sacket's harbour. The rest of the winter passed away without any event of importance, except the capture, on the 22nd January, by colonel Proctor, after a smart action, of 40 prisoners, amongst whom was the American general Winchester, on the Detroit frontier; and an assault on Ogdensburg, which appears to have been intended as a prelude to an attack on Sacket's Harbour. From the time of the surrender of Hull, the Americans, however much they blamed that officer, seem to have been fully aware of the chief cause of his disaster; they, therefore, strained every nerve to obtain control of the lakes, and the ice no sooner disappeared on Lake Ontario, than they came out with a superior naval force from Sacket's Harbour, which, for a time, secured to them the possession of the lake.

On the 27th April, 1813, general Dearborn landed with 2000 Americans, who, after a brave resistance on the part of general Sheaffe, and about 600 men, gained possession of York (Toronto) the capital of Upper Canada, where they destroyed the public buildings, carried off the artillery and naval stores, and wreaked their vengeance on a printing press, and the frame of a ship building for the British service on the lake. The enemy then proceeded to Niagara to besiege Fort George, where they landed troops, and then returned to Sacket's Harbour, from whence additional forces were conveyed to the same quarter, which succeeded in landing to the number of 4000 men, in spite of the determined resistance of brigadier-general Vincent; who with only 1000 regulars and 300 militia, and a fort rendered indefensible by the severe fire it had sustained from an American battery on the opposite side, still contested the ground, but was finally compelled to retreat to Burlington Bay, near the western extremity of Lake Ontario, leaving the whole Niagara frontier, containing a very large proportion of the population of Upper Canada, in the power of the enemy. During the taking of Fort George, an abortive attempt

was made by general Sir G. Prevost on the Americans at Sacket's Harbour, which, unhappily, led to a misunderstanding between him and the naval service, productive of much evil to the British interest in the Canadas during the remainder of the war. Their success encouraged the enemy, and extraordinary exertions were made at this period by the United States. Two corps were despatched under generals Winchester and Harrison, by different lines, for the seizure of Detroit and the adjoining districts; Winchester, with about 1000 men, arrived first, and colonel Proctor seizing the opportunity, hastily collected his forces, amounting to about 500 whites, and 450 Indians, gave the enemy battle on the 22nd January, 1813, and succeeded in gaining a complete victory, capturing the general and 467 American soldiers, and killing and wounding as many more; general Winchester fell into the hands of a Wyandot Indian, who stripped off his uniform, adorned his own person with it, and was with difficulty induced to make restitution.

Colonel Proctor reinforced his troops, and proceeded to the falls of Miami, where general Harrison had taken up his position, and having learned the defeat of his associate, was awaiting succours from the main body of the American army. In spite of many delays, which enabled Harrison to strengthen his position, colonel Proctor succeeded in greatly weakening the enemy's force, and removing all immediate danger of invasion. Meanwhile Dearborn resolved upon driving the British from Burlington Heights, and cutting off the communication between generals Vincent and Proctor, and on the 5th of June, 4000 men under generals Chandler and Winder, took up their position at Stoney Creek, and with full confidence in the superiority of their numbers, prepared to attack general Vincent on the following day. Lieutenant-colonel Harvey, after reconnoitring the enemy's position, proposed attacking it that night, and having obtained permission to do so, succeeded in surprising the American camp, with 704 bayonets; and after killing and wounding a great number of the enemy he retired, carrying with him both Chandler and Winder, and 120 men as prisoners. This affair so thoroughly disconcerted the enemy, that they retreated to Forty Mile Creek, eleven miles distant, and on being threatened by Sir James Yeo, who was advancing with a squadron and a few troops to the support of general Vincent,

they retired to Fort George. From thence lieutenant-colonel Boerstler was sent with 700 men to seize an advanced post of the English at Beaver-dam, but being attacked first by a body of Indians, and afterwards by a few British troops, he surrendered himself and his corps prisoners of war. The campaign continued some time without any event of much moment, excepting the capture, on 3rd June, 1813, of two American vessels, carrying 22 guns, which were taken by the British at Isle aux Noix, after a well contested action of three hours, and some other smaller advantages gained by the British.

On the 11th July a successful attack was made by the British on Black Rock, headed by colonel Bisshopp, who was mortally wounded while re-embarking; and on the 30th of that month colonel Murray destroyed the American barracks at Plattsburg. But at this time the triumphs of the English were changed into reverses. On the 10th of September commodore Perry, with a squadron of 9 vessels mounting 56 guns, captured the British naval force on Lake Erie. Colonel Proctor could therefore no longer obtain supplies, his only means of communication with the British army being by land, several hundred miles through forests.

His situation nearly resembled that of Hull, at Detroit; he had one advantage, however, which Hull had not—the friendship of the Indians, but he strangely delayed his retreat a fortnight after the loss of his fleet, and till the near approach of a superior force of the enemy. On the 5th of October he was only three days' march (56 miles) from Detroit, pursuing his retreat along the Trenché. His force consisted of less than 1,000 British and militia, and about 1,200 Indians, the greater number of whom gradually deserted him, whilst the Americans were upwards of 3,000 strong. He chose his position carefully, hoping thereby to neutralize the effect of superior numbers, but a sudden charge of mounted Kentucky riflemen broke the British line, the whole was thrown into confusion, and a large number of the British were made prisoners. The Indians who still remained with Proctor fought bravely, headed by their chief Tecumthel, who had perseveringly endeavoured to unite all the tribes in a confederacy against the Americans. He is described as singularly brave and generous, and gifted with extraordinary powers of eloquence. He per-

ished in the conflict with many of his faithful followers. The Americans returned to Detroit with their prisoners, and Proctor, with a few stragglers and a number of Indians, retired to Ancaster, and after rallying about 200 men joined the army at Niagara. The American forces gradually collected at the lower ends of Lakes Ontario and Champlain under generals Wilkinson and Hampton, with the intention of making a combined attack on Montreal, while the chief part of the British regular force was in Upper Canada. Major-general Hampton was to advance with 6,000 men from Lake Champlain, and major-general Wilkinson, with 8,000 men, from Grenadier Island, near Sacket's harbour. It was evident that if this attack succeeded, and the command of that city and the surrounding country should be retained by the Americans, Upper Canada was conquered, and every British soldier in it a prisoner, unless he could succeed in fighting his way to Quebec. There was nothing to prevent Wilkinson, with competent pilots for the rapids, from landing on the Island of Montreal with an army completely equipped in three or four days after his leaving Lake Ontario, and Hampton was only a couple of days' march from the St. Lawrence. Some misunderstanding, however, with respect to time appears to have arisen between them. On the 21st of October Hampton entered the province apparently with the intention of penetrating the St. Lawrence, by the river Chateauguay. On the 26th he came upon colonel de Salaberry's position on that river, about 30 miles from the frontier. This officer, a native of Canada, belonging to one of its old and most distinguished families, had served with the British army in various parts of the world. To great activity and personal intrepidity he united military science and experience, and possessed the entire confidence of his little force, which formed the advance of the army, and consisted of about 800 men, chiefly natives of Lower Canada, and composed of fencibles, voltigeurs, militia, and Indians. The enemy, formed principally of new levies, seemed to think that the battle was to be won by field manœuvres, and platoon-firing. Colonel de Salaberry took advantage of all the protection for his men that the choice of position in a thickly wooded country afforded, and poured in a deadly fire, every man making sure of his object; the colonel setting the example. The enemy's loss was considerable, but has never been correctly

ascertained; that of colonel de Salaberry's force was, two killed and sixteen wounded. Hampton, believing himself to be opposed by a large force, retired to the frontier, and thence to Plattsburg, where he remained in a state of inactivity, his army dwindling away by sickness and desertion. General Wilkinson, with his division, which consisted of between 8,000 and 9,000 men, completely equipped and provided, left Grenadier Island on the 5th November in boats and other crafts, and having crossed Lake Ontario entered the St. Lawrence. At Williamsburg he landed a considerable number of troops to clear the banks, and also to lighten the boats while descending the rapids. These delays gave time to detachments from the garrisons of Kingston and Prescott to overtake him, and on the 11th of November a large body of these, under major-general Boyd, encountered colonel Morrison, who headed a much smaller force sent from Kingston and Prescott. The English, after a long contest, were victorious; the Americans retired to their boats, but continued to descend towards Montreal. Near Cornwall, their commander, major-general Wilkinson, received despatches from general Hampton, stating his determination of retreating to Lake Champlain; and finding, moreover, the hostility felt towards the Americans by the population generally, he gave up the idea of attacking Montreal during that campaign, and took up winter quarters near French Mills, on the Salmon river, but from scarcity of provisions was ultimately induced to proceed to Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain. Hostilities were recommenced early in the spring of 1814. Lieutenant-colonel Williams having taken post with 1,500 British on the river Colle, Wilkinson, who had upwards of 4,000 men at Plattsburg, made an unsuccessful attack upon them; and on the 6th of May Sir Gordon Drummond gained another advantage, carrying, though with some loss, the fort of Oswego, with which he captured a considerable quantity of ammunition and stores. The failure of the enemy's attempts on Lower or East Canada, and the course of events in Europe, began to give a new character to the war, and the offensive measures on the side of the United States became almost confined to a part of the Upper Province. Although the British naval force on Lake Ontario had ventured out of port during the preceding campaign, the advantages for naval warfare were entirely on the side of the Americans, who ran up their ships

in a few weeks, and had all their supplies on the spot, whilst the English vessels were built as slowly and regularly as if intended for the ocean, and a great part of the materials were obliged to be sent from England. The chief portion of the American army were assembled on the American frontier under the command of major-general Brown, an officer who had greatly distinguished himself during the war, having been previously known in Lower Canada as a plain farmer and dealer in lumber and potash, and who had commanded Sacket's Harbour when attacked by Sir George Prevost. On the 3rd of July, at the head of between 3,000 and 4,000 men, he crossed into Upper Canada by Black Rock, and obtained possession of Fort Eric by capitulation. He then marched towards Chippawa, where he was met by the advanced guard of major-general Riall, and obliged to retreat to Fort George, and thence in the direction of Burlington heights. The enemy then proceeded to invest Fort George, plundered the inhabitants of the frontier, and destroyed the thriving village of St. David's, but being disappointed of assistance from Sacket's Harbour he fell back upon Chippawa. General Riall, having received reinforcements, advanced, and on the afternoon of the 25th the two armies again met near the Falls, and waged a long and bloody contest with various success until nearly midnight. General Riall had ordered a retreat, when, in the midst of the confusion, lieutenant-general Drummond arrived with fresh troops; and after a new struggle the Americans retired to Fort Eric. The American force engaged in this action, known as the battle of Lundy's Lane, was about 4,000, that of the British, as stated by Drummond, 2,800. The total loss of the former was 854, that of the latter 878. The British army then proceeded to invest Fort Eric, and on the 14th of August Drummond made an unsuccessful attempt to take it by surprise, and lost several of his best officers and bravest men. His total loss was 905, that of the enemy only 84. After this unfortunate affair Drummond converted the siege into a blockade.

The cessation of the European war had enabled England to turn her arms more powerfully against the Americans. While the events just related were taking place important operations were proceeding in other parts of Canada. On the 26th of June, transports arrived at Quebec from Bordeaux with the 6th and 82nd regiments.

They were ordered to the Niagara frontier, where they arrived late in August, having had to march round Lake Ontario. The principal part of the remainder of the troops which arrived from France, were assembled on the Richelieu River, and brigaded with the forces already in that quarter, under General de Rottenburg, for the purpose of carrying into effect instructions from England for offensive operations against the United States. Great exertions had for some time previous been making on both sides, to ensure a superiority on Lake Champlain. On the 3rd of September, the British army, amounting to 11,000 men, under Sir George Prevost, passed the frontier by Odell Town, and reached Plattsburg on the 6th, with trifling opposition, where the American general Macomb occupied a fortified position with 1,500 regulars, and as many of the inhabitants as could be collected from both sides of the Lake. From the 6th to the 11th, cannon were brought up from the rear, and batteries erected by the British.

On the 11th, the British flotilla from Isle aux Noix came up and attacked the American naval force in the bay; the land batteries opened at the same time and the troops moved to the assault. When they had reached the heights on which the American works were situated, victory declared itself in favour of the American naval force. Sir George Prevost countermanded the orders for the attack; the next morning the whole army retreated, and on the 13th re-entered the province, with a total loss of 235 men, exclusive of deserters, whose number on this, as on every occasion when the British soldiers entered the enemy's country, was considerable.

On the 17th of September, the American forces made a sortie from Fort Erie, which was repulsed, but with severe loss. On the 21st, General Drummond broke up the siege, and retired upon Chippawa, Fort George, and Burlington Heights. On the 17th of October, Sir James Yeo appeared on the Lake, and brought reinforcements and supplies to general Drummond; the American squadron under Chauncey remained in Sacket's Harbour. On the 5th of November, Drummond again advanced upon Fort Erie, and then succeeded in obliging the Americans to evacuate the place. Michilimackinac, which the American superiority on Lake Erie and Lake Huron, enabled them to attack, had been gallantly and successfully

defended. The enemy burnt the establishment of the North West Company at Sault St. Marie, but colonel McDonnell managed to send parties of voyageurs and Indians to the head of the Mississippi, and captured the post of Prairie du Chien. British naval officers and seamen, sent overland from York, had also captured in open boats two American armed schooners on Lake Huron, and preparations were making to secure the command of that lake, and even to recover that of Lake Erie, with which the former communicates by Detroit. The war, meantime, in America had brought about important changes. The British obtained possession of Washington, where they destroyed public edifices and private property, as the Americans had done in Canada. At New Orleans the English were defeated. Both parties began to sigh for peace, and on the 24th of December, 1814, a treaty between the United States and Great Britain was signed at Ghent, which, at length, restored tranquillity to Canada; on the 18th of February, 1815, it was ratified and proclaimed at Washington, and on the 9th of March made known at Quebec by Sir George Prevost.

In April, 1815, Sir G. G. Drummond was appointed to succeed Sir George Prevost; and soon after the Canadian parliament resumed the question of the independence of the judges, and impeached the chief judges of Quebec and Montreal. On the 12th of July, 1816, Sir John Coape Sherbrooke was appointed governor-general; he adopted a conciliatory policy, and in 1818 was instructed by Lord Bathurst, his majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, to accept the offer previously made by the colonists, of paying the whole civil list out of the colonial revenues. The governor-general, however, merely asked for a sum to meet current expenses, which was granted: new taxes were imposed, of which the Assembly resolved to supervise the future appropriation. Sir John Sherbrooke laid before the Assembly, at their urgent solicitation, a detailed estimate of the civil expenditure, divided under distinct heads. Unfortunately the state of Sir John's health compelled his return to England, and on the 13th of July, 1818, the Duke of Richmond was appointed governor-general. His Grace refused to place detailed estimates before the House of Assembly, and required the House to vote the supplies under branch heads without detail. In this policy he was supported by the Legislative Council, and

the duke by its advice drew upon the receiver-general of the provincial revenues for the sum he required. In September, 1819, the Duke of Richmond died of hydrophobia; on the 18th of June, 1820, the Earl of Dalhousie, who possessed high reputation as a soldier, was of very amiable character, and had been much liked as governor of Nova Scotia, was appointed governor-general of Canada. The noble earl, acting under the advice of his Legislative Council, on being refused by the Assembly £22,000 as a permanent grant, which he required for the public service, unless in detailed items, as an annual bill of supply, drew upon the receiver-general for even a larger sum; and in this he was supported by Earl Bathurst, who, however, recommended economy for the future, and directed two estimates to be prepared—one, including the expenses of civil government, to be defrayed from funds of which the crown claimed the entire disposal; the other and much smaller estimate to embrace divers public objects, over which the House of Assembly was to exercise complete control. This partial concession to the reasonable demands of the representatives of the people was well received, and the money voted accordingly. The French Canadians were grateful for the liberties which they gradually acquired from the British government; and in their constitutional struggles they were aided by the reformers in the House of Assembly in Upper Canada, who had also to contend against what was termed the "family compact" party. Lord Durham thus described the power this party possessed, and the influence it exercised on the government, legislature, and general affairs of the province:—"For a long time this body of men, receiving at times accessions to its numbers, possessed of almost all the highest public offices, by means of which, and of its influence in the Executive Council, it wielded all the powers of government; it maintained influence in the legislature by means of its predominance in the Legislative Council; and it disposed of the large number of petty posts which are in the patronage of the Government all over the province. Successive governors, as they came in their turn, are said to have either submitted quietly to its influence, or, after a short and unavailing struggle, to have yielded to this well-organized party the real conduct of affairs. The bench, the magistracy, the high offices of the Episcopal church, and a great part of the legal pro-

feccion, are filled by the adherents of this party: by grant or purchase, they have acquired nearly the whole of the waste lands of the province; they are all-powerful in the chartered banks, and, till lately, shared among themselves almost exclusively all offices of trust and profit. The bulk of this party consists, for the most part, of native-born inhabitants of the colony, or of emigrants who settled in it before the last war with the United States; the principal members of it belong to the church of England, and the maintenance of the claims of that church has always been one of its distinguishing characteristics.

"A monopoly of power so extensive and so lasting could not fail, in process of time, to excite envy, create dissatisfaction, and ultimately provoke attack; and an opposition consequently grew up in the Assembly which assailed the ruling party, by appealing to popular principles of government, by denouncing the alleged jobbing and profusion of the official body, and by instituting inquiries into abuses, for the purpose of promoting reform, and especially economy. The official party not being removed when it failed to command a majority in the Assembly, still continued to wield all the powers of the executive government, to strengthen itself by its patronage, and to influence the policy of the colonial governor and of the colonial department at home. By its secure majority in the Legislative Council, it could effectually control the legislative powers of the Assembly. It could choose its moment for dissolving hostile Assemblies; and could always ensure, for those that were favourable to itself, the tenure of their seats for the full term of the four years allowed by law."

It is, however, due to this party to state, that they did much for the welfare of Canada; and many of the social improvements, which mark the gradual progress of Canada, had their origin in the endeavours of the "family compact," who were, generally speaking, not related to each other, but attached by certain principles, such as those of the old Tory party in England. Of their loyalty there has never been a doubt; but it may be questioned whether their prolonged opposition to the carrying out of principles which the majority of those most interested earnestly and perseveringly desired, has not caused many of the evils which have since befallen Canada.

M. Papineau, at his election for the west

ward of the city of Montreal, in July, 1820, thus indicated the advantages which the Canadians had derived from British rule:—

"Not many days," said M. Papineau, "have elapsed since we assembled on this spot for the same purpose as that which now calls us together—the choice of representatives; the opportunity of that choice being caused by a great national calamity—the decease of that beloved Sovereign who had reigned over the inhabitants of this country since the day they became British subjects: it is impossible not to express the feeling of gratitude for the many benefits received from him, and those of sorrow for his loss, so deeply felt in *this*, as in every other portion of his extensive dominions. And how could it be otherwise, when each year of his long reign has been marked by new favours bestowed upon the country? To enumerate these, and to detail the history of this country for so many years, would occupy more time than can be spared by those whom I have the honour to address. Suffice it then at a glance to compare our present happy situation with that of our fathers on the eve of the day when George the Third became their legitimate monarch. Suffice it to recollect, that under the French government, (internally and externally arbitrary and oppressive,) the interests of this country had been more constantly neglected and mal-administered than any other part of its dependencies. In its estimation, Canada seems not to have been considered as a country which, from fertility of soil, salubrity of climate, and extent of territory, might have been the peaceful abode of a numerous and happy population, but as a military post, whose feeble garrison was condemned to live in a state of perpetual warfare and insecurity, frequently suffering from famine, without trade, or a trade monopolised by privileged companies, public and private property often pillaged, and personal liberty daily violated; when year after year the handful of inhabitants settled in this province were dragged from their homes and families, to shed their blood, and carry murder and havoc from the shores of the great lakes, the Mississippi and the Ohio, to those of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay. Such was the situation of our fathers: behold the change! George the Third, a sovereign revered for his moral character, attention to his kingly duties, and love of his subjects, succeeds to Louis XV., a prince then deservedly despised for his debauchery, his inattention to the wants of his people, and his lavish profusion of the public monies upon favourites and mistresses. From that day the reign of the law succeeded to that of violence. From that day the treasures, the navy, and the armies of Great Britain, are mustered to afford us an invincible protection against external danger. From that day the better part of her laws became ours; while our religion, property, and the laws by which they were governed, remain unaltered. Soon after are granted to us the privileges of his free constitution; an infallible pledge, when acted upon, of our internal prosperity. Now religious toleration; trial by jury (that wisest of safeguards ever devised for the protection of innocence); security against arbitrary imprisonment, by the privileges attached to the writ of Habeas Corpus; legal and equal security afforded to all, in their person, honour, and property; the right to obey no other laws than those of our own making and choice, expressed through our representatives:—all these advantages have become our birthright, and shall, I

hope, be the lasting inheritance of our posterity. To secure them let us only act as British subjects and freemen."—*Life of Lord Sydenham.*

The struggle on the part of the representatives of the people for complete control over the local revenues, and a not unnatural desire on the part of the Canadians, that some of their representatives who possessed their confidence, should be placed in office, or in the Legislative Assembly, grew more urgent, when Sir John Caldwell, the receiver-general in 1823, "became an insolvent, and was found to be indebted to the public to the amount of £100,000." In 1824 the majority of the Assembly denied the right of the crown to appropriate any part of the revenues of the province without their consent; required a reduction of the public expenditure; and that publicity should be given to the revenue receipts and disbursements, which they had vainly claimed during Sir John Caldwell's receivership. Lord Dalhousie expressed strong displeasure at these proceedings; but during his temporary absence Sir Francis Burton, his *locum tenens*, yielded a great point to the Assembly, by sanctioning a supply bill, in which no distinction was made between the civil government and "popular" expenditure, the whole being considered an annual grant under the control of the Assembly. The custom duties collected on imports under an Act of the British parliament in 1774, now amounted to about £34,000 a year; and a smaller amount was raised from the sale of lands and timber, which it was alleged had been much "jobbed" by some of the members of the Legislative Council. The Assembly claimed the entire disposal of these sums, declaring, that as they were contributed by the people, the representatives of the people ought alone to be entrusted with their appropriation. To this Lord Dalhousie objected, and he was supported by Earl Bathurst, who censured the concession made by Sir Francis Burton. On the accession of Lord Goderich (now Earl of Ripon) to the station of Secretary of State for the Colonies in 1827, he directed a proposition to be made to the Assembly, offering the surrender of the disputed revenues, on condition of their granting a civil list in perpetuity of £30,000 per annum. The House of Assembly met to consider this proposition, and elected M. Papineau as its speaker, an appointment which the governor-general refused to confirm, on account of the position that

gentleman had previously manifested to the measures of Government. The Assembly persisted in their right to elect their own speaker, and Lord Dalhousie refused to call any session for the winter of 1827-28. As might naturally be expected discontent rose to a great height, and a petition was sent from Canada to the king, signed by 87,000 inhabitants, complaining of the conduct of successive governors, and urging the justice of compliance with the requirements of the Assembly. Mr. Huskisson, then Colonial Minister, moved that the petition should be referred to a select committee of the House of Commons, which was accordingly done—the committee strongly condemned the practice of appropriating large sums of the money levied from the Canadian people, without the concurrence of their Parliament—recommended, that the whole revenue of the colony should be placed at the disposal of the Assembly—that the governor, judges, and Executive Council should be independent of the annual votes of the Assembly—that persons having the confidence of the people, should be liberally viewed by the crown in its appointments to the Legislative and Executive Councils—and stated generally, that the complaints of the colonists were well-founded, and deserved redress. The report of the committee of the Imperial Parliament gave great satisfaction in the colony, and the Assembly ordered four hundred copies to be printed and distributed among their constituents.

Sir James Kempt was sent out in September, 1828, in the place of Lord Dalhousie; he treated the colonists with frankness and liberality, added new members to the Executive Council, and requested the judges to retire from the Legislative Council, which they refused to do, though they promised to take no part in its deliberations. In 1829 the Assembly cut off several thousand pounds from the estimates laid before them by the governor, and Sir George Murray, then Colonial Secretary, did not disallow the act. Sir James Kempt, to the great regret of the colonists, quitted Canada in 1830. He was succeeded by Lord Aylmer. The Act of Parliament which was necessary to sanction the proposed transfer of authority over the public purse was unfortunately delayed by the death of George IV. and other circumstances. Lord Goderich, who was again at the head of the Colonial Office, on the 24th December, 1830, announced through

the governor-general, his intention of bringing a bill into Parliament to secure to the Assembly the disposal of the colonial revenues, and requiring in return a fixed civil list of £19,100. His lordship, however, intimated that the timber, territorial, and other casual revenues, which had amounted to £11,231, were to remain at the disposal of the crown, and to be employed chiefly in the maintenance of the Established Church. The Assembly thereupon passed a resolution that, "under no circumstances, and upon no consideration whatever would they abandon or compromise their claim over the whole public revenue."

On the 8th March, 1831, the House presented a long list of grievances to the governor-general, which his lordship transmitted home, admitting that many of them were well-founded. The Imperial Parliament then passed an act giving the Colonial Assembly full power over the colonial revenues, but leaving the question of the civil list still unsettled. On the 20th January, 1832, the Assembly decreed that the judges should be independent of the crown, and should have permanent salaries assigned them, but that only the chief justice should hold a seat in the Executive Council. By a large majority, on the motion of Mr. Neilson, it was resolved that the salaries should be drawn in the first instance from the casual and territorial revenues. When the bill came home Lord Goderich, desirous of preserving to the crown the disposal of the casual and territorial revenues, refused the royal assent, which greatly exasperated matters in the colony; the Assembly declined to do more than pass *unacted* supply-bills for the governor and other branches of the executive, and confidently referred to the decision of the committee of the House of Commons, by which his majesty's ministers had promised to be guided. The popular party then commenced a direct attack on the Legislative Council—attached the names of individuals to the salaries voted, and appended the condition that several offices were not to be held by one individual—a not unreasonable demand, since there were instances of several distinct appointments being held by the same person. This measure was rejected in England. So far the Assembly had justice on their side; but, irritated by the opposition their wishes met with at home, they proceeded to demand the *abolition* of the Legislative Council, and the substitution of a Council elected from the body of

the people; the franchise to be £20 in the towns and £10 in the country; a stated income to be a necessary qualification for the Legislative Councilors, and their functions to last for six years. This proposition somewhat resembled that suggested by Mr. Fox in 1790.

Lord Stanley, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, announced, that he deemed such a measure inconsistent with monarchical institutions, and therefore could never advise his majesty to consent thereto. He also censured the Legislative Council for its intemperate language, and intimated "the possibility that events might unhappily force upon Parliament the exercise of its supreme authority, to compose the internal dissension of the colonies, which might lead to a modification of the charter of the Canadas." This was considered a threat by the Assembly, and in 1834 they resented it by refusing to pass any supply bill, and M. Dennis Viger was deputed to proceed to London, to lay before his majesty's government a detailed statement of the grievances of the colonists.

Mr. Spring Rice, now Lord Monteagle, having succeeded Lord Stanley as Colonial Minister, intimated his intention of renouncing the disputed revenues, according to the recommendation of the parliamentary committee; but asked for time to consider the whole subject. M. Papineau, and other leaders, therefore, deferred any strong measures, but complained that the administration was carried on as usual, and that £31,000 had been advanced from the military chest for the payment of the civil servants, whereby their responsibility to the Assembly was evaded. Lord Stanley justified this act on the ground that the civil servants would otherwise have been left without any salary, through no fault of their own, pending the decision of the crown. Lord Monteagle afterwards declared, that on the very day when, through the change of ministry, he quitted the Colonial Office, he had a measure to submit to the cabinet, involving the surrender of the revenue point at issue.

Sir Robert Peel on his accession to office in 1835, determined on sending a special commission to Canada, for the examination of existing grievances, and the adjustment of differences, and he offered to yield the casual and territorial revenues, on condition of a civil list being fixed for at least seven years. Before this arrangement was matured, Sir Robert Peel's administration

was succeeded by that of lord Melbourne, who, adhering in some measure to the same plan, sent out the Earl of Gosford, Sir Charles Edward Grey, and Sir George Gipps, as commissioners, Lord Gosford to be governor in the room of Lord Aylmer. Lord Glenelg, then colonial secretary, expressed his readiness to surrender the disposal of the entire revenue to the Assembly, on the settlement of an independent provision for the judges, and the salaries of the civil officers being fixed for ten years. The whole proceeds of the sale of unclaimed lands were to be placed at the disposal of the Assembly, but government could not consent to part with the management of them, abolish the Land Company, or agree to the formation of an Elective Legislative Council. The non-interference of the metropolitan power in the internal affairs of the colonies, was fully conceded in lord Glenelg's instructions to earl Gosford, in July, 1835; and in a despatch written in the same year to Sir F. Head, as lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, his lordship thus forcibly expresses himself: "*Parliamentary legislation on any subject of exclusively internal concern, in any British colony, possessing a Representative Assembly, is, as a general rule, unconstitutional. It is a right of which the exercise is reserved for extreme cases, in which necessity at once creates and justifies the exception.*" Respecting the Elective Council, Lord Glenelg stated to Earl Gosford and to Sir F. Head, "the king is most unwilling to admit as open to debate the question, whether one of the vital principles of the Provincial Government shall undergo alteration;" but his majesty would not absolutely close the avenue of the inquiry, even though "for the present he saw no reasonable ground of doubt."

Lord Glenelg by not more decidedly expressing his opinion on this important point, left great latitude to Lord Gosford, who though a good and amiable man, was quite unfit for the difficult and responsible position in which he was placed. He is stated to have coquetted with the leaders of the Assembly; invited them to his table; declared that "to be acceptable to the great body of the people, was one of the most essential elements of fitness for public station;" intimated his readiness to place the whole revenues at the disposal of the Assembly, on the conditions before mentioned; stated that all grievances were to be redressed; that the commissioners were not

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precluded from entering into an inquiry on still graver matters; and, in short, led the French party to believe, that the Elective Legislative Council would be ultimately conceded. The party in the Legislative Council opposed to the Assembly, threw out menaces of rebellion, but the Assembly intimated that they would grant the three years' arrears and a half year in advance. This amicable state of things was unfortunately of short continuance, being entirely changed when Sir F. Head, with more straightforward policy, made public in Upper Canada, where he was lieutenant-governor, the previously quoted passage from Lord Glenelg's instructions, respecting the Elective Legislative Council, which Lord Gosford had withheld. M. Papineau, and his supporters, declared themselves to have been wilfully misled; the Assembly refused to grant more than a half-year's supply, clogged with conditions. The Legislative Council, sure of support from home, threw out the supply bill, and every other sent up to them, including that for the annual appropriation of funds devoted to national education in Lower Canada.

Stimulated by popular addresses and ultra-democratic counsels, the Assembly passed the bounds of constitutional opposition; the language of the majority became violent in the extreme, fraught with denunciations of all British rule, and accompanied by treasonable appeals to the inhabitants. On the 6th March, 1837, Lord John Russell moved a series of resolutions, with the intention of bringing about a settlement, but the death of king William IV. intervened before Parliament had arrived at any decision; and as it was deemed inadvisable that the first measures of the government of our young queen should be in any degree coercive, the money for the payment of the colonial civil servants was advanced from the British exchequer, to be replaced out of the £112,000 locked up in the Canadian coffers.

In the mean time public meetings were held, and preparations were evidently making to intimidate the Government. Lord Gosford called the House of Assembly together on the 18th of August, 1837; but, unfortunately, the promised change in the Legislative and Executive Councils had not then been fulfilled; the division on government questions were in the proportions of 63 to 13, and an address of the most determined hostility was carried by 46 to 31. The leaders prepared for insurrection, and cited the example of the United States. County

meetings were convened, and the language used by the leaders being very violent, Lord Gosford dismissed 18 magistrates and 35 officers of militia. The malcontents issued a proclamation, declaring that the "wicked designs of British authorities have severed all ties of feeling for an unfeeling mother country," and that the struggle was for a democracy. Active training was going on in some districts, and the people elected their own magistrates and militia officers. The language of the press on both sides was almost equally ill-judged. A series of letters were published in the *Montreal Herald*, by Adam Thom, A.M., entitled "*Anti-Gallie*, addressed to His Excellency the Earl of Gosford, Governor-in-Chief of the Canadas.—By Camillus." These letters were "reprinted for gratuitous distribution in the Lower Provinces and in the United Kingdom." In them the whole French population of Canada are treated with sovereign contempt; and the language applied to them—that of "dastards, dupes, miserable wretches, tools, slaves, cowards, assassins, demagogues, traitors, and rebels," was circulated in every direction; the governor-general, the secretary of state for the colonies, and even the sovereign, are spoken of in terms well calculated to diminish the force of all authority; and to induce even the French to believe, that the sooner such a government was subverted, the better for both the English and French races.

At Montreal a riot took place between the "sons of liberty" and a "loyal association" formed in opposition to them; the former were defeated, and many of them wounded; the office of the *Vindicator* (a French newspaper) was destroyed, and the "loyalists" made a vigorous attempt to burn the house of M. Papineau, the democratic speaker of the House of Assembly. Exaggerated reports of these proceedings were spread through the distant counties, and caused much agitation. The Government issued warrants for the arrest of twenty-six persons, including M.M. Papineau and Viger, and five other members of the legislature. But only nine of the warrants were executed; M. Papineau and others concealed themselves, or fled the country. Instead of sending an efficient military force to aid the civil power in the execution of the warrants, a party of 18 mounted militia volunteers were sent into the centre of the most disturbed districts, St. John's-on-the-Richelieu, to effect the arrest of two ringleaders, which they

did; but on returning to Montreal, were interrupted near Loagueuil by 300 well armed men, who opened a fire from behind a high fence, and wounded several of the volunteer militia; the remainder fled, and the two prisoners were rescued.

The villages of St. Denis and St. Charles were said to be the head-quarters of the rebels. Lieutenant-colonel Gore in proceeding to St. Denis, was obliged to take a circuitous route, and arrived after a long march through a marshy and difficult country, where his men often found themselves knee-deep in mud. The rebels, who were posted in a large stone house at the entrance of the village, opened a fire on the British troops, who vainly attempted to batter down the house with round shot from a howitzer. Captain Markham was wounded while leading the advance, and colonel Gore finding his ammunition failing, and his men overpowered with fatigue, having lost six killed, ten wounded, and six missing, left his cannon in the road, and retreated to Montreal. These two ill-conducted proceedings gave an unfortunate prestige to the commencement of the insurrection. If the leaders had been immediately arrested, and a sufficient force sent into the disturbed districts, which might easily (by reason of their limited extent), have been accomplished, there would, probably have been no outbreak whatever. While colonel Gore was at St. Denis, colonel Wetherall proceeded to the attack of the village of St. Charles; but being delayed by the badness of the roads, procured another company of regulars from Chambly, and on the 26th proceeded to attack about 1,000 to 1,500 insurgents, protected by fortified houses and palisades. In an hour the troops were masters of the town, 300 of the insurgents were slain, the leaders fled to the United States, and colonel Gore, with a strong force, entered St. Denis unmolested. On the frontier of the United States 200 "sympathizers" passed into Canada, but were speedily driven back by captain Kemp and the volunteers of Missisqui county; and in a fortnight the whole of the six counties south of Montreal, which had been the chief seats of the rebellion, were restored to tranquillity. Sir J. Colborne then proceeded to two districts north of Montreal, called the "Two Mountains," and Terrebonne; and on the 14th of December marched with 1,300 regulars and volunteers against the village of St. Eustache, where about 400 of the insurgents, under a

leader named Girod, were strongly posted in a church and some neighbouring buildings. These buildings were fired, and the rebels driven out with great slaughter; the British losing only one man killed, and nine wounded. Girod committed suicide. Colonel Maitland marched to St. Benoit, a village in the Grand Bralé district, which was stated to be the focus of insurrection; but a deputation from the village met colonel Maitland, and tendered submission. Thus terminated the rebellion of Lower Canada in 1837. Many of the loyal and respectable inhabitants, French and English, on refusing to join the rebels, had been obliged to fly the country, and, in several instances, the mob plundered their houses. On the return of the "loyalists" with the British troops, they wreaked their vengeance on different villages, and many houses and much property belonging to innocent persons were destroyed.

Attention must now be directed to Upper or Western Canada. The "high tory and family compact party," had long ruled the colony, retained among themselves the seats in the Legislative Council, and preserved a dominant influence in the House of Assembly. Lord Sydenham remarked, that "members were everywhere chosen only with reference to the extent of jobbery for their particular district, which they could carry on. Whoever happens to lead a party in the House of twelve or fourteen members, may at once obtain a majority for his political views, by jobbing with other members for votes upon them, or by rejecting their jobs as the penalty of refusal out them from their seats. This, indeed, is admitted by the best men of all parties, and especially of the popular side." A reform party had been rising in Upper Canada, opposed to the exclusive privileges naturally preserved by the British loyalists from the United States, who had settled in the colony after the War of Independence, and to whom the crown had, in return for their loyalty, granted various favours. The reformers were chiefly settlers of a recent date, emigrants from the United Kingdom, who, knowing the value of two legislative chambers, sought, not as the Lower Canadians did, to have two chambers elected by the people, but that the Legislative Council should be, in some degree, rendered responsible to, and work in harmony with, the Legislative Assembly. In the Upper as in the Lower province, the neglect of making

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due and timely concessions to the public feeling, caused extreme irritation, and when those concessions were ultimately made, they were looked upon as granted from fear rather than from a sense of justice; instead of giving satisfaction, they begat new and unreasonable demands, and the people were easily led to believe by demagogues, or enthusiasts, that anything might be obtained by agitation.

The stoppage of the supplies by the Assembly of East Canada in 1833, the manner in which the proceeding was viewed at home, and the ascendancy of the reform radical party in 1834, led to the adoption of a similar measure in West Canada in 1836, and great exasperation was the result. A small party, headed by an unprincipled demagogue, named Mackenzie, avowed their desire of separating West Canada from Great Britain, and joining it to the United States.

In 1836 Sir Francis Head, then one of the poor-law commissioners in England, was selected by Lord Glenelg for the government of Upper Canada. Possessed of considerable intellectual power, much force of character, strong national feelings, and great command of language, Sir Francis threw himself on the people, appealed to their good sense, stated fully his instructions from the minister of the crown, appointed three popular members to the executive council, and promised practical and immediate redress of all real grievances. The people of West Canada almost unanimously responded to the appeal, and when he dissolved the Assembly in May, 1837, the majority of those returned were decidedly favourable to constitutional government. In order to manifest confidence in the people, Sir F. Head was desirous that every soldier of the troops of the line should be removed from the province, and when a requisition was made from the Lower province, to know how many soldiers he could spare, his answer was, "all." The lieutenant-governor seems, however, to have allowed his generous enthusiasm to carry him beyond the bounds of prudence, when he caused the public arms to be deposited in the town-hall of Toronto, under charge of the mayor, without any guard for their protection; and this encouraged Mackenzie to collect 500 or 600 desperadoes on the 4th December, 1837, for a night, or morning attack on Toronto, so as to surprise the city. The rebels assembled about four miles from Toronto, at a

tavern, and endeavoured to arrest all on their way to the city, to prevent their intended assault from being made known. A distinguished officer, colonel Moodie, while passing the tavern was wounded by the rebels, and died in a few days. They also attempted to seize alderman Powell, but after shooting one of the rebels he escaped to Toronto, gave the alarm, and awoke the lieutenant-governor, who, on arriving at the town-hall, found the chief justice with a musket on his shoulder, surrounded by several other brave men ready armed, to resist any attack. Mackenzie's numbers were, as usual, greatly magnified; some stated that 3000, others that 5000 were advancing, and accordingly Sir Francis Head, and the citizens, posted themselves in the Town-hall, awaiting the morning's dawn. Mackenzie, fearing that alderman Powell would alarm the city, did not advance. On the 5th of December, 300 loyalists were mustered; lieutenant-colonel Allan McNab arrived with 60 men from the Gore district; by evening there were 500 armed volunteers assembled, and the militia were summoned from all parts of the country. On the 6th the lieutenant-governor sent to the rebels, urging them to lay down their arms, and thus prevent the effusion of blood. Mackenzie said he would only do so on condition of a "National Convention" being called, to which he required the assent of the lieutenant-governor before two o'clock on the ensuing day. On the 7th, the lieutenant-governor and the armed volunteers of Toronto, headed by lieutenant-colonel A. McNab and Mr. Justice McLean, the speaker of the House of Assembly, and his predecessor, whose clerk officiated as adjutant-general, marched against the rebels, who had taken their stand on an elevated position near the tavern. They were soon routed, several were killed; Mackenzie was the first to seek safety in flight, and thus began and ended the rebellion in Upper Canada. In the meantime the loyalty of the inhabitants was proved by the alacrity with which the militia, to the number of 10,000, hastened towards Toronto, but their services happily were not required, and they returned in peace to their homes, excepting a detachment commanded by colonel McNab, which proceeded to the London district, where it was said a notorious leader, named Ducomb, had assembled some followers. On the approach of the loyalists, the rebels submitted, and 300 laid down their arms.

The exertions of colonel M'Nab, and other gentlemen in Canada, and of the militia throughout the province, deserve high commendation. The queen expressed her majesty's royal approval of the timely exertions and gallant conduct of colonel M'Nab, by conferring on him the honour of knighthood.

Both Western and Eastern Canada were kept for some time in a state of excitement by the intrigues of a body of "Sympathizers," from the United States, some perhaps actuated by mistaken enthusiasm, but the greater number stimulated by the hope of plunder, and the promise of large tracts of land from Mackenzie, who assumed to himself the title of "Head of the Provisional Government of Canada," and joined the rebel standard at Navy Island, situated in the Niagara Channel. The rebels obtained 13 pieces of cannon, arms, and men to the number of 1,000, which were supplied from the United States, and conveyed to the island by an American steamer called the *Caroline*. Colonel M'Nab arrived with several thousand militia on the shore opposite Navy Island, but was unable to cross for want of boats. The United States Government sent general Scott to the frontier, and issued proclamations with a view to check this unexcusable invasion of the territory of a friendly power. Colonel M'Nab very properly instructed an officer of the Royal Navy, named Drew, to intercept the *Caroline* on her passage between Navy Island and the American shore while conveying recruits and stores to Mackenzie. Drew was unable to accomplish this, but he resolved to prevent the *Caroline* from being any longer made the instrument of annoyance to the flag of his country; during the night, with a small band of determined men, he attacked the steamer while moored to the American shore; carried her by boarding; killed or made prisoners all who resisted; and placed the remainder safely on shore. Drew then towed the obnoxious vessel into the middle of the stream, set her on fire, and sent her a blazing wreck over the Falls of Niagara, a fitting retribution for the unwarrantable proceedings in which the vessel had been engaged. The State of New York made a great disturbance in the matter; seized a man named M'Leod, who falsely and foolishly boasted, in an American tavern, that he had been present at the burning of the *Caroline*. The mob refused to allow him to be bailed at Lockport; he was tried for his life, and but for the fear of war with England would have been found

guilty and hanged. Mackenzie was driven from Navy Island by the militia, aided by some regular troops and artillery; and the energetic remonstrances of the English government at length induced the United States' authorities to arrest Mackenzie and Van Ranselaer; but another rebel, named Sutherland, took refuge on the island of Bois Blanc, from whence he was soon driven into the United States; and a vessel containing supplies, and rebels dignified by military titles, was captured. While these events were occurring, her majesty's government determined on the suspension of the constitution of East Canada until time could be obtained to decide on the future form of government for the province, and a council was named by the Queen to exercise the legislative functions until 1840, whose enactments were to last only until the 1st November, 1842. The Earl of Durham, then recognized in England as the head of the Reform party in the House of Peers, who possessed high reputation as a statesman, was known to have directed much of his attention to colonial subjects, whose manners were popular, who had a strong love of justice, and ardent patriotic feelings, was induced, at the urgent request of her majesty's government, to proceed to Canada, for the settlement of its troubled affairs.

Lord Durham was descended from the Lambton family, which existed in the county Durham at the time of the Conquest; but several ancestral records having been destroyed in the civil wars, the regular pedigree of the family can only be traced from the twelfth century. The heads of the house of Lambton for many years represented Durham in Parliament, and some of the younger branches served with distinction in the army. William Henry Lambton, born in 1764, was a staunch Whig, and distinguished himself in and out of parliament as the supporter of reform. In 1792 he was chairman of the "Society of Friends of the People associated for the purpose of obtaining Parliamentary Reform;" and when his own views and that of the society he represented were mis-stated, he defended himself in the words which have been so frequently quoted by his party, "From a state of confusion I have everything to lose and nothing to gain, and I must hope that neither my head is so weak, nor my heart so wicked, as to seek the misery of others at so great a personal risk. All I wish is to see this happy constitution reformed upon its own principles, *that every reparation may*

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be made in the style of the original building." Mr. Lambton uniformly opposed British interference in the affairs of France; had his advice, and that of other great men, been attended to, England would not now be suffering under a debt of £800,000,000. He opposed the nefarious slave trade, and all measures of a cruel or oppressive nature; and, unhappily for his country, died at Pisa, 30th November, 1797, of consumption, at the age of 37. The same principles evidently actuated the conduct of his son, John George, afterwards created Earl of Durham, who was born 12th April, 1792, educated at Eton, and elected, when of age, as the representative of the county Durham. He followed in the steps of his father, and in 1821 introduced to the House of Commons a plan of Parliamentary Reform, somewhat similar to the measure adopted in 1831-2. In 1828 Mr. Lambton was created Baron Durham; on the accession of his father-in-law, the late Earl Grey, to the station of prime minister in 1830, Lord Durham became cabinet minister, with the office of Lord Privy Seal. In 1833 he was created an Earl; in 1835 sent on a special mission to Russia, whence he returned in 1837; and in 1838, with the approval of all parties, was deputed by his sovereign to represent her majesty in Canada.

His lordship arrived at Quebec 29th May, 1838, as governor-general of all the provinces of British North America, and high commissioner for "the adjustment of certain important questions depending in the provinces of East and West Canada, respecting the form and future government of the said province." The reception given to the new governor-general and high commissioner was most cordial; he visited all the principal stations as far as Niagara, and instituted full enquiries into every subject connected with the Canadas. The result was the justly famous "Report," dated "London, 31st January, 1839," which received the approbation of the queen for the "attention devoted to this important subject, and for the full and comprehensive view taken of the various interests comprised in it." The report fills 246 large 8vo pages, and, in relation to colonies, is one of the most important state documents ever issued. Many parts of it are said to be the work of the late lamented Charles Buller, who, with several other able men, accompanied Lord Durham to Canada, and assisted in diverting the minds of the people from theoretical

changes in the constitution to practical reforms, by which the union of the provinces was ultimately facilitated.

Three kinds of union were proposed by several parties in British America:—

First. A federal union of all the provinces, each retaining its existing separate legislature and most of its powers of internal legislation,—the federal power to be exercised only in matters of general concern, as expressly ceded by each of the constituent Colonies, such as custom duties, distribution of general revenues, postal arrangements, prices of land, monies, weights, measures, local laws, railroads, &c.

Second. A legislative union, or complete incorporation, of all the British provinces in North America under one legislature, exercising authority over all, as the Parliament of the United Kingdom does over England, Scotland, and Ireland; such united legislature to be, of course, subject in imperial matters to the British crown and Parliament.

Third. A union of Upper and Lower Canada alone, which would, to a great extent, amalgamate the French of the Lower or Eastern province with the Anglo-Saxon race in the Upper or Western province; would enable both to co-operate for all common purposes; give Upper Canada a communication with the sea; share the cost of her public works with the Lower province; supply the means of conducting the colonial government on an economical and efficient scale; increase the responsibility of the Executive; and give the deliberations of the united provincial legislature more weight than before with the imperial government.

Lord Durham, after carefully weighing the arguments in favour of each proposition, adopted a modification of the second and third; and urged that no time should be lost in proposing to Parliament a bill for repealing the act 31 Geo. III., restoring the union of the Canadas as one province, and under one legislature; and that the bill should contain provisions by which any or all the other colonies in North America might on application, with the consent of Canada, and on such terms as might be agreed on, join the united legislature. Lord Durham believed; that the establishment of a comprehensive system of government, and of an effectual union between all the different provinces in British North America, would produce an important effect on the general feelings of their inhabitants, by giving them some nationality of their own, and by ele-

vating these small communities into a society, which they would be unwilling to see absorbed even into one more powerful, such as the adjacent United States.

In support of the proposition of a legislative union of all the colonies, the Earl of Durham laid before the queen the following remarkable letter from the Duke of Kent, dated Kensington Palace, 30th Nov., 1814, which his lordship prefaced with the following remarks:—it may be added, that had the views entertained and urged by his royal highness on his majesty's government in 1814 been adopted, British North America would in all human probability be far more advanced in social prosperity than it now is; the French colonists would have been silently amalgamated with those of British descent; two rebellions, and the consequent expenditure of blood and treasure prevented; and the foundations of internal peace and good government ere this consolidated:—

"The views on which I found my support of a comprehensive union have long been entertained by many persons in these Colonies, whose opinion is entitled to the highest consideration. I cannot, however, refrain from mentioning the sanction of such views by one whose authority Your Majesty will, I may venture to say, receive with the utmost respect. Mr. Sewell, the late Chief Justice of Quebec, laid before me, autograph letter addressed to himself by Your Majesty's illustrious and lamented father, in which his Royal Highness was pleased to express his approbation of a similar plan then proposed by that gentleman. *No one better understood the interests and character of these Colonies than his Royal Highness; and it is with peculiar satisfaction, therefore, that I submit to Your Majesty's perusal the important document which contains his Royal Highness's opinion in favour of such a scheme:—*

Kensington Palace, 30 Nov. 1814.

"MY DEAR SEWELL,

"I have this day had the pleasure of receiving your note of yesterday, with its interesting enclosure: nothing can be better arranged than the whole thing is, or more perfectly I cannot wish; and, when I see an opening, it is fully my intention to hint the matter to Lord Bathurst, and put the paper in to his hands, without, however, telling him from whom I have it, though I shall urge him to have some conversation with you relative to it. Permit me, however, just to ask you whether it was not an oversight in you to state that there are *five* Houses of Assembly in the British Colonies in North America? for if I am not under an error, there are *six*, viz. Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, the islands of Prince Edward and Cape Breton. Allow me also to beg of you to put down the proportions in which you think the thirty members of the Representative Assembly ought to be furnished by each province; and, finally, to suggest whether you would not think two Lieutenant-Governors, with two Executive Councils, sufficient for the Executive Government of the whole, viz. one for the two Canadas, and one for Nova

Scotia and New Brunswick, comprehending the small dependencies of Cape Breton and Prince Edward's Island, the former to reside at Montreal, and the latter at whichever of the two situations may be considered most central for the two provinces, whether Annapolis Royal or Windsor. But, at all events, should you ever consider four Executive Governments, and four Executive Councils requisite, I presume there cannot be a question of the expediency of comprehending the two small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence with Nova Scotia.

"Believe me ever to remain, with the most friendly regard,

"My dear Sewell, yours faithfully,
(Signed) 'EDWARD.'"

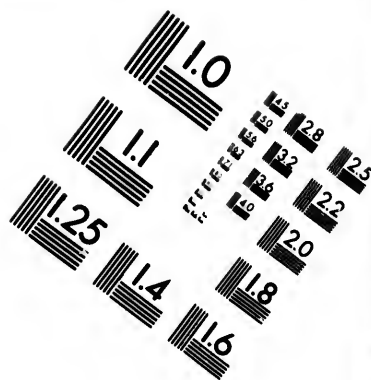
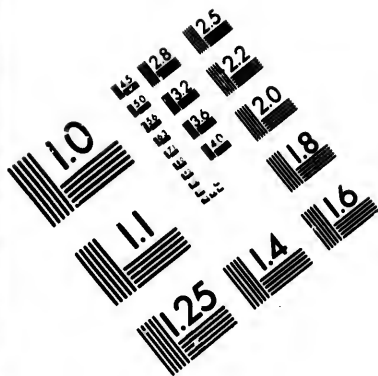
Lord Durham recommended that a general executive on an improved principle should be established, together with a supreme court of appeal for all the North American colonies; that the Legislative Council be revised by Parliament, so as to secure not only its effective working, but its acting as a useful check on the popular branch of the legislature, and thus prevent a repetition of those collisions which had already caused such dangerous excitement. Whether the governor-general's ideas were favourable to an Elective Legislative Council, does not appear; but it is evident that he was adverse to their existing constitution. The principle of a responsible executive was strongly enforced by his lordship, who contended that all the principal officers of the government, except the representative of the crown and his secretary, should be responsible to the united legislature; that the governor should be instructed he must carry on his government by heads of departments, in whom the legislature reposed confidence, and that "*he must look for no support from home in any contest with the legislature, except on points involving strictly imperial interests.*"

The governor-general rightly advocated the establishment of the independence of the judges, by giving them the same tenure of office and security of income as that enjoyed in England; advised that *all the revenues of the crown*, except those derived from the sale of crown lands (which he wished confided to imperial authority for the promotion of emigration), should at once be given up to the united legislature, on the concession of an adequate civil list, and that no money votes should be allowed to originate without the previous consent of the crown; the governor-general also suggested that the Act of Union should repeal past provisions with respect to the clergy reserves, and define the application of the funds arising

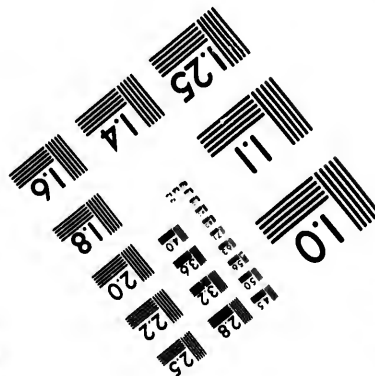
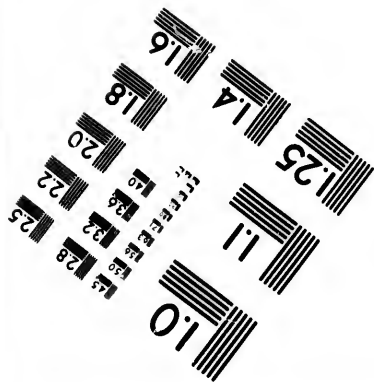
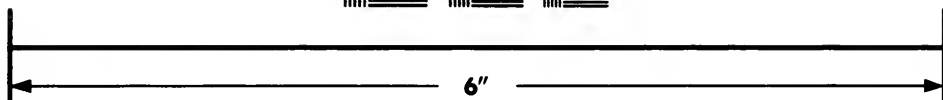
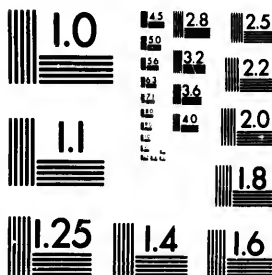
therefrom. The necessity of local government by elective bodies was not overlooked by him, and the advantages of a large and beneficent system of emigration for the relief of the mother country, as well as for the benefit of the colonies, was powerfully urged: Lord Durham said, "I see no reason for doubting that by good government, and the adoption of a sound system of colonization, the British possessions in North America may be made the means of conferring on the suffering classes of the mother country many of the blessings which have hitherto been supposed to be peculiar to the social state of the new world." The establishment of a steam-packet communication between Halifax and England was strongly advocated by the governor-general, and also the formation of a railroad from Halifax to Quebec. To the assertions made that it was probable a colonial legislature thus strong and self-governing would desire to abandon the connection with Great Britain, the noble earl replied, that, on the contrary, he believed that the cessation on our part from undue interference, would strengthen the present bond of feelings and interests, and that the connection would only become more durable and advantageous, by having more of equality, of freedom, and of local independence. He looked to the increased power and weight that would be given to the Canadas by union, as the *only* means of fostering such a national feeling throughout them, as would effectually counterbalance whatever tendencies may now exist towards separation; and as a true lover of freedom, he nobly added—"But, at any rate, our first duty is to secure the well-being of our colonial countrymen; and if in the hidden decrees of that wisdom by which the world is ruled, it is written that these countries are not for ever to remain portions of the empire, we owe it to our honour to take good care that when they separate from us, they should not be the only countries on the American continent in which the Anglo-Saxon race shall be found unfit to govern itself." While engaged in the fulfilment of his highly important mission, the governor-general, with a view to bring about an amnesty and restore internal peace, offered to several of the leaders in the late rebellion, charged with high treason, that if they made a confession of guilt, voluntarily departed themselves to Bermuda, remained there under strict surveillance, and agreed not to return to Canada, they should not be put on their trial, for which

indeed it would have been difficult to obtain an impartial jury. The prisoners, including Wolfred Nelson, Bouchette, Gauvin, Viger, and others, then lying in the jail of Montreal, accepted these conditions, and signed a paper, promising to abide by them. Papineau, Côte, Gagnon, and several others implicated in the late rebellion, had left the country. The conduct of Lord Durham in this matter created much excitement in the House of Lords, and was used as a weapon of party politics by the opponents of the existing administration. Lord Durham, viewing the subject as a lawyer, introduced a bill into the House of Lords, which annulled the ordinance passed by Lord Durham and his Council, viz., 2 Vic. c. 1, entitled, an "ordinance to provide for the security of the province of Canada" illegal, because it adjudged men worthy of death without a trial, and sentenced them to transportation to a colony beyond the jurisdiction of the governor-general. Lord Melbourne, then prime minister, opposed the passing of this bill, but her majesty's government was defeated by a majority in the House of Lords. The ordinance was annulled, and an Act of Indemnity for Lord Durham and his Council was passed. Her majesty's government, in transmitting the announcement of these proceedings to the governor-general, accompanied it by strong expressions of general approbation and unaltered confidence in the administration of his lordship. Lord Durham, who had previously received despatches, formally conveying to him assurances of the satisfaction which *all* his measures, *including the ordinance and proclamation relating to the political prisoners, had given to her majesty's government*, complained bitterly of these proceedings; asserted the legality of the ordinance; and declared with a degree of asperity which the circumstances of the case excuse, though they may not be deemed a sufficient justification:—that the ordinance of the special Council for sending the prisoners to Bermuda, and the proclamation of amnesty issued on the day of the coronation of her majesty, were parts of the same measure, and were divided solely for the purpose of imposing on the governor-general and his Council all that required legislation and was of a penal nature, and of making all that partook of mercy and kindness the act of the queen; that consequently the disallowance of the ordinance had rendered null all the *repressive* portion of his policy, and that the uni-





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versal proclamation of amnesty, limited by no exceptions save those now invalidated, placed the leaders of the rebellion precisely in the same position which they occupied before their unsuccessful attempt. Under these adverse and discouraging circumstances, the governor-general did not consider that he could usefully remain longer in Canada,—he felt that his authority was weakened—that both the act of indemnity and the annulling of the ordinance were rebukes which would damage his future administration, and he deemed it due to his character to return to England at once, especially as lieutenant-general Sir John Colborne, his predecessor, was still in the province as commander of the forces, and no injury whatever could accrue to the public service by the resignation of the governor-general and his departure for England. The noble earl never recovered the shock which he sustained by these proceedings in Canada, and he died in England, 28th July, 1840.

I may perhaps be excused for inserting here the following remarks, written at the period of his death, when examining the public proceedings of one of the best friends of the colonies, and most earnest promoters of colonization, which this century has produced—to whose liberality England mainly owes our present possession of New Zealand:—

“By birth and inclination Lord Durham was one of the earliest advocates of political and popular reform, and to his credit be it said, he was ever foremost to aid the cause of the oppressed. At a period when few men stood forward to oppose the encroachments of ministerial power, Lord Durham was always the staunch opponent of oppression, whether individual or national. Endowed with a generous disposition, he was prompt to relieve distress, and unhesitatingly spent his wealth on objects which he thought conducive to the good of his country. There was no niggard or parsimonious spirit in his proceedings, whenever it could be proved that money or energy could advance the cause he took in hand; and an unsullied integrity, and a lofty patriotism, were among the distinguishing characteristics of this lamented nobleman.”

The departure of Lord Durham, the knowledge of his first act having been disallowed at home, and probably an artful misrepresentation to the Canadian people, of the reasons which led to his retirement, induced the malcontents to endeavour to effect a

general rising in the counties of Montreal on the 3rd of November; but the attempt failed; except at Napierville, where about 4000 were collected under three rebel leaders, named Dr. Robert Nelson, Côte, and Gagnon, who detached 400 men to the frontier, to open a communication with the “sympathisers” in the United States. A body of British volunteers near the frontier, attacked and defeated the rebels; Dr. Nelson marched with 900 men to aid his colleagues, but the British volunteers posted at Odell Town chapel, to the number of 200, checked his advance, and after an action of two hours and a half, the rebels retreated with the loss of 100 men in killed and wounded; the loyalists had 1 officer and 5 men killed, and 9 wounded.

Major-general Sir James M'Donnell, with seven regiments of the line, marched on Napierville; the enemy dispersed without firing a shot; but subsequently made a stand at Beauharnois, from which they were driven by a detachment composed of 1000 men of the regular troops and Glengarry fencibles, with the loss of two killed and two wounded. Within one week (on the 11th of November) major-general M'Donnell announced the restoration of tranquillity in the Lower province. In the Upper province Sir Francis Head resigned the office of lieutenant-governor, in consequence of Lord Glenelg's disapprobation of his removal of Judge Ri doubt from the bench, on account of the expression of democratic principles, and of his declining to raise to the bench Mr. Bidwell, late speaker of the House of Assembly, and a leader of the opposition. The retirement of Sir F. Head was much regretted in Canada: he was succeeded by Sir George Arthur, who had acquired considerable experience as chief superintendent in Honduras, and as governor of Van Diemen's Island, and whose steady and consistent conduct, excellent business habits, and conciliatory manners, had acquired for him in each position, the esteem of the people, and the approbation of the home authorities.

In the beginning of June more than 1000 American plunderers and bandits crossed into Upper Canada, attacked a party of 14 lancers, and compelled their surrender, setting on fire an inn which sheltered them; the whole country rose, and on the advance of the British the invaders recrossed the frontier. At the end of June another band passed the St. Clair and

entered the Western district, but finding the people opposed, and the militia advancing, they fled. In November, when the insurrection occurred in the Lower province, 400 of the American brigands landed at Prescott, and were dispersed by colonel Young and captain Sandom, R.N., but some took refuge in a windmill, a strong stone house with walls three feet thick. Eighteen of the British were killed and wounded in attempting to carry the place, and it was not until cannon and additional troops arrived that the enemy, to the number of 159, surrendered at discretion. On the 4th of December between 300 and 400 of these marauders, having been organized at Detroit, crossed over into Canada near the town of Sandwich, burnt a steamer, and murdered several of the British subjects in cold blood. A party of militia arrived, and they retreated with the loss of 26 killed and 25 prisoners.

It now became evident that the government of the United States was totally unable to prevent its citizens making these cruel and cowardly attacks on the subjects of a state with whom it professed to be at peace; the Americans taken prisoners had heretofore been treated with mistaken lenity; but Sir George Arthur, in accordance with the wishes of the province, treated the marauders as a shepherd would treat wolves. Several of the Americans were tried by court-martial and hanged, and others were transported to Australia or imprisoned. The American government left them to their fate.

Thus ended a state of disturbance in Canada, which excited much anxiety in England, where all the proceedings were greatly magnified, and which has thrown back the province a full quarter of a century by the alarm created, and the consequent driving of capital and industry from the country. It should, however, be remembered, that the rebellion in East Canada was the work of a few individuals, and, probably, was not supported by ten thousand persons out of a population of half a million. The Roman Catholic bishop of Montreal issued and published an address to his flock, which had a powerful effect in preventing the spread of rebellion. Lieutenant-general Sir John Colborne, the commander-in-chief, thus describes the conduct of the Catholic clergy during this important period, in a despatch to the secretary of state, dated 8th June, 1839,—"There are few instances in the parishes which have been agitated in which

a want of loyalty has been shown by the priests; indeed, it cannot be denied that they have, with two or three exceptions, acted with great firmness, and have exerted their influence in favour of the government. The field officers of the militia, with few exceptions, are also loyal subjects, and, indeed, many of the officers of militia."

The leaders of the insurrection, in both Eastern and Western Canada, partook more of the character and doctrines of the "Red Republicans" and "Socialists," for which France has been unhappily distinguished in 1849, than those of men struggling for constitutional freedom. An association termed the "Sons of Liberty," paraded the streets of Montreal in a threatening manner, inciting the young and ignorant to join them; declaring that "a glorious destiny awaits the young men of these colonies; to disfranchise our beloved country from all human authority, except that of the bold democracy within its bosom." The ignorant country people had, for several years, been drugged with such doctrines; and hopes had been held out by some of the leaders, of the abolition of the feudal system.

It will be necessary to dwell at some length on the subsequent events in the history of Canada, and on the policy then pursued under the guidance of Lord John Russell as her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies; because it involves the working of the principle of "responsible government," then, for the first time, effectually carried out in the administration of that colony, and which is now in the course of application to other dependencies of the British empire. The imperial government, on mature deliberation, adopted the recommendation contained in Lord Durham's report for a reunion of West and East Canada into one province, and in 1839 a bill was introduced into the House of Commons for the accomplishment of this object.

Mr. Pitt's views in dividing the provinces in 1791 had evidently failed; or the increase of a British population in Western Canada, and the state of affairs in Eastern Canada rendered it no longer advantageous, or even possible, to maintain the disunion. There was also a strong reason for the union, with regard to West Canada;—its annual revenue was largely pledged for the payment of public debts incurred for the improvement of the province by the construction of canals and other public works. Canals had been undertaken for the conveyance of produce,

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which maintained a great extent of water communication uninterrupted; the *Welland* canal obviated the interruption caused by the falls of Niagara, and the *Cornwall* canal avoided the rapids in the river St. Lawrence, between Kingston in Western Canada and Montreal in Lower or Eastern Canada. To carry out its public works the colonial debt had, from year to year been increased; and in 1839 the charge for the annual interest of debt was £65,000; while the whole yearly revenue of Western Canada was only £78,000, which could not be increased by Customs duties, as the seaport of Quebec was in the East province. Western Canada was therefore on the eve of bankruptcy. On this and other points it was found that her majesty's government required full information, which could only be obtained on the spot from a man of unprejudiced views, practically acquainted with commerce and finance; and possessed of the confidence of her majesty's ministers. Their choice devolved on Mr. Charles Poulett Thomson, then President of the Board of Trade, who was offered either the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, or the government of Canada. Mr. Thomson decided on the latter, partly on account of his health, which he deemed unequal to the onerous duties of the former, and partly because he considered Canada the finest field of exertion, and likely to afford him great power of doing good to his fellow-creatures. The antecedents of Mr. Thomson's life had well fitted him for the high office he undertook to fill. Descended from one of the oldest and most respected merchants in the city of London, whose firm (Thomson, Bonar, and Co.) had for several generations been engaged in the Russian trade, Mr. Thomson had been early initiated into the habits of commercial life. At 16 years of age, his father, Mr. John Poulett Thomson, sent him to St. Petersburg, to commence business at the branch house there, then under the management of an elder brother, Mr. Andrew Thomson. In 1817, after two years' residence in the Russian capital, Mr. C. P. Thomson's health, at all times very delicate, obliged his return to England, and his wintering in Italy.

From 1817 to 1821 his time was passed partly at the counting-house in London, and partly in travelling on the continent: and from 1821 to 1824 in the counting-house at St. Petersburg, and in visiting Russia, Germany, &c. On the death of his father in May, 1824, Mr. C. P. Thomson returned to

England, joined the London firm as a partner, and entered into the active life of a London merchant. He became a director of several public companies, and was actively instrumental as such in the Provincial Bank of Ireland (founded in 1824 by Mr. Medley), where he acquired valuable information connected with banking and financial details. A great truth once sent forth on the wings of public opinion is sure sooner or later to operate for good, and the efforts of Mr. Thomson on the important subject of our revenue and fiscal system led the way and suggested the mode of remodelling entirely the prohibitive and protective system on which our commercial as well as financial code was then constructed.

On the death of Mr. Huskisson in 1830, Mr. Thomson was chosen by his party (the Whigs) to carry out the views of that great statesman; and for this high task he was well fitted, by previous study and practical experience—by great moral courage—remarkable industry—and a deep sense of responsibility. The retirement of the administration of the Duke of Wellington in 1830, and the formation of a cabinet by Earl Grey, led to Mr. Thomson's appointment as Vice-President of the Board of Trade and Treasurer of the Navy, and at the end of the same year Mr. Thomson finally withdrew from the commercial firm of Thomson, Bonar, and Co. It is not requisite to enter here into an examination of his career as Vice, and subsequently as President of the Board of Trade; suffice it to say, that in conjunction with the lamented Lord Althorp, then chancellor of the exchequer, he carried out various useful acts.

In 1826, Mr. Thomson was returned to parliament as member for Dover, and judiciously remained silent for nearly two sessions, watching the progress of events. In 1828, he made a few pithy speeches, rightly judging, as he expressed it in a letter to his brother George, of 28th February, 1828, that "a man who tells the House facts with which the majority are unacquainted, is sure to be listened to." His speeches on the shipping interest, 7th May, 1827; on the usury laws, 20th May; on Scotch and Irish banking, 18th June; on reducing the duty on Indian silk goods to a minimum duty of 30 per cent., 16th July, 1828; and on the silk trade, 14th April, 1829, all told upon the house, and gained for Mr. Thomson that which is seldom acquired—a parliamentary commercial reputation. On the 25th March,

1830, Mr. Thomson delivered a remarkable speech on the general taxation of the empire, a speech replete with facts, then most difficult of attainment, and enunciating sound views of financial economy. Looking at our present comparatively simple fiscal system, it is difficult to conceive anything more absurd, more onerous, more injurious to trade or industry, than the revenue system of Great Britain in 1830; and much credit is due to Mr. Thomson for his exposure of many errors in the policy then pursued.*

In 1830, Mr. Thomson's health became much impaired by constant labour and mental anxiety acting on a naturally feeble constitution; added to which, his position as member for Manchester from 1832, must have increased considerably the duties of his public life. By patient toil and judicious conduct, without aristocratic connections, he had worked out for himself the high position of a cabinet minister, and on the elevation of Mr. Spring Rice to the peerage, the great object of his ambition, namely, the position of Chancellor of the Exchequer, was offered for his acceptance; fortunately for our colonies, he preferred the appointment of "Governor-General of British North America, and Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief in and over the Provinces of Lower Canada and Upper Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the island of Prince Edward, and Vice-Admiral of the same."

On 30th August, 1839, and on his fortieth birth-day, Mr. Thomson sailed in the *Pique* frigate from England, arrived at Quebec, received public addresses, and on 22nd October proceeded to Montreal. Great excitement and discontent prevailed in both provinces. The British and French Canadians in East Canada, who had taken no part in the recent rebellion, were naturally anxious for the restoration of constitutional government, the misled French Canadians who had been induced to join in the insane attempt at rebellion, were kept in constant agitation by their leaders; and in the Western province, which the new governor-general visited in November, he found the people in the state thus described by the lieutenant-governor, Sir George Arthur, in his despatch, dated the 22nd September, 1839. "All the wicked heads on both sides are constantly at work plotting mischief; and many

* See the "Taxation of the British Empire," by R. M. Martin.

inconsiderate persons by the course they are now pursuing at the 'responsible government' meetings, promote the designs of the most criminal characters. The foundations of civil order were broken up by the occurrences of the year 1837, and general mistrust and bad feeling open out a way for the display of the worst passions of the worst men, of which they seem keenly disposed to avail themselves."

The position of the government was therefore very critical; the "family compact men" viewed Mr. Thomson with suspicion, and there was no settled party on whom he could rely for aid in his administration. His strong powers of perception speedily enabled the governor-general to appreciate the true state of the Canadas, both as regarded their internal government, and their position with respect to the United States. He concurred with Lord Durham in considering that the salvation of the provinces as dependencies of the British crown, and their future peace and prosperity, depended on their being reunited on the broad basis of justice to all. He also adopted Lord Durham's view of the necessity of making the Executive Council harmonise with the House of Assembly, by rendering the higher officers of the executive government dependant as in England on the majority in the House of Representatives, thus giving the people not only a general control over their own affairs, but affording them the means of declaring in whom they placed confidence for their administration. The course adopted by the governor-general was in unison with his manly character; he convened the Special Council of the Eastern province, which had been appointed by his predecessor on the suspension of the constitution; abstained from adding a single name to the council, in order to avoid imputations, and to give due weight to its decisions in England, and laid before them certain resolutions as the basis of union; namely, that a civil list should be granted by the crown that the debt of Western Canada, should be borne by the united province; and that the details of the Union Bill should be settled by the imperial legislature. These resolutions were adopted by a majority of 12 to 3, after several days' discussion, in October, 1839, and the governor-general then proceeded to Toronto, in the Western province, and on the 3rd December, 1839, convened the Parliament which had been elected in 1836, under the administration of Sir F. B.

Head. Previous to meeting his parliament, the governor-general deemed it expedient to promulgate the celebrated despatch of Lord John Russell, dated the 10th October, 1839, which declared that the tenure of certain high ministerial offices, such as colonial-secretary, treasurer, sergeant-general, attorney and solicitor-general, sheriff, or provost-marshal, and also the position of members of Council, should no longer be considered as a tenure for life, or during good behaviour, but that, "not only such officers will be called upon to retire from the public service, as often as any sufficient motives of public policy may suggest the expediency of that measure, but that a change in the person of the governor, will be considered as a sufficient reason for any alterations which his successor may deem it expedient to make in the list of public functionaries, subject of course to the future confirmation of the sovereign."

The adoption of this policy had become absolutely essential in both provinces, for the chief offices of the government and the seats in the Legislative Council were looked upon almost as hereditary rights, and such members of the executive government as were members of the Provincial Parliament, spoke and acted in their individual capacity without the slightest reference to the views or wishes of the governor, who was not unfrequently denounced for having friends in the gallery of the Houses of Parliament to acquaint him with the proceedings, and inform him of the speeches of the members. Such a state of things, it was evident, could not be tolerated, and rendered the authority of the governor a nullity, as the Assembly was split into half a dozen different parties, and he frequently had not one man to depend on as the representative of his policy. Several of the executive members had previously been opposed to the union; but on Mr. Thompson's promulgating the above-mentioned despatch of her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, Lord John Russell, they agreed to support the union, and retain office. The conditions proposed to the parliament of Upper Canada were (1) equality of representation for each province; (2) the grant of a civil list to be settled by the Imperial Parliament; and (3) equal division of the public debt. These were carried in the Legislative Council by a majority of 14 to 8, and of the minority all but two were inhabitants of Toronto, who were adverse to the union, because it would

deprive their city of being the seat of local government.

The House of Assembly did not so readily agree to the terms: they required that West Canada should be the seat of government; that the franchise should be restricted to those holding their lands in free and common soccage (which would have disfranchised nearly the whole of the French Canadians who held their lands under feudal tenures); that West Canada should return 62 members, as at present, with a right of adding new members as population increased, but that East Canada should return no more than 50 members; and that the English language should alone be spoken and used in the legislature, in courts of justice, and in all public proceedings. The object was the annihilation of the French Canadian party by an arbitrary enactment; and as very few of the French Canadians understood English, the exclusion of their language from public proceedings would have been a great injustice. To these propositions the governor-general was decidedly opposed; his desire was to conciliate all parties, and he well knew that this most difficult object could only be attained by a firm adherence to the most strict principles of justice.

After many debates and adjournments the governor-general had the satisfaction of seeing his resolutions carried, with a slight alteration, by an almost unanimous vote; and on the 22nd of January, 1840, he transmitted to her majesty's government a draft bill for the act of union. While the measure was being discussed in the Imperial Parliament, the governor-general proceeded to redress several grievances, and settle some disputes of long standing. Among the most prominent was that concerning the land reserved for the clergy of the established church, which had been contested by the Scotch church, the Dissenters, and the Roman Catholics for 25 years, and it was desirable to bring the question to an issue before the union took place. The governor-general was opposed to the proposition generally entertained of converting the clergy reserved lands into a fund for general education, as religion would thus be deprived of the only existing means for the support of its ministers and the promulgation of its doctrines; he, therefore, brought forward and obtained the assent of his Parliament in the Assembly by a majority of 30 to 20, and in the Council of 14 to 5,

to a bill which distributed the clergy reserves among the religious communities recognised by law, in proportion to their respective numbers; and this bill was passed by the Imperial Legislature, in whom alone resided the power of making this distribution valid. The governor-general now proceeded to East Canada, summoned the Special Council, and by infusing his spirit into that body induced it to pass, in a few weeks, several useful laws. Among the measures proposed to be established by the ordinances of the Special Council, were the incorporation of the cities of Quebec and Montreal (the former corporations having been allowed to expire during the dissensions of 1836); the incorporation of the seminary of St. Sulpice in order to provide for the gradual extinction of the seignorial dues in the city and island of Montreal, which had been granted in 1663 for the conversion of the Indians, and the ecclesiastical superintendence of the island of Montreal.

The establishment of municipal institutions and of land registration offices for readily ascertaining mortgages, were urgently pressed by the governor-general as measures of vital importance. The state of things in East Canada at this time, is described by Mr. Thomson in a private letter as follows:—"No man looks to a practical measure of improvement. Talk to any one upon education, or public works, or better laws, you might as well talk Greek to him. Not a man cares for a single practical measure, the only end, one would suppose, of a better form of government. They have only one feeling—a hatred of race. The French hate the English, and the English hate the French, and every question resolves itself into that, and that alone. There is, positively, no machinery of government; everything is to be done by the governor and his secretary. There are no heads of departments at all, or none whom one can depend on. The wise system heretofore adopted has been to stick two men into some office whenever a vacancy occurred—one a Frenchman, and the other a Britisher! Thus we have joint crown surveyors, joint sheriffs, &c., each opposing the other in everything he attempts." To eradicate, as far as possible, this estrangement was the great aim of Mr. Thomson, as it has since been that of his successors, Lords Metcalfe and Elgin.

The measures of the governor-general had given entire satisfaction to her majesty's

government; as they had done generally throughout Canada; and the Queen was pleased to raise him to the peerage, by the title of Baron Sydenham in Kent, and Toronto in Canada; an honour which it was rightly deemed advisable to announce with the declaration of the union of the two provinces, made by Lord Sydenham at Montreal, on the 10th of February, 1841, the anniversary of the marriage of our gracious sovereign, and of the conclusion of the treaty of 1763, by which Canada was ceded to the British crown. The provisions of the Act will be found in the section on Government. The following is a copy of the celebrated despatch of Lord John Russell to the governor-general on "Responsible Government," which has been so much canvassed, and which forms the basis of constitutional and colonial government:—

"Downing Street, 14th Oct. 1839.

"Sir, "It appears from Sir George Arthur's despatches that you may encounter much difficulty in subduing the excitement which prevails on the question of what is called 'Responsible Government.' I have to instruct you, however, to refuse any explanation which may be construed to imply acquiescence in the petitions and addresses upon this subject. I cannot better commence this despatch than by a reference to the resolutions of both houses of Parliament, of the 28th April and 9th May, in the year 1837.

"The Assembly of Lower Canada having repeatedly pressed this point, her majesty's confidential advisers at that period thought it necessary not only to explain their views in the communications of the Secretary of State, but expressly called for the opinion of Parliament on the subject. The Crown and the two houses of Lords and Commons having thus decisively pronounced a judgment upon the question, you will consider yourself precluded from entertaining any proposition on the subject.

"It does not appear, indeed, that any very definite meaning is generally agreed upon by those who call themselves the advocates of this principle; but its very vagueness is a source of delusion, and if at all encouraged, would prove the cause of embarrassment and danger.

"The constitution of England, after long struggles and alternate success, has settled into a form of government in which the prerogative of the Crown is undisputed, but is never exercised without advice. Hence the exercise only is questioned, and however the use of the authority may be condemned, the authority itself remains untouched.

"This is the practical solution of a great problem, the result of a contest which from 1640 to 1690 shook the monarchy, and disturbed the peace of the country.

"But if we seek to apply such a practice to a colony, we shall at once find ourselves at fault. The power for which a minister is responsible in England is not his own power, but the power of the Crown, of which he is for the time the organ. It is obvious that the executive councillor of a colony is in a situ-

ation totally different. The Governor under whom he serves, receives his orders from the Crown of England. But can the colonial council be the advisers of the Crown of England? Evidently not, for the Crown has other advisers, for the same functions, and with superior authority.

"It may happen, therefore, that the Governor receives at one and the same time instructions from the Queen, and advice from his executive council, totally at variance with each other. If he is to obey his instructions from England, the parallel of constitutional responsibility entirely fails; if, on the other hand, he is to follow the advice of his council, he is no longer a subordinate officer, but an independent sovereign.

"There are some cases in which the force of these objections is so manifest, that those who at first made no distinction between the constitution of the United Kingdom, and that of the colonies admit their strength. I allude to the questions of foreign war, and international relations, whether of trade or diplomacy. It is now said that internal government is alone intended.

But there are some cases of internal government, in which the honour of the Crown or the faith of Parliament, or the safety of the state, are so seriously involved, that it would not be possible for Her Majesty to delegate her authority to a ministry in a colony.

"I will put for illustration some of the cases which have occurred in that very province where the petition for a responsible executive first arose—I mean Lower Canada.

"During the time when a large majority of the assembly of Lower Canada, followed M. Papineau as their leader, it was obviously the aim of that gentleman to discourage all who did their duty to the Crown within the province, and to deter all who should resort to Canada with British habits and feelings from without. I need not say that it would have been impossible for any minister to support, in the Parliament of the United Kingdom, the measures which a ministry, headed by M. Papineau, would have imposed upon the Governor of Lower Canada; British officers punished for doing their duty; British emigrants defrauded of their property; British merchants discouraged in their lawful pursuits,—would have loudly appealed to Parliament against the Canadian ministry, and would have demanded protection.

"Let us suppose the Assembly as then constituted, to have been sitting when Sir John Colborne suspended two of the judges. Would any councillor, possessing the confidence of the Assembly, have made himself responsible for the act? And yet the very safety of the province depended on its adoption. Nay, the very orders of which your Excellency is yourself the bearer, respecting Messrs. Bedard and Panet, would never be adopted, or put in execution by a ministry depending for existence on a majority led by M. Papineau.

"Nor can any one take upon himself to say that such cases will not again occur. The principle once sanctioned, no one can say how soon its application might be dangerous, or even dishonourable, while all will agree that to recall the power thus conceded would be impossible.

"While I thus see insuperable objections to the adoption of the principle as it has been stated, I see little or none to the practical views of colonial government recommended by Lord Durham, as I understand

them. The Queen's Government have no desire to thwart the representative assemblies of British North America in their measures of reform and improvement. They have no wish to make those provinces the resource for patronage at home. They are earnestly intent on giving to the talent and character of leading persons in the colonies, advantages similar to those which talent and character, employed in the public service, obtain, in the United Kingdom. Her Majesty has no desire to maintain any system of policy among her North American subjects which opinion condemns. In receiving the Queen's commands, therefore, to protest against any declaration at variance with the honour of the Crown, and the unity of the empire, I am at the same time instructed to announce Her Majesty's gracious intention to look to the affectionate attachment of her people in North America, as the best security for permanent dominion.

"It is necessary for this purpose that no official misconduct should be screened by Her Majesty's representative in the provinces; and that no private interests should be allowed to compete with the general good.

"Your Excellency is fully in possession of the principles which have guided Her Majesty's advisers on this subject; and you must be aware that there is no surer way of earning the approbation of the Queen, than by maintaining the harmony of the executive with the legislative authorities.

"While I have thus cautioned you against any declaration from which dangerous consequences might hereafter flow, and instructed you as to the general line of your conduct, it may be said that I have not drawn any specific line beyond which the power of the Governor on the one hand, and the privileges of the Assembly on the other, ought not to extend. But this must be the case in any mixed government. Every political constitution in which different bodies share the supreme power, is only enabled to exist by the forbearance of those among whom this power is distributed. In this respect the example of England may well be imitated. The sovereign using the prerogative of the Crown to the utmost extent, and the House of Commons exerting its power of the purse, to carry all its resolutions into immediate effect, would produce confusion in the country in less than a twelvemonth. So in a colony: the Governor thwarting every legitimate proposition of the Assembly; and the Assembly continually recurring to its power of refusing supplies, can but disturb all political relations, embarrass trade, and retard the prosperity of the people. Each must exercise a wise moderation. The Governor must only oppose the wishes of the Assembly where the honour of the Crown, or the interests of the empire are deeply concerned; and the Assembly must be ready to modify some of its measures for the sake of harmony, and from a reverent attachment to the authority of Great Britain.

"I have, &c.,
J. RUSSELL."

Lord Sydenham, when announcing the union, issued a spirited proclamation, and appealed to the good feelings and interests of the Canadians to render the union productive of the advantages which it was the desire of the queen and of her majesty's government it should confer.

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united legislature to meet him at Kingston on 13th June, 1841; violent party strife or rather contests of race took place at the elections in which the governor-general abstained from interfering, except to maintain order and to protect the free exercise of the franchise. The composition of the House of Assembly when it met was said to be: government members 24, French members 20, moderate reformers, 20, ultra reformers 5, "family compact" 7, doubtful 6, special return 1, double ditto 1; total 84. The governor-general opened the session in a speech of much moderation, advised conciliation, announced that Great Britain had agreed to pledge its credit for a loan of £1,500,000 to complete the public works, that assistance would be afforded by the home government to convey destitute emigrants from the port of embarkation to the place where their labour might be required; declared, in reference to M'Leod and the United States, "her majesty's fixed determination to protect, with the whole might of her power all her Canadian subjects; pointed out the necessity of establishing throughout the province a system of self-government such as had already been established in East Canada; the establishment of a comprehensive and efficient system of education, and concluded with a prayer that, "under the blessing of that Providence which had hitherto preserved this portion of the British dominions, their counsels might be guided so as to insure to the queen attached and loyal subjects, and to United Canada a prosperous and contented people."

Notwithstanding these conciliatory measures and proceedings, an attempt was made by Mr. Neilson, the representative of Quebec, by an amendment on the speech from the throne, to condemn the Act of Union as "inconsistent with justice and the common rights of British subjects." Mr. Neilson's amendment was rejected by 50 to 25, 18 of the minority were French Canadians, or represented French constituencies, 6 were of the extreme Upper Canada party, and 1 was member for Gaspé. Another similar amendment was rejected by 54 to 21. The Assembly then proceeded to discuss a bill brought in by Sir Allan M'Nab to extend the time for receiving petitions on contested elections, in consequence of some defeated candidates having been too late in presenting their petitions in the only form in which they could be received by the Assembly. The measure was a party move, and was termed the "French

Election Bill." Owing to misconception and other reasons the government were unable to defeat the bill, which passed the House of Assembly, and was sent up to the Legislative Council for discussion and confirmation. The upper house rejected the bill, and the harmonious working of two legislative chambers was established; the upper judiciously acting as a check on hasty or party legislation in the lower chamber.

The United Parliament of Canada now proceeded to work; the governor-general introduced through his executive officers various bills for revising the custom laws; readjusting the currency; educating the people; creating an efficient "Board of Works" for the whole province, which would take the power of jobbing out of the hands of local parties and private individuals; a municipal district bill, &c.; and the first session closed triumphantly for the governor-general, and happily for Canada, in peace and reviving prosperity. But Lord Sydenham's constitution, never very strong, gave way after two years of incessant labour; he was unable to close Parliament in person, which was done by general Clitherow on 17th Sept., 1841, and on the 19th of the same month, Canada lost one of the most able men who ever administered its affairs—the crown a valuable servant, and the nation a true patriot—whose devotion to the interests of his country was manifested up to the moment of his death.

The immediate cause of the decease of Lord Sydenham was owing to his horse falling with him, on 4th September, fracturing his leg, and causing a severe wound above the knee. His lordship finding his health fast failing, had, in July, 1841, sent home his resignation, which had been graciously accepted by the queen, who had conferred on him the order of the Bath, and while waiting the closing of Parliament and the arrival of the *Pique* frigate from Halifax to convey him to England, the accident occurred which suddenly terminated the labours of his useful life at the age of forty-two.

By men of all parties in Canada, the death of Lord Sydenham was viewed as a public calamity, and the press throughout the province bore testimony to the great value of his services. In the words of his biographer, who rendered efficient assistance to the governor-general in his arduous duties:—"When we look back at the effects produced by his short but vigorous adminis-

tration, we need not be surprised at the unanimity which prevailed on this occasion. He had found the provinces staggering under the effects of two rebellions; their inhabitants divided against each other; their improvements arrested; their exchequers empty; their credit annihilated; each man mistrusting his neighbour; and all looking to military force as the only security against renewed violence and ultimate separation from the mother-country. In less than two years the picture was reversed. He left the province not only in the most complete security and repose; safe not only against foreign aggression, but against intestine discord; hope and confidence revived in every bosom; the public works again in progress; credit re-established; and the union with the mother-country cemented and placed on a broader and more secure basis.*

On the death of Lord Sydenham, Sir C. Bagot was appointed governor-general of Canada. He had been long employed in the diplomatic service, and having the character of being a high churchman and decided Tory, his accession to office was very favourably viewed by Canada; but they, nevertheless, complained that he threw himself into the hands of the Whigs and Radicals. Messrs. Draper and Ogden, Tory leaders, resigned; Messrs. Baldwin and Lafontaine, heads of the opposite party, were appointed attorneys-general for West and East Canada; and the council of eleven members was composed of moderate men of all shades of politics. It is, however, acknowledged, even by their opponents, that the new government and governor-general "adopted a system of managing the public revenues, calculated to cherish and improve the resources of the country; that its income increased under their direction; a more beneficial surveillance than had hitherto existed was imposed on the different public officers; and that the official duties of the departments were ably executed."—*[Colonial Magazine, No. 33, September, 1846.]* Severe illness obliged Sir Charles Bagot to resign office at the end of 1842, and he died in Canada on the 19th of May, 1843.

On the resignation of Sir Charles Bagot,

* T. C. Murdoch, Esq. then attached to Lord Sydenham as Civil Secretary, and now head of the Colonial Emigration Commission. Mr. Murdoch wrote that portion of the life of Lord Sydenham which related to Canada; the remainder was well executed by the brother of the deceased nobleman, G. Pouliett Scrope, esq. M.P.

the premier, Sir Robert Peel, sought among the ablest men of the day for his successor, and Sir C. Metcalfe, though without aristocratic connections, and even personally unknown to any member of her majesty's ministers, was appointed governor-general of Canada.

Sir C. Metcalfe, born the 30th of January, 1785, was the second son of Sir Theophilus Metcalfe, M.P., whose family had been long connected with the East India Company. Mr. Metcalfe was educated at Eton, where he was "noted for his great kindness of disposition, and his remarkable aptitude at acquiring knowledge and mastering difficulties." In 1800 he proceeded to Bengal as a "writer," or civilian, in the service of the East India Company. His proficiency in the college of Fort William attracted the notice of the Marquess Wellesley, then governor-general of India, who, in order to train a class of civil servants adapted for the government of a great empire, formed what was termed the "Governor-General's Office," in which were placed the most promising young men in the service of the East India Company, where, under the eye of Lord Wellesley, they were trained and prepared for high positions.

In a letter written to the Marquess Wellesley in 1836, Sir Charles Metcalfe, gratefully attributes his success in life to the counsels of Lord Wellesley, and to his own endeavours to follow the example set by his lordship. Mr. Metcalfe first distinguished himself as resident at the court of Scindiah, one of the Mahratta chieftains, and at a critical period, when his very life was threatened, evinced the firmness which characterized his after life. During the Mahratta war of 1803 to 1805, Mr. Metcalfe was attached in a civil capacity to the army of Lord Lake, and his lordship having, in a moment of irritation, let fall some hasty expressions respecting "men who would not fight, and were in the way of others," the young civilian vindicated his personal courage by taking an active part in several combats, and particularly at the battle and siege of Deeg, where, carried away by enthusiasm, and armed only with a walking stick, he headed an attacking party of the British troops in their assault on the city. In successive years Mr. Metcalfe passed through different grades of office, and was employed as resident, or representative of the British government at the courts of Scindiah, of the Great Mogul at Delhi, the

Nizam of the Deccan, and at Lahore, on a special mission to Runjeet Sing. He also filled the arduous office of chief secretary to government, and in 1827 became a member of the Supreme Council of Bengal; and retained his seat for seven years, two years beyond the usual period. In 1834 Sir Charles Metcalfe (who had succeeded to a baronetcy on the death of his father) was appointed lieutenant-governor of the Agra and the North-west provinces of India; and in the same year, on the retirement of Lord William Bentinck, he was named acting governor-general, the highest office which a civil servant of the East India Company can hold in Bengal; the crown having adopted the suggestion of Lord Wellesley, that the office of governor-general should not be held by any servant of the East India Company. As acting governor-general, Sir Charles Metcalfe granted a free press to British India, and adopted various liberal measures. In 1836 he was succeeded by Lord Auckland, who was appointed governor-general; and the court of directors of the East India Company having disapproved of Sir Charles Metcalfe's ordinance on the Indian press, he returned to England, and thus ended a useful career of 36 years' service in British India. In 1837 he was created a civil K.C.B. by His Majesty William IV., and retired, for a time, into private life. In July, 1839, Sir Charles Metcalfe was induced to quit his privacy, and undertake the office of captain-general or governor of Jamaica, which was strongly urged upon him, in consequence of the distracted state of affairs in that important colony. On his arrival at Jamaica the governor called the Assembly together, frankly solicited their confidence, which was readily granted; and by a strict enforcement of justice, tempered with mercy—by firmness attended with mildness—he succeeded in restoring peace to the colony. General ill health, and the appearance of a cancer on his face, compelled Sir Charles Metcalfe, to the great regret of all parties, to relinquish the government of Jamaica on the 20th of May, 1842; and on his arrival in July of the same year Sir Charles Brodie excised a cancerous tumour from his cheek, after which he partially recovered—accepted the station of governor-general of Canada, and proceeded immediately to Kingston, in Western Canada, where he was sworn into office.

The new governor-general stated that

while he recognized the just power and privileges of the people to influence their rulers, and to regulate, through their representatives, the measures of the government, he reserved to himself the right of selecting the executive officers of the crown. The members of the Canadian Parliament, and also of the executive, were divided on the subject of the transfer of the seat of government from Kingston, in Upper Canada, to Montreal in Lower Canada; and there was a great struggle for a parliamentary majority by Sir Allan Napier M'Nab and his party. Sir C. Metcalfe did not interfere in these discussions, and the Assembly eventually decided for the removal. In 1844 the queen, as a mark of her appreciation of the long and valuable services of this distinguished servant, created him Baron Metcalfe.

It is unnecessary to enter into details here, on subjects of merely local interest, which influenced the majorities in the Assembly and the persons entrusted with the executive government of the colony. No particular event took place, except two awfully destructive fires which occurred at Quebec. Happily few lives were lost; but it was calculated that the dwellings of 24,000 people had been destroyed, many of whose inhabitants were reduced to utter destitution. Subscriptions to the amount of £100,000 were collected in the United Kingdom, and £35,000 was elsewhere raised for the relief of the afflicted sufferers.

In 1844 the Canadian Parliament was dissolved, and a new one called, in which the views of the governor-general were supported by a small majority. The high character, indomitable energy, and singleness of purpose habitually evinced by the representative of the crown in Canada, enabled him to effect much good in training the people for the future enjoyment of free institutions; and had his life and powers been spared, he would doubtless have assuaged the asperity which the violence of party feeling had diffused over all classes in Canada. But in November, 1845, he was obliged to return to England, the cancer on his cheek having reappeared; and of this dreadful disease he soon after died, universally regretted. The kindness, the frank manliness, forbearance, and christian charity of Lord Metcalfe were as fully appreciated in Canada as they had been in Jamaica and in British India.

Lord Stanley in the Canadian debate in the House of Lords on 13th June, 1849, described him as "that wise, great, and good

man, of whose high qualities and transcendent merits it would be impossible to speak in terms of exaggerated praise." His lordship drew an eloquent, but most truthful picture, when he said—"He knew nothing more touching than the uniform patience and fortitude with which, in the agony of an incurable disease, in the presence of death in its most loathsome and appalling form, in the midst of the most violent party struggles, surrounded by the most distracting vexations, and the extremest agony of body and mind—nothing could be more touching than the self-possession, the calmness, and temper with which he restrained the violence which assailed the governor of Canada."

The then commander-in-chief in British North America, Lieutenant-general Earl Cathcart, was appointed administrator of the government. At this period the Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, then governor of Jamaica, was in England on leave of absence. Lord Elgin had succeeded Sir Charles Metcalfe in May, 1842, in the administration of the affairs of Jamaica, and his conduct had given universal satisfaction in the colony, to his sovereign, and to her majesty's government. His lordship had inherited and imbibed from his father a capacity for public life. The late Earl of Elgin had been chiefly employed in the diplomatic service, and during the eventful period at the close of the last, and the beginning of the present century, his exertions as his majesty's representative with the Sublime Porte, at Constantinople, were effectively instrumental in aiding the late Marquis Wellesley in the successful issue of his lordship's project for the expulsion of the French from Egypt by the combined armies from England and from India. Lord Elgin was, contrary to the law of nations, imprisoned by Napoleon for his exertions; which were never required by the government of Britain. The sacrifice of the Athenian Marbles to the French emperor would have secured his freedom, but his lordship's patriotic spirit destined them for his own country, and would not abandon his object even for personal freedom or riches. The grant from the British parliament only repaid half his expenses in conveying them from the shores of Greece, to be cared for and appreciated in Britain; but his desire of raising the standard of taste among his countrymen was accomplished. The present peer was born in 1811, educated at Oxford, returned member for Southampton to the

Imperial Parliament, where he made an effective speech on the Address, which at once marked him as a statesman, and opened the door of office to him while in England. His accession to the earldom removed him from the House of Commons, and her majesty's government being anxious to nominate a successor to Sir Charles Metcalfe in the government of Jamaica, Lord Elgin accepted the appointment, which he fulfilled greatly to the satisfaction of his sovereign, and to the Whig as well as Conservative party. Earl Grey subsequently stated in the House of Lords, that Lord Elgin was nearly a stranger to him when he recommended his lordship to the queen for the government of Canada; and during the recent parliamentary discussions statesmen of all parties in both houses united in bearing testimony to the ability and integrity of the governor-general, the difficulties of whose position are, perhaps, even greater than those of his predecessors. Lord Lyndhurst, in the debate of 20th of June, 1848, while opposing the "Canada Indemnity Bill," said, "*I believe—and I state it on the testimony of many persons who have the best means of knowledge—Lord Elgin to be a most honest and conscientious as well as able man.*" The Earl of Elgin was appointed Governor-General of Canada 1st of October, 1846, and arrived in Canada in January, 1847.

The principal feature in the administration of the Earl of Elgin has been the passing of a bill by the legislature of Canada for the indemnification of parties in the Lower province, who had suffered by the rebellion of 1837-38. The bill has occasioned considerable excitement in Canada, and given rise to much discussion in the Imperial Parliament, and as the question raised in England, both in the House of Commons and the House of Lords, involves the free exercise of what is termed "responsible," or, more properly speaking, "constitutional" government in the colonies, it will be desirable to place on record a brief narrative of the principal circumstances connected with this measure, derived from the documents laid before Parliament.

On the 26th January, 1838, Earl Gosford, then governor-general, addressed a letter from Quebec to Lord Glenelg, then her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, in which he informed her majesty's government that "many loyal individuals in Lower Canada had sustained losses to a greater or less extent, from the rebels having taken

possession of and laid waste their property, or from the same having been destroyed by the military operations necessary for putting down the insurrection;" and the governor-general inquired "whether any and what description of losses incurred from the above causes were to be indemnified, and in what manner." A committee of the Executive Council of Lower Canada, of Messrs. Stewart, Pemberton, Panet, and Guesnal, on 21st January, 1838, having deliberated on the subject, recommended "an advance, by way of loan, to any loyal subject who can show satisfactorily that the whole or greater part of his property has been destroyed, without any connivance or fault of the applicant, by the rebels or her majesty's forces, during the late insurrection, a sum not exceeding one-third of the estimated loss; the party giving good security for the repayment of the amount so advanced, without interest, in case of the government hereafter deciding that such losses are not to be indemnified by the public."

On the 26th April, 1838, an ordinance (1 Vic. c. 7) was passed by the Special Council of Lower Canada, under the administration of lieutenant-general Sir John Colborne, authorizing the appointment of commissioners "to investigate the claims of certain loyal inhabitants of the province for losses sustained during the late unnatural rebellion."

On the 6th March, 1838, an act (1 Vic. c. 13) was passed by the legislature of Upper Canada, authorizing the appointment of commissioners to make a diligent and impartial inquiry into the amount of losses sustained by "certain inhabitants of this province" during the late unnatural rebellion." The word "loyal" does not appear in this act. The commissioners were to inquire into all matters and things under oath, to punish false swearing, and to furnish to the lieutenant-general accounts of their proceedings in writing. The report of the commissioners in Upper Canada gives full details of the property destroyed by the rebels in Upper Canada, and also that destroyed by the American "sympathisers," or invaders.

On 11th May, 1838, the legislature of Upper Canada passed an act (c. 68), authorizing the issue of provincial debentures to the amount of about £5,000, bearing 6 per cent. interest, and redeemable after 20 years, to certain persons whose claims for losses during the insurrection in Upper Canada in December, 1837, had been investigated.

The House of Assembly also addressed the queen, praying the reimbursement of the money thus granted from the imperial treasury. The Marquis of Normanby, as her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, on 27th June, 1839, informed Sir G. Arthur, lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, that he was commanded by the queen to express to the Assembly her majesty's regret that she could not hold out any prospect of the indemnity-money being repaid by Parliament, the people of England being already charged with the military defence of the province.

In 1839, an act was passed by the legislature of Upper Canada to "ascertain and provide for the payment of all just claims arising from the late rebellion and invasion of the province." The preamble of this Act conveyed a pledge that the indemnity should ultimately be borne by the Imperial treasury.

Lord John Russell, as her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, on 12th October, 1839, declined giving the assent of the crown, stating, that even if the principle of the preamble were admitted, it would be of no avail, unless with the previous sanction of Parliament. His lordship, however, informed Sir George Arthur, the lieutenant-governor, that if the colonial legislature should pass a similar bill, free from the objection of pledging Parliament for the payment of the indemnity-money, he would be ready to advise the giving of the royal assent.

In 1840 an act was passed by the United Legislature of Canada (8 Vic. c. 72), appropriating £40,000 "for the payment of all just claims arising from the late rebellion and invasion of the province." The money to be collected and levied from tavern licences and other duties in the province, and apportioned by three commissioners on oath. The royal assent was given to this act, and it was promulgated 22nd October, 1840. A further act was passed 28th July, 1847, adding £3,613 8s. 9d. to the £40,000 authorized by the 8 Vic. c. 72. Nothing was stated in the act relative to loyalty: the matters to be investigated involved solely the *justness*, or as Mr. Poulett Thomson expressed it, the *validity* of the claims.

Under this act it is stated by Mr. Hincks, the receiver-general of Canada, that many persons who were known to be rebels received payment for supplies rendered to the military, or for damage sustained.

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the losses sustained in Lower Canada by the rebels and American invaders, was repeatedly under examination and discussion. Previous to the arrival of Mr. P. Thomson as governor-general, £21,000 had been awarded to the sufferers by Sir J. Colborne, and Mr. Thomson urged on her majesty's government that the Imperial Parliament should defray, at least, some of these claims.

In 1845 the council of Lord Metcalfe (then consisting of what is termed the conservative party in Canada) proposed that a special fund, derived from tavern and marriage licenses, which formed part of the revenue of the consolidated fund in Canada, and was more productive in Upper than Lower Canada, should be surrendered to the municipalities; and that in Upper Canada it should, in the first place, be charged with the payment of the rebellion indemnity losses. *Previous* to this proposal being carried in the Canadian Parliament, a resolution was unanimously adopted by the House of Assembly, praying his excellency "to cause proper measures to be adopted, in order to ensure to the inhabitants of Lower Canada indemnity for just losses by them sustained during the rebellion of 1837 and 1838."

The French party in the United Legislature assented to this act for indemnification in Upper Canada: a proposition was made, and confirmed by the above resolution, that a similar act should be passed for Lower Canada. On the 24th of November, 1845, Lord Metcalfe, the governor-general, issued a commission to Messrs. Dionc, Moore, Jacques, Viger, Simpson, and Beaudry, to inquire into the losses sustained by her majesty's loyal subjects in Lower Canada. On the retirement of Lord Metcalfe the commission was renewed on the 12th of December, 1845, by the Earl of Cathcart, as administrator of the province, to the same persons; and the commissioners were instructed to "*classify carefully the cases of those who may have joined in the said rebellion, or who may have been aiding and abetting therein, from the cases of those who did not; stating particularly, but succinctly, the nature of the loss sustained in each case, its amount and character, and, as far as possible, its cause.*"

An investigation of this nature would, if efficiently performed, necessarily enable the government to ascertain what were "just" claims, without entering on the debateable ground of what constituted treason, or who

were traitors or rebels; but a difficulty arose in the minds of the commissioners as to their powers and means of procuring evidence, and on the 27th of February the government decided that the commissioners were to be "guided by the sentences of the courts of law," and that they had no powers to call for persons or papers.

On the 18th of April, 1846, the commissioners reported to Lord Cathcart, that they recognized claims to the number of 2,176, and of the value of £241,965, viz., personal property £111,127, real property £68,961, and damages not comprised in the foregoing heads £61,877. In the latter was included £9,000 for interest, £2,000 for quartering troops, £30,000 indemnity for imprisonment, interruption of business or trade, privation of goods destroyed or carried off, and banishment: the remainder represented various losses, such as account books, trade effects, &c. The commissioners were of opinion that £100,000 would be a sufficient and fair equivalent to the losses sustained; and they stated, that "the want of power to proceed to a strict and regular investigation of the losses in question, left them no other resource than to trust to the allegations of the claimants as to the amount and nature of their losses." Some of the claims the commissioners considered inadmissible, and others were evidently exorbitant.

On the 19th of June, 1846, the United Legislature passed "an act to provide for the payment of certain rebellion losses in Lower Canada." The act also empowered the issuing of £9,986 7s. 2d. in debentures towards the payment of the said indemnity.

On Lord Elgin's assumption of the government of Canada in January, 1847, he found the question in the state described. The Conservative administration by which he was surrounded, dissolved the House of Assembly in the hope of strengthening their position; but the new Assembly convened under their auspices, placed the administration in a minority, and compelled it to give place to what would be termed in England the Whig or Reform Party. By the constitution of Canada the governor-general is bound to act only through "responsible" advisers—that is, those who possess the confidence of the province; and the only legitimate proof of that confidence is a majority in the House of Assembly.

The Reform administration proceeded to carry out the measures adopted by their

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predecessors in office for the indemnification of the rebellion losses; and, accordingly, on the 27th of February, 1849, an act was introduced, and read without opposition in the House of Assembly, "to provide for the indemnification of parties in Lower Canada, whose property was destroyed during the rebellion of 1837-38." The preamble recited the different steps that had been taken during preceding years, and authorised the issue of debentures to the amount of £100,000, for the payment of this indemnity. But as the commissioners of 1846 reported their inability to make a strict and regular investigation of the losses in question, the preamble declared—"it is necessary and just that the particulars of such losses, not yet paid and satisfied, should form the subject of more *minute inquiry under legislative authority*, and that the same, so far only as they may have arisen from the total or partial, unjust, unnecessary, or wanton destruction of the dwellings, buildings, property, and effects of the said inhabitants, and from the seizure, taking or carrying away of their property and effects, should be paid and satisfied; provided that none of the persons who have been convicted of high treason, alleged to have been committed in that part of this province formerly the province of Lower Canada, since the first day of November, 1837, or who, having been charged with high treason or other offences of a treasonable nature, and having been committed to the custody of the sheriff in the gaol of Montreal, submitted themselves to the will and pleasure of her majesty, and were thereupon transported to her majesty's Islands of Bermuda, shall be entitled to any indemnity for losses sustained during or after the said rebellion, or in consequence thereof."

This act, after much discussion, was passed by the House of Assembly and by the Legislative Council. It was opposed on the ground, that rebels might obtain compensation, which the administration repeatedly asserted was not the intention of the act; and no objection having been made by her majesty's government to the previous act for Upper Canada, or to any of the proceedings adopted by Lords Gosford, Sydenham, Metcalf, and Cathcart, the governor-general deemed it his duty to give his assent. It was well known that much property had been wantonly destroyed in the Lower province, and a pledge had been given by the members of Upper Canada to

those of Lower Canada, previous to the passing of the indemnity bill for Upper Canada, that a similar act should be adopted for Lower Canada. The money was not to come out of the Imperial treasury, but to be raised by the people, whose representatives had, by a considerable majority (48 to 32) enacted the law, which was confirmed by the Legislative Council, consisting of 31 English and 15 French members nominated for life, and independent of the governor or of the people; and it was clearly the bounden duty of the representative of the crown in Canada to do that which his sovereign would necessarily have done in England, namely, assent to a measure passed by majorities in the House of Commons and in the House of Lords. Had Lord Elgin declined to take this course, he would have thrown the whole colony into irremediable confusion; the disastrous contest of races would have broken out afresh; the constitution granted by the Queen and Parliament of Great Britain would have been treated as a nullity; the declaration of our gracious sovereign, that it was the "anxious desire of her majesty that her British North American subjects should enjoy that freedom which is the birth-right of Britons," would have been set aside; and every other colony to which Great Britain might hereafter grant constitutional government, might justly doubt the permanence of a constitution whose first principles were liable to be abrogated or altered according to the fluctuating state of party feeling, either in the colony or at home.

To have dissolved the Canadian Parliament on the subject would have been unjust: when that parliament was convened the question was before the colony, and its principle ratified by the Upper Canada act; and to have reserved the act for the assent of the queen, would have thrown on the crown a degree of responsibility which its representative felt himself bound to incur. The governor-general, therefore, wisely, and in a spirit of justice, and also of conciliation, to all classes, gave his assent; but in consequence of the street riots in Montreal, promoted by the opponents of the act, and the disgraceful proceedings of the mob in burning the House of Parliament at Montreal, and thus destroying its magnificent library, Lord Elgin patriotically tendered his resignation of the arduous and responsible office, which he filled with dignified neutrality between violent contending par-

ties, and which, from the commencement of his administration, his lordship declared it had been his unremitting study to maintain. The queen and her majesty's government immediately expressed full approval of the whole conduct of the governor-general; urgently desired his retention of the office he had so meritoriously and judiciously filled; and the House of Commons and the House of Lords ratified the decision of her majesty's ministers. The approbation of the queen was thus strongly expressed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, in the concluding paragraph of a despatch dated 18th of May, 1849:—"Relying, therefore, upon your devotion to the interests of Canada, I feel assured that you will not be induced by the unfortunate occurrences which have taken place, to retire from the high office which the queen has been pleased to entrust to you, and which, from the value she puts upon your past services, it is her majesty's anxious wish that you should retain." Sir Robert Peel most ably supported the policy pursued by Lord John Russell and Earl Grey. The House of Assembly in Canada voted an address to the

governor-general by a considerable majority, which was tantamount to an approval of his policy; and about 300 addresses were presented to him from Montreal, Quebec, and various places in Upper and Lower Canada.

The violent language and proceedings of the minority have inflicted much injury on Canada; and the inflammatory articles printed in the *Montreal Gazette* of 25th April, 1849, and laid before the British Parliament in May, 1849, cannot be palliated.

Canada wants capital to cultivate its waste lands, to make railroads and canals, and to improve its valuable territory. Capital can only be attracted by peace, by order, by an union of all classes cordially combining for the welfare of their common country. May this recent agitation be the expiring contest of the opposing races in Canada; the colonists, whether of English or French descent, are now *all British subjects*, and have been so for nearly a century (90 years)—the queen and government of Great Britain acknowledge no distinction, and it is the interest, as it is the policy, of England that Canada should be peaceful, prosperous, united, and happy.

CHAPTER II.

TOPOGRAPHY, RIVERS, LAKES, TOWNSHIPS, CHIEF CITIES, ETC.

CANADA, under the dominion of France, was governed as one province, and after its conquest by the British, in 1760, was considered as such until 1791; when the colony was divided into two provinces by an order of the King in Council, viz.—the *Lower or Eastern*, in which the French population resided; and the *Upper or Western*, to which the refugee loyalists from the United States and emigrants from Britain chiefly resorted. After the rebellion of 1837, '38, '39, the two provinces were reunited, and on the passing of the Act of Union in 1840, and the consequent alterations in the new Legislative Assembly, the electoral divisions and boundaries of counties were altered. The existing arrangements will be shewn in the chapter on Population; in the present chapter the geographical features will be preserved as better calculated to afford a correct idea of the physical features of the country.

The whole province, exclusive of the adjacent regions claimed by the Hudson's Bay Company, may be said to extend in a S.W. direction from the island of Anticosti, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to the S. extremity of Lake Erie, a distance of 1000 miles. From Lake Erie to the N.W. boundary of the colony, in the parallel of 50° N., the distance, as the crow flies, is 600 miles, and from Quebec to the N.W. limits of Lake Superior, the distance is nearly 1000 miles. The largest portion of the province is situated between the parallels of 45° to 50° N.: but the fine districts between Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron, extend from 45° to 41° 30' N. in a S.W. direction for nearly 400 miles, with a breadth varying from 50 to 150 miles.

The coast of Labrador lies between the parallels of 50° and 60° N.; a rigorous climate and sterile soil have prevented its colo-

nization. The boundaries of the province on the N., N.E., and N.W., have not been clearly defined, and the area has been variously estimated; in Eastern or Lower Canada, exclusive of Labrador, the river and gulf of St. Lawrence, and the lakes, the area is about 210,000 square English miles. The gulf and river of St. Lawrence cover upwards of 50,000 square miles. The vast lakes and numerous rivers in Western or Upper Canada render it difficult to give approximate accuracy to the landed area.

The natural features of Canada partake of the most romantic sublimities and picturesque beauties; indeed the least imaginative beholder cannot fail to be struck with the alternations of ranges of mountains, magnificent rivers, immense lakes, boundless forests, extensive prairies, and foaming cataracts.

Beginning with the bold sea-coast of the ocean-like river St. Lawrence, it may be observed that the eastern parts are high, mountainous, and covered with forests on both sides of the St. Lawrence to its very edge; on the northern side the mountains run parallel with the river to Quebec, where they take a W. and S.W. course: on the southern side the mountainous range does not approach within 60 miles of Quebec, when it quits the parallel of the river and runs in a S.W. and S. direction into the United States. The mountains S. of the St. Lawrence rise abruptly at Percé, between the Bay of Chaleur and the Bay of Gaspé. They follow the course of the river at a greater distance from its banks than those on the opposite side, and are connected by the Green Mountains of Vermont with the loftier ridge of the Alleghanies, which divide the tributaries of the Atlantic from those of the Ohio. The country situated between the mountain ranges on either side of the river and the boundary line of East Canada in 45° north, forms the valley of the St. Lawrence. In order to give a clear view of this valley, it may be well to divide it into sections, and then treat briefly of the rivers and lakes throughout the province—beginning with the sea-coast.

I. NORTH SIDE OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.—The most northerly and easterly section of the province of Eastern Canada, extending from Ance au Sablon on the Labrador coast to the Saguenay river, lat. 48° 5', long. 69° 37', occupies a front of 650 miles, of which little more is known than the appearance of the coast, as noted from time to time by fish-

men and hunters. Bold mountainous features generally characterize the coast line; in some places the range recedes from the shores of the gulf and river St. Lawrence to the extent of 12 or 15 miles, leaving a deep swampy flat or moss-bed nearly three feet in depth, while in others (as at Portneuf, 40 miles E. of the Saguenay) the shores are of moderate elevation, and composed alternately of cliffs of light-coloured sand, and tufts or clumps of evergreens.

The country between the two points above-stated, is well watered by numerous rivers, among which may be mentioned the Grande and Petite Bergeronnes, the Portneuf, Missisiquinak, Betsiamites, Bustard, Manicougan, Ichimanipistic (or seven islands), St. John, St. Austins, and Esquimaux.

II. The second geographical division of the province N. of the river St. Lawrence, is that comprised within the mouths of the Saguenay and St. Maurice rivers, which form the great highways to the northern territories, and ramify in various directions with numerous lesser streams and lakes. The distance between the Saguenay and the St. Maurice is about 200 miles. From Quebec to the Saguenay there is a lofty and clearly defined range of mountains; from Cape Tourment, the ridge is unbroken (save where rivers find their exits in the St. Lawrence) to 15 miles below Saguenay. Beyond this coast border, the country is in some places flat, in others undulated by chains of hills of moderate height, and well watered by numerous lakes and rivers; among the latter are the St. Charles, the Montmorenci, the Great River, or St. Ann's, the Riviere du Gouffre, Black River, &c.

The country N. W. of Quebec, between that city and the *St. Maurice*, is not so strongly marked as on the S. E. towards the Saguenay; the land gently ascends from the St. Lawrence banks, presenting an extremely picturesque prospect, the effect of the rich grouping of water, wood, and highly cultivated ground being heightened by the shadowy forms of remote and lofty mountains. The rivers Jacques Cartier, Portneuf, St. Ann's and Batiscaan, with their numerous tributaries, tend also to fertilize and adorn this delightful district.

III. The third territorial section N. of St. Lawrence, embraces the country lying between the St. Maurice river and the junction of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence, where West and East Canada meet. The aspect

of the country from 5 to 15 miles from the river's bank is marked by slightly elevated table ridges, with occasional abrupt acclivities and plains of moderate extent.

The islands of Montreal, Jesus, and Perrot, situate in the river St. Lawrence, come within this section. Montreal, the largest of the three, is of a triangular shape, 32 miles long by 10 broad, lying at the confluence of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence, and separated on the N.W. from Isle Jesus, by the rivière des Prairies. Montreal exhibits a surface nearly level, with the exception of a mountain (Coteau St. Pierre) and one or two hills of slight elevation, from which flow numerous streams and rivulets. The island is richly cultivated and tastefully adorned. Isle Jesus, N.W. of Montreal, 21 miles long by 6 broad, is everywhere level, fertile, and admirably tilled; off its S.W. end is Isle Bizard, about 4 miles in length and nearly oval, well cleared and tenanted. Isle Perrot lies off the S.W. end of Montreal, 7 miles long by 3 broad; level, sandy, and not well cleared; the small islets de la Paix are annexed to the seigniory of Isle Perrot, and serve for pasturage.

Little is known of the interior of that portion of the province which is bounded by the Ottawa or Grand River; so far as it has been explored, it is not distinguished by the boldness which characterises the eastern section of Lower Canada; now and then small ridges and extensive plains are met with, receding from the bed of the Ottawa, whose margin is an alluvial flat, flooded often by the spring freshes and autumnal rains, to the extent of a mile from the river's bed. The Bytown tract, extending 200 miles up the Ottawa, to the Upper Allumettes lake is in general level or gently sloping, and is traversed by several tributaries of the Ottawa, towards which it gradually declines.

IV. SOUTH SIDE OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.—We now turn to the region on the south of the St. Lawrence, beginning as before at the sea coast—on which the extensive county and district of Gaspé is situate. This large tract of territory which extends 90 miles from north to south, and has a sea coast of 380 miles, with a range of mountains skirting the St. Lawrence to the N., and another at no remote distance from the shores of Ristigouche river and Bay of Chaleur;—between these ridges is an elevated and broken valley, occasionally intersected by deep ravines. The district is well wooded, and watered by numerous rivers and lakes; the

soil rich, and yielding abundant crops when tilled. The sea-beach is low (with the exception of the lofty and perpendicular cliffs of Cape Gaspé) and is frequently used as the highway of the territory; behind it, the land rises in high, round, and well wooded hills. The chief rivers are the Ristigouche, into which fall the Pscudy, Goumitz, Guadamgonichou, Mistoué, and Matapediac; the Grand and Little Nouvelle, Grand and Little Cascapediac, Caplin, Bonaventure, East Nouvelle, and Port Daniel, which discharge themselves into the Bay of Chaleur;—Grand and Little Pabos, Grand and Little River, and Mal Bay River, flowing into the Gulf of St. Lawrence:—the river St. John, and north-east and south-west branches, fall into Gaspé Bay. There are also many lakes.

V. The country comprised between the W. boundary of Gaspé, and the E. of the Chaudière river, fronts the St. Lawrence river to the N.W. for 250 miles, and is bounded on the S.E. by the high lands dividing the British territories from those of the United States. These high lands are 62 miles from the St. Lawrence at their nearest point, but on approaching the Chaudière river, they diverge southwardly. The physical aspect of this district, is not so mountainous as the opposite bank of the St. Lawrence; it may more properly be characterised as a hilly region, abounding in extensive vallies. The immediate border of the St. Lawrence is flat, soon however rising in irregular ridges, and attaining considerable height, and forming an extent of table-land; which, at the distance of 15 to 20 miles from the shores of the St. Lawrence, gently descends towards the river St. John, beyond which it again reascends, acquiring a greater degree of altitude towards the sources of the Allegash, and finally merging in the Connecticut range of mountains.

VI. The last section of Lower Canada, S. of the St. Lawrence, is the exceedingly valuable tract W. of the river Chaudière fronting the St. Lawrence, and having in its rear the high lands of Connecticut, and the parallel of 45° of N. lat., which constitutes the S. and S.E. boundary of Eastern Canada, where the latter is divided from the American States of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York. The physical aspect greatly varies throughout this extensive section; at the mouth of the Chaudière the banks of the St. Lawrence still retain the boldness for which they are remarkable at Quebec and Point Lévi, but proceeding

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westward, they gradually subside to a moderate elevation, till they sink into the flats of Baie du Febre, and form the marshy shore of Lake St. Peter, the remainder of the country being a richly luxuriant plain. Proceeding from Lake St. Peter towards Montreal, the majestic grandeur of the country about Quebec contrasts with the picturesque champagne beauties of Richelieu, Verchères, Chambly, and La Prairie districts. In the former especially, the eye of the spectator is delighted with a succession of fertile fields, luxuriant meadows, flourishing settlements, neat homesteads, gay villages, and even delightful villas, adorning the banks of the Richelieu, the Yamaska, and the St. Lawrence, whilst in the distance are seen the towering mountain tops of Rouville and Chambly, Rougemont, Mount Johnson, and Boucherville. As the country recedes from the St. Lawrence banks to the E. and S.E., it gradually swells into ridges, becomes progressively more hilly, and finally assumes a mountainous character towards lakes Memphramagog and St. Francis, beyond which it continues to preserve more or less a similar aspect, to the borders of the Chaudière, and the height of land at the Connecticut's sources. Colonel Bouchette, the surveyor-general of Lower Canada, to whose valuable observations I am so much indebted in this volume, is of opinion that the range of hills traversing Bolton, Orford, &c., are a continuation of the Green Mountains, which form a conspicuous ridge running from S. to W. through the State of Vermont. Mr. W. E. Logan, the provincial geologist, says, "that between Montreal and Quebec the valley of the St. Lawrence has a general N.E. course, and presents a flat surface on each bank of the river. This plain extends from 12 to 20 miles in breadth on the N.W. side of the river, to the flank of a wide-spread, hilly, but not very elevated country. On the S.E. side of the river the plains are 30 to 40 miles wide, and with the intervention of a few moderate undulations, reach the foot of a range called the Green Mountains of Vermont, which, after entering Canada, decline in height; but a few isolated peaks are 4000 feet above the sea. A continuous mountain-belt bounds the S.E. side, presenting a gently undulating surface. These ranges of mountain and valley are parallel to one another, and to the St. Lawrence." Several isolated mountains rise from the valleys or plains of Yamaska and Chambly, and give a romantic interest to

the scenery, the beauty of which is increased by numerous rivers, lakes, and rivulets winding in every direction. The chief rivers are the Chaudière, which forms the eastern boundary, the Beçancour, Nicolet (two branches), St. Francis, Yamaska, Richelieu (or Chambly), Chateauguay and Salmon: all but the three last having their source within the province. The chief lakes are the Memphramagog, of which part belongs to Canada, and part to the United States; Scaswanipus, Tomefobi, St. Francis, Nicolet, Pitt, William, Trout, and many others of less importance.

Dr. Thomas Rolfe, who has laboured strenuously in behalf of Canada, remarks, that "from 100 miles below Quebec to 100 miles above Montreal, on both sides of the St. Lawrence, there is a most beautiful country, not only cleared, cultivated, and thickly settled, but actually adorned with a continuous line of villages on either bank. There is not a point from which the spire of a spacious and elegant parish church does not greet the eye, and frequently there are many to be seen in the same view. The eastern portion of Canada, and probably the eastern townships, contain the greatest variety of beautiful scenery; mountain, rock, hill, dale, plain, forest, water-fall, lake, and river."

Having thus briefly shown the geographical divisions of East Canada, we may proceed to the examination of the great artery which passes through both divisions of the province, and the islands and districts adjacent, beginning with the

GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE, which receives the waters of the numerous lakes and rivers of the Canadian portion of the American continent, and is formed by the western coast of Newfoundland, the eastern shores of Labrador, the eastern extremity of the province of New Brunswick, part of Nova Scotia, and the island of Cape Breton; and communicates with the Atlantic by three different channels; namely, by the Gut of Canso (a narrow passage dividing Cape Breton from Nova Scotia), by a considerably wider channel between Cape North, in Cape Breton isle, and Cape Ray, in Newfoundland; and by the narrow straits of Belle-isle, which separate the coast of Labrador from Newfoundland. The distance from Cape Rosier, Gaspé Bay, lat. 48° 50' 41", long. 64° 15' 24", to Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, lat. 47° 36' 49", long. 59° 21', is 79 leagues; and from Nova Scotia to Labrador the dis-

tance is 106 leagues. There are several islands in the Gulf—the one most dangerous to navigators, from its position, the steepness of its shores, and the dense fogs frequent on this coast, is in the principal entrance, between Newfoundland and Cape Breton, in lat. $47^{\circ} 12' 38''$, long. $60^{\circ} 11' 24''$, compass variation, $23^{\circ} 45' W$. The isle is named St. Paul's, and is small and barren. On the S. side of the bay is Prince Edward's or St. John's island, which extends in a crescent-like form 123 miles, but is at its narrowest part only 12 miles across. To the northward are the small Magdalen islands, 11 in number, between the parallels of $47^{\circ} 50'$ and $47^{\circ} 38' N$. lat., and $61^{\circ} 27'$ and $62^{\circ} W$. long., which were granted to Sir Isaac Coffin as a reward for his naval services. Five or six of them are inhabited by French Canadian, and English and Irish settlers, altogether numbering 1000, who carry on a profitable fishery. Magdalen isle, the largest, is 17 leagues in length, but very narrow, being in some places not more than a mile wide. North of the Magdalens is Brion's island, and beyond this are the Bird Isles or rocks; the most northerly portion being in lat. $47^{\circ} 50' 28''$, long. $61^{\circ} 12' 53''$.

The river St. Lawrence, from the magnificent basin of Lake Superior in East Canada, has a course to the sea of nearly 3,000 miles, and a varying breadth of from 1 to 90 miles. Includng the lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron, through which it passes, it is navigable for ships of a large class very nearly 2,000 miles, and the remainder of its course for barges, batteaux, and vessels drawing little water, of from 10 to 15 and even 60 tons burthen. The remotest spring of the St. Lawrence, if we consider the Canadian lakes as merely extensive widenings of it, is the stream called St. Lewis in lat. $48^{\circ} 30' N$., long. about $93^{\circ} W$., from which its general direction through lakes Superior and Huron is S.E. to Lake Erie—nearly due E. from that lake, and then N.E. to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It receives in its majestic course most of the rivers that have their sources in the extensive range of mountains called the Land's Height; and also those intersecting the ridge which commences on its south bank, and runs nearly south-west to Lake Champlain. From the sea to Montreal, this superb river is called the St. Lawrence, from thence to Kingston in Upper Canada, the Catarqui or Iroquois; between Lakes Ontario and Erie, the Niagara; between lakes Erie and

St. Clair the Detroit; between lakes St. Clair and Huron the St. Clair; and between lakes Huron and Superior the distance is called the Narrows, or Falls of St. Mary. The St. Lawrence discharges into the ocean annually about 4,277,880 million of tons of fresh water, of which 2,112,120 million of tons may be reckoned melted snow; the quantity discharged before the thaw comes on, being 4,512 million of tons per day for 240 days, and the quantity after the thaw begins, being 25,560 million per day for 125 days, the depths and velocity when in and out of flood duly considered: hence a ton of water being nearly equal to 55 cubic yards of pure snow, the St. Lawrence frees a country of more than 2,000 miles square, covered to the depth of three feet. According to Mr. M'Taggart, the solid contents in cubic feet of the St. Lawrence, embracing lakes Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario, is estimated at 1,547,752,360,000 cubic feet, and the superficial area being 72,930 square miles, the water therein would form a cubic column of nearly 22 miles on each side! The embouche of this noble river is in that part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence where the island of Anticosti divides the mouth of the river into two branches.

This island, 130 miles long and 30 broad, has neither bay nor harbour capable of affording efficient shelter for shipping in bad weather. The aspect is generally low, but on the north of the island the shore is more elevated, and three lofty mountain peaks, with high table land, relieve the monotonous appearance of so large an extent of flat country. The rivers are of no great magnitude, and too little is known of the soil and nature of the interior to permit a decided opinion being formed on its quality; from the position of the island it may be supposed to be alluvial: it is as yet uninhabited, but as land becomes more valuable, will doubtless be colonized.

In 1828 the crew of the Granicus were shipwrecked on this island, and unable to obtain any sustenance on its uncultivated shores, they were driven by the fearful cravings of hunger to cannibalism, and the last wretched being is supposed to have perished for want of any more of his unfortunate companions to prey on. The bones and mangled remains of the slain, were found scattered about on the wild coast of Anticosti, as if a struggle had taken place in the last extremity.

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Two light-houses have been erected on the island, one at the east point, the other at the south-west. The ship-channel between Anticosti and the main land of East Canada is about 40 miles broad.

On passing this island, the river St. Lawrence expands to a breadth of 90 miles; and in mid-channel both coasts are visible, the mountains on the north shore having their snow capped crests elevated to a vast height, and appearing more continuous in their outline than the Pyrenean range.

At the Bay of Seven Islands, which derives its name from the high and rugged islands which lie at its entrance, the St. Lawrence is 70 miles broad. There is deep water close to the islands, which appear to rise abruptly out of the sea; the centre of the bay forms a large basin, with a depth of from 10 to 50 fathoms; at its head, the land appears to sink low in the horizon, while that on each side is high and rugged.

From Seven Islands Bay to Pointe aux Pères, there is little to attract attention, except two very extraordinary mountains, close to each other, called the Paps of Matane, nearly opposite to which is the bold and lofty promontory of Mont Pelée, where the river is little more than 25 miles wide. After passing Isle St. Barnabé, the voyager arrives at Bic island (153 miles from Quebec), which is three miles in length, and nearly one in breadth. Good anchorage is found here. The adjoining seigniory of Bic on the main land is mountainous, and very uneven.

Proceeding onwards, several beautiful groups of islands are passed in succession, viz., Green island, Red island, Hare island, Kamouraska island, the Pilgrims, Brandy Pots, and a variety of others, all wooded, and some of them inhabited and cultivated. The Brandy Pots cluster is about 103 miles from Quebec. Opposite Green island, on the north shore, is the mouth of the Saguenay river. The St. Lawrence is here 20 miles wide, with an average depth of 12 fathoms; and the village of Kamouraska in the county and seigniory of the same name, is a favourite watering place of the Canadians. The mountains on both sides are very lofty, often terminating in capes or bold headlands, and producing an imposing effect; in general, and especially on the south side, a low, level, and cultivated tract of land, of various breadth, intervenes between the river and the mountain range, and the delicious verdure of its corn fields contrasts

finely with the sombre hue of the pine forests in the elevated and over-shadowing back ground. The cultivated Isle aux Coudres next meets the eye, and is followed by a delightful prospect of the settlement of the Bay of St. Paul, enclosed within an amphitheatre of high hills.

The Isle aux Coudres is 5 miles in length and 15 in circumference, and is distant about 2 miles from the north shore of the St. Lawrence river, and nearly opposite the Bay of St. Paul: compared with the neighbouring land it is low, but becomes more elevated towards the centre. The shore in a few places rises abruptly from the water, and is thickly covered with shrubs and creeping plants; in general, however, it is of easy ascent, and rendered picturesque by the numerous farms on it. The island was granted in 1687 to the ecclesiastics of the seminary of Quebec, to whom it still belongs. Although the breadth of the river is 13 miles, the navigation here becomes difficult, owing to the narrowness of the main ship-channel called the Traverse, which is contracted to 1,320 yards, by the Isle aux Coudres, the shoal of St. Roch, and English bank. There are two other channels, but the rapidity of the current is much greater in them than in the Traverse, and the holding-ground bad; notwithstanding, with a good pilot and a favourable wind, there is little or no risk. Where the river du Sud forms a large basin, and disembogues into the St. Lawrence, the latter is 11 miles in breadth, and the country assumes a charming aspect; the succession of villages, churches, telegraph stations, and farm-houses, all painted white, produce a dazzling contrast to the dark woods which clothe the rising grounds in the distance to their very summits, and present a landscape of varied beauty. Before arriving at the island of Orleans (four miles north-east of Quebec), Goose and Crane islands, and many smaller ones (almost all inhabited), are passed. Orleans, or Isle St. Laurent, 19 miles long, five and a half broad, and comprising an area of about 69 square miles, divides the river into two channels. The shores decline gradually to the beach, but the land rises considerably towards the western extremity of the isle, which is richly tilled by a population numbering 5,000, who derive much advantage from the sale of their horticultural and agricultural products in the neighbouring markets of Quebec. The south channel is always used by ships; the main-

land opposite is lofty, and in some places mountainous, but so well cultivated that a large tract in the vicinity of the Sud, which flows through a picturesque, extensive, fertile, and thickly settled country, has long been familiarly called the granary of the province.

The country below and above Quebec for some distance presents scenery whose beauty is unequalled in America, and probably in the world. From the eminence over which the post-road passes, or in sailing up the St. Lawrence, there are frequent prospects of immense extent and variety, consisting of lofty mountains, wide valleys, bold headlands, luxuriant forests, cultivated fields, pretty villages and settlements, some of them stretching up along the mountains:—fertile islands, with neat white cottages, rich pastures and well-tended flocks;—rocky islets, and tributary rivers, some rolling over precipices, and one of them, the Saguenay, like an inland mountain-lake, bursting through a perpendicular chasm in the granitic chain; while on the bosom of the St. Lawrence, with a breadth varying from 10 to 20 miles, ships, brigs, and schooners, either under sail or at anchor, with innumerable pilot-boats and river craft, in active motion, charm the eye of the immigrant or traveller.

The scenery, on approaching Quebec, is truly magnificent; on the left, point Levi, with its romantic church and cottages; on the right, the western part of Orleans isle, which closely resembles our own sweet Devonshire coast; beyond, the lofty mainland opens to view, and the spectator's attention is riveted by the magnificent falls of Montmorenci, a river as large as the Thames at Richmond, which precipitates its vast volume of constantly flowing waters over a perpendicular precipice 240 feet in height: the eye then runs along miles of richly cultivated country, terminating in a ridge of mountains, with the city and battlements of Quebec, rising in the form of an amphitheatre, cresting, as it were, the ridge of Cape Diamond, and majestically towering above the surrounding country, as if destined to be the capital of an empire.

Etymologists have exercised their ingenuity in tracing the origin of the word Quebec: some suppose it an Indian word signifying a strait: others are of opinion that it arose from the Normans exclaiming when they first beheld the lofty promontory—“*Quel-Bec!*”—It is even said that the

city owes its name to a place on the Seine, called *Caudebec*,—but Hawkins in his “*Picture of Quebec*,” states the word to be of Norman origin, and gives an engraving of a seal belonging to William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, dated in the reign of Henry V., A.D. 1420. The legend or motto runs thus: “*Sigillum Willelmi de la Pole, Comitis Suffolchiæ, Domini de Hamburg et de Quebec.*” Suffolk was impeached by the Commons of England in 1450, and one of the charges against him was his unbounded influence in Normandy, where he lived and ruled like an independent prince; it is not therefore improbable that he enjoyed the French title of Count of Quebec in addition to his English honours.

Quebec Citadel is situated upon the N.E. extremity of a rocky ridge or promontory, called Cape Diamond, 350 feet above the St. Lawrence. The cape extends into the St. Lawrence towards point Levi on the opposite or right bank of the river, which is at this spot less than a mile in width.

The citadel (see Map, East Canada) is built on the peak of the promontory. About 40 acres are covered with the works, which are carried to the edge of the precipice. About 100 feet below the cliff on which the citadel is built is the elevated plain on which the city of Quebec stands, and this within a circuit of 3 miles is enclosed with strong fortifications connected with the commanding citadel. From the city there is a rapid descent of 200 feet to the river St. Lawrence, and within the narrow limits of the base of this precipice and the river, the lower town of Quebec is situated, opposite and contiguous to the shipping, where the merchants and traders carry on their useful pursuits. The N. side of the promontory has apparently been chosen as the site of the town, from its slope being more gradual than that on the southward, which is precipitous. To the N. the ground declines gently until within 100 feet of the St. Charles valley, when it becomes precipitous. The St. Lawrence flows to the southward of the city, where it is only 1314 yards wide, washes the base of the steep promontory of Cape Diamond, and receives the waters of the small river St. Charles, which flows to the N. of the city, their junction being in front of the town, where they expand into a considerable basin of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, with a depth of 18 to 28 fathoms, forming the harbour of Quebec. The distance from one river to another across the ridge is rather more than

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a mile. On sailing up the river, nothing of the city is seen until the spectator is nearly in a line between the W. point of Orleans isle and Point Levi, when there suddenly bursts upon the view an abrupt promontory 350 feet high, crowned with an impregnable citadel (the Gibraltar of the New World), surrounded by strong battlements, on which the British banners proudly wave; cathedrals and churches, warehouses, a fleet of ships at Wolf's Cove, and others at the wharfs; steamers plying in every direction; boats of every shape; ships on the stocks, or launching; the waters of the majestic cataract of Montmorenci rushing into the St. Lawrence over the projecting ledge; the churches, houses, fields, and woods of Beauport and Charlesbourg, with mountains in the distance; the high grounds, spire, &c. of St. Joseph; some Indian wigwams and canoes near Point Levi, and vast rafts or masses of timber descending the noble river from the forests on the Ottawa.

The city, as before observed, is nominally divided into two parts, called the Upper and Lower towns; the latter being built at the base of the promontory, level with high water, where the rock has been removed to make room for the houses, which are generally constructed in the old style, of stone, two or three stories high. The streets are narrow and ill ventilated. From the Lower to the Upper town there is a winding street (Mountain-street), extremely steep, which is commanded by judiciously planted cannon, and terminates at an elevation of 200 feet above the river, at the city walls, or "Break Neck Stairs," where the Upper town commences, extending its limits considerably to the westward, along the slope of the ridge, and up the promontory towards the Cape, to within 50 or 60 yards of its summit. The aspect is N., and it is on the whole well ventilated, although the streets are narrow and irregular. There are suburbs to each town; those of the Upper extend along the slope of the ridge called St. John's; those of the Lower, extend from the St. Charles along the valley called the "Rocks." The influence of the tides, which extend several leagues beyond Quebec, raises the waters at the confluence of the two rivers many feet above their ordinary level, and overflows the St. Charles valley, which rises gradually from the river to the northward, in a gentle slope for a few miles, until it reaches the mountains. This valley and slope is wholly under cultivation, and extremely rich and

picturesque. The ridge on which Quebec stands is also cultivated to the westward as far as Cape Rouge. A range of mountains to the northward, limits the extension of cultivation in that direction.

In 1662 Quebec did not contain more than 50 inhabitants; in 1759 the population was estimated at between 8 and 9000; in 1825 and 1831 the census gave as follows:—

	1825.		1831.	1848.
	Houses.	Pop.	Pop.	Pop.*
Quebec:—				
Upper Town .	480	4,163	4,498	No census.
Lower Town .	549	3,935	4,933	
Suburbs of—				
St. Roch . .	1,128	6,273	7,963	
St. John . .	843	6,026	6,918	
St. Lewis . .	120			
Total, exclusive of the Banlieus of St. John and St. Lewis .	3,120	20,396	25,916	

As a fortress Quebec may be ranked in the first class; the citadel on the highest point of Cape Diamond, is defended by a formidable combination of strongly constructed works; small batteries connected by ramparts, are continued from the edge of the precipice, to the gateway leading to the Lower town, which is commanded by cannon of a large calibre, and the approach to which, up Mountain-street, is enfiladed and flanked by large guns: a line of defence connects with the grand battery a redoubt of great strength, armed with 24 pounders, entirely overlooking the basin and passage of the river. Other lines add to the impregnability of Quebec, which, well garrisoned, secure to us the navigation of the St. Lawrence. There are five strong gates in the walls which surround the city: the entrance from the Lower town is by Prescott-gate. That portion of the promontory which declines in height by successive ridges towards the interior, is fortified by a series of regular works, viz.: a moat, covered way, and glacis, with exterior defences to obstruct an enemy. The face of the city towards the river is so steep, that excepting the passage by Mountain-street, it requires only a wall for its protection. Four Martello towers on the heights of Abraham, in front of the fortifications range the whole plain to the west-

* The population is now about 40,000.

ward. The armoury of Quebec is superior to that of most of the European capitals; it contains equipments for 25,000 men, which can be furnished at a few hours' notice.

On the W. and in front of the citadel, are the celebrated plains of Abraham, on which Wolfe and Montcalm fought and perished, and to whose glorious memory the gallant Earl of Dalhousie has erected an obelisk with the following appropriate inscription:—*Mortem virtus communem famam historia monumentum posteritas dedit. Hanc columnam in virorum illustrium memoriam WOLFE ET MONTCALM, P. C. Georgius, Comes de Dalhousie in Septentrionalis Americæ partibus ad Britannos, pertinentibus summum rerum administrans; opus per multos annos prætermisissimum, quid duci egregio convenientius? Auctoritate promovens, exemplo stimulanus, munificentia fovens. A. S. MDCCCXXVII.—Georgio IV. Britanniarum Rege.* Lord Aylmer, in 1834, erected a small column with the inscription,—"Here died Wolfe in the arms of victory." And Sir Benjamin D'Urban, another brave soldier, in conjunction with the troops under his command in Canada, in 1848 raised a monument in memory of Wolfe on the plains of Abraham, consisting of a column 40 feet high, surmounted by a helmet enriched with laurel and a sword; after the design of a distinguished soldier and intelligent traveller, Sir James Alexander.

A great number of elegant and commodious public buildings adorn Quebec—such as the Hotel Dieu, the Ursuline Convent, the Jesuit's Monastery (now a barrack), the Protestant and Catholic Cathedrals, the Scotch Church, Lower Town Church, Trinity and Wesleyan Chapels, Exchange, Bank, Court House, Hospitals, Barracks, Gaol, Seminary, &c. The Roman Catholic cathedral is 216 feet long by 180 broad, and is capable of containing a congregation of 4000 people. It has a lofty dome, which produces an imposing effect. The religious services are performed with much ceremony; the bishop and 50 priests sometimes officiating. The Protestant cathedral, 136 feet long by 75 broad, is built in a plain style, and from its pure and simple taste, and neat spire, is much admired. The Scotch church is of less magnitude. Of three nunneries at Quebec, two have hospitals attached, in which great relief is administered to the poor. The *Hotel-Dieu*, founded in 1637 by the Duchess d'Aiguillon, includes a convent, church, cemetery, gardens, and an excellent hospital,

where the prioress and 32 nuns are continually employed in ministering to the sick. The Ursuline convent, founded in 1639, by Madame de la Peltrie, is in the centre of the city, surrounded by five gardens. The nuns, 46 in number, maintain a strict seclusion, but educate many of their own sex. The embroidery, especially for sacerdotal robes, &c., is highly celebrated.

The grand parade in front of the castle, surrounded by the principal edifices; the esplanade along the exterior wall, where the troops are reviewed; the market-place, 250 feet long by 150 broad; and the noble aspect of many of the buildings, both public and private, give an animated appearance to the city.

On the 28th May, and on the 28th June, 1845, two great fires occurred, which destroyed much of the Lower town, and the dwellings of 20,000 of its inhabitants. The conflagration destroyed part of St. Vallier, all St. John suburbs, part of St. Lewis, nearly all St. Roche, and the west part of the Lower town gate. Many of the houses were built with wood after the French fashion. The first fire extended a mile through a densely peopled suburb before it could be checked.

The town in general is pretty much like an English or rather a French city, except that the houses are mostly roofed with shingles (small pieces of thin wood); many of the best houses, public buildings, and great warehouses, are, however, covered with tin or iron plates, which, owing to the dryness of the climate, retain their brightness for many years. There are several distilleries, breweries, tobacco, soap, candle, and other manufactories; and every description of tradesmen may be found in the Upper and Lower town. Many of the shops, or as they are called in America, stores, are fitted out with taste, and in most of them every variety of goods, from a needle to an anchor, or a ribbon to a cable, is to be found. A steam-ferry plies constantly between Quebec and the opposite shore at Point Levi. In severe winters this channel is completely frozen over, and a line of road is marked with beacons, by which provisions, hay, wood, &c., are conveyed to the metropolis.

Many ships are built at Quebec. On the W. point of Orleans were built the *Columbus* and the *Baron de Renfrew*, those vast leviathans of the deep which human ingenuity contrived to float on its bosom. These ocean castles were strongly framed, timbered and planked as lesser sized vessels, and not

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put together like rafts as generally supposed. The length of the *Columbus* on deck was 320 feet, breadth 50, extreme depth 40 feet, and she had four gigantic masts, with every appurtenance in proportion; 3,000 tons weight were put on board of her before launching. It may be remembered that she reached England safely, and was water-logged on her return to Canada; the equally huge *Baron of Renfrew* reached the Thames, and was wrecked off Gravelines.

Proceeding onwards the St. Lawrence again widens after passing Quebec, while the banks, gradually losing the elevation observable at Cape Diamond, become sloping, and delightfully varied with groves, churches, white cottages, orchards, and corn fields, until arriving at Richelieu Rapid, 45 miles above Quebec; thence to Three Rivers (52 miles), there is little change in the general aspect of the banks of the St. Lawrence, the high lands receding to the N. and S. with a low but cultivated country. About 6 miles above Three Rivers, the St. Lawrence expands itself over a level country, and forms Lake St. Peter, which is about 20 miles in length, by 15 in breadth, but very shallow. At the head of the delta of the lake, the St. Lawrence receives the comparatively small but beautiful river Richelieu; in some places called Chambly—at others, Sorel. To Montreal (90 miles from Three Rivers) the scenery is varied rather by the hand of man than by nature, with the exception of numerous alluvial and richly tilled islets; many parts are picturesque and highly cultivated, there being a succession of parishes mostly consecrated to the memory of some saint, and so thickly peopled as to appear one continued village; the N. shore, through which the post-road passes, is the most populous.

Montreal, formerly the Indian village of Hochelaga, now the capital of the province of Canada, in 45° 31' N. lat., is situate upon the N. or left bank of the St. Lawrence, at the head of the ship navigation of the river, about 600 miles from the sea, and upon the southernmost point of an island bearing the same name, which is formed by the river St. Lawrence on the S., and by a branch of the Ottawa, or Grand River, on the N. The island is 32 miles long, by 10 to 12 broad: its surface is an almost uniform flat, with the exception of an isolated hill or mountain on its W. extremity, which rises from 500 to 600 feet higher than the river level. Along its base, and particularly up its sides,

are thickly interspersed corn-fields, orchards, and villas, above which, to the very summit of the mountain, trees grow in luxuriant variety. The prospect from its summit, though wanting the sublime grandeur of the view from Cape Diamond at Quebec, is exceedingly picturesque: on the south, the blue hills of Vermont, and all around a vast extent of thickly inhabited, richly cultivated and fertile country, embellished with woods, waters, churches, cottages, and farms—below it the placid city of Montreal—its shipping and river craft, and the fortified island of St. Helena, altogether producing a scene of soft and singular beauty. In 1640, the spot on which the city stands contained an Indian village, in which the French formed a missionary station. Within a mile to the N.W. of the town the range of the mountain gradually declines for a few miles to the W. and N., to the level of the surrounding country. The bank of the river upon which Montreal is built, has a gradual elevation of from 20 to 30 feet, but declines in the rear of the town, where there is a canal to carry off any accumulation of water: the land then again rises towards the N. to a higher ridge. The wharfs are said to be better than any other similar structures in America, and consist of a range of massive masonry more than a mile in extent. The harbour adds greatly to the beauty of the city, and from the "Forwarding Houses" on the La Chine canal, to the foot of the current of St. Mary, a distance of 2 miles, the river St. Lawrence is covered with ships, steamers, barges, and boats of every description, during the time the navigation is open. Extensive basins are being constructed along the enlarged La Chine canal, to afford the means of steam-boat communication with the great lakes; and a channel is being deepened in Lake St. Peter, to render it navigable for vessels of a large draught of water. By means of steam-tugs from Quebec to Montreal, 180 miles distance, the Canadian metropolis will probably become one of the most important seaports in America. The city, comprised within the Upper and Lower town, is divided into wards, and in 1844 the number of inhabitants in each ward was:—St. Mary, 12,285; St. Lawrence, 12,235; Queen's, 13,571; West, 2,285; East, 1,912; Central, 1,805. Total, Males, 20,404; Females, 23,191, in 6,252 houses. Of these 19,041 were French Canadians; 8,863 British ditto; English, 3,161; Scotch, 2,712; Irish, 2,990; United States, 701;

from other places, 212. In 1844 there belonged to the Church of Rome, 20,280 citizens; 6,700 to the Church of England, 4,349 to the Church of Scotland; and 4,255 of other and various denominations. The far largest portion of the capital and enterprise of Montreal belongs to the inhabitants of British origin. The good taste, liberality, and zealous endeavours of the Hon. James McGill contributed greatly to the adornment of this handsome and prosperous city. The Hôtel-Dieu, a conventual structure, and the Montreal General Hospital, built in 1822, by voluntary subscription, at a cost of £6,000, are excellent charities. The St. Sulpician Seminary is a large building, occupying three sides of a square adjoining the cathedral. In this institution, and in the McGill College, all branches of learning are taught at moderate charges. The large nunnery of Notre-Dame has a superior and 60 sisters, who receive boarders at a small charge, and prepare teachers, whom they send to different districts. Another large nunnery, called the Sœurs-Gris (Grey Sisters), consists of a superior and 24 nuns, who admit into their spacious and charitable mansion the infirm poor, where, in a christian spirit, they administer spiritual consolation, food, and medicine. There are several handsome English and Scotch churches. The English Episcopal church is a fine building with a lofty spire. Whole streets of private buildings, many of them outside the city (whose entrenchments have been levelled some years since), have been recently constructed. Various public structures belonging to banks and corporate institutions adorn the capital. During the riots of 1849, on the passing of the Rebellion Losses Indemnity Bill, the building in which the Canadian Parliament met was burnt by the mob, and the library of the Legislature, one of the most valuable in British America, was destroyed. The city and private houses are lit by a gas company, and the corporation possess extensive water-works. The Harbour Commissioners have expended upwards of £100,000 on the improvement of the harbour, which affords a revenue of more than £10,000 a-year. The three principal streets are parallel with the river, and intersect each other at right angles; the houses are for the most part of a greyish stone, covered with sheet iron or tin; many of them are handsome structures. Among the principal edifices are the Hôtel-Dieu, the Convent of Notre Dame, the General

Hospital, the New College, Hôpital Général des Sœurs Gris, the French Cathedral, English and Scotch churches, Court House, Government House, Nelson's Monument, Barracks, Gaol, &c., &c. The Roman Catholic cathedral is the most splendid temple of worship in the New World, and its exterior grandeur is scarcely surpassed in the Old. It was commenced in 1824, finished in 1829, and dedicated to the Virgin Mary. In length it is 255 feet, in breadth 134, and the height of the walls, which are faced with cut stone, is 112 feet. The architecture is of the rich Gothic of the thirteenth century. It has six massive towers, between which is a promenade along the covered roof 25 feet wide, elevated 112 feet. There are 7 chapels and altars, and 9 spacious aisles: the high altar resembling that of St. Peter's at Rome—the pulpit that of Strasburg cathedral. The E. window behind the grand altar is 70 feet high by 33 feet broad; the other windows 36 feet by 10. It is surrounded by a fine terrace, and its chime of bells, clocks, altars, &c., correspond with the magnificent exterior. This magnificent structure contains 1244 pews, and will accommodate 12,000 persons, who may disperse in 6 minutes by 5 public and 3 private entrances. There are various public institutions in Montreal, which indicate the advanced state of the colony. The University College has Professors of Divinity, Classics, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Medicine, Surgery, Midwifery, Anatomy, Materia Medica. There is a College of Medicine for instruction in all branches of the healing art. Among the other institutions are the High School of Montreal, Baptist College, Congregational Theological Institute, Royal Grammar School, National School, British and Canadian School, Free ditto, Natural History Society, Mechanics' Institute, Mutual Instruction Society, Shakespear Club, several public libraries belonging to different associated bodies; National societies of St. George, St. Patrick, St. Andrew, German, and St. Jean Baptiste; various Religious, Bible and Missionary, Tract and Sunday-School Associations. Benevolent institutions, viz.:—the Montreal General Hospital, Lying-in Hospital, Dispensaries, Lunatic, Magdalen, and Orphan Asylums: 6 Turf, Cricket, and Curling Clubs, four "Freemasons and 8 "Odd-fellows" Lodges.

In the extent and importance of her trade—in the beauty of her public and private buildings—in the gay appearance of her

shops, and in all the external signs of wealth, Montreal is rapidly increasing. Its population in 1825 was 22,357; in 1831, 27,297; in 1844, by census, 44,093; and the city, together with the suburbs and the remainder of the island, are estimated at 70,000. The whole island is comprised in one seigniory, and belongs to the St. Sulpicians, who are consequently possessed of much power, which, however, they use with moderation, and are by no means rigorous in exacting the *lods et ventes* due to them on the mutation of land, which are usually compounded for.

The Ottawa, or Grand River, divides Eastern and Western Canada, and has a course between Montreal and Lake Temiscaming of above 350 miles in length; but if we regard this lake as only an extension of the river, in the same manner as we have already done Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, &c., while examining the course of the St. Lawrence, we must attribute the source of the river to a remote spot in the interior, more than 100 miles from Lake Temiscaming. On this lake the Hudson Bay Company have a trading post, but of the surrounding country we have no accurate description—indeed, the upper part of the river above the Falls and Portage des Allumettes, is little used except by the fur-traders, though up to that point it is regularly frequented by the *lumberers*, who find profitable and abundant employment in floating down the river, in rafts constructed for the purpose, vast quantities of pine and oak. The natural obstructions to this traffic have been greatly removed by several slides erected in various parts of the Ottawa and its tributaries. At the Allumettes, the Ottawa divides into two channels, the one passing N.E., the other S.W. of an island 15 miles long by 4 broad, which is said to be eminently fertile and fast settling; it then forms three small lakes called the Allumettes, the Mud, and the Musk Rat. Eight miles below the junction of these channels is Fort Coulange, a trading port of the Hudson's Bay company, near which is a flourishing settlement.

Four miles further south, the Ottawa again divides, and forms an island 20 miles in length by 7 in breadth, called the Grand Calumet, and the rapids and falls at this point are exceedingly grand.

There are four principal chutes,—one, especially being wild and romantic in the extreme, from the narrow, lofty, and pre-

cipitous channel down which the vast torrent rushes with terrific violence, as if roused to fury by the opposition it had met with in its mighty career. The effect is greatly heightened by the close vicinity in which the traveller may behold this magnificent cataract. Another of these falls Mr. Barker (an eye-witness) describes as having a peculiar character. He speaks of the water as falling at first in the shape of a horse-shoe, placid and smooth as glass or oil, until it meets in the centre of the chute, and changes at once into noisy boiling foam. He also mentions a slide, over which immense quantities of red pine are annually carried, excavated in canal form out of the solid rock on the island side of the chutes. It was built by the provincial government in 1844 at a cost of more than £11,000.

For the next 10 miles after leaving the cascades, the Ottawa is picturesquely diversified by groups of beautiful and richly wooded islets, which separate it into numerous channels, through which the impetuous waters rush with various degrees of violence, while the romantic singularity of the prospect is enhanced by the banks being chiefly composed of white marble, which may be traced for several miles. At the end of this wild labyrinth of wood and water the magnificent Lake des Chats meets the view; its extreme length is 15 miles, and its average breadth 1, but several deep bays encroach upon the land, and extend its breadth in places to nearly 3 miles.

On the E. Canada side are the townships of Onslow, Clarendon, and Litchfield; and on the west side are those of Macnab, Horton, and Ross. The township of Bristol also is in a flourishing state. Three rivers, the Mississippi (or Nisisippi), the Madawaska, and the Bouchere, empty themselves into the lake, and are fine streams, much used by the lumberers; their shores are gradually being cultivated, and even in the interior there are several settled tracts of land. Richly wooded islets adorn the lake, which is also distinguished by the singularly glassy appearance peculiar to the waters of the lovely Ottawa.

Kinnell Lodge, and other mansions, are romantically situated on the south bank of the lake, a few miles below the Rapides des Chats, which are 3 miles long, and pass amid a labyrinth of islands, through which they rush with great violence, terminating in the Falls des Chats, that to

the number of 15 or 16, extend in a curved line across the river. The Falls are divided by wooded islands, and are from 16 to 20 feet in height. The bed of the Ottawa then contracts, but about six miles below this point it again expands, and forms the basin of Lake Chaudière, which is 18 miles long by 5 broad, and terminates like the Lake des Chats in rapids, which dash on through the small grove-clad islets with different degrees of violence, until they reach the vortex of those broken, irregular, and extraordinary chasms called the Great and Little Chaudière (Kettle). The principal falls are 60 feet in height by 212 in width, and an immense basin of circular rock attracts by forcible indraught a considerable proportion of the boiling waters, while those beneath, in their violent struggle to escape, send up clouds of spray which conceal the bottom of the cataract, and ascend, at intervals, above its summit. A large portion of the water being unaccounted for, is supposed to escape by subterraneous channels, for half a mile further down the river the water comes boiling up, it is said, from the Chaudière. Among the strange tales told concerning these falls, is one of a cow having been one morning carried over by the waters into the Little Chaudière, and coming up uninjured at Fox Point, 10 miles down the river. Immediately below these falls, where the stream still rushes in rapid eddies, bridges have been thrown over it, and offer singular specimens of science and skill, placed as they are by the side of one of nature's grandest and most wild objects. The chain of these union bridges, as they are called from their connecting Eastern and Western Canada, consists of four principal parts, two of which are truss bridges, overhanging the channels, and unsupported by piers; a third is a straight wooden bridge, and a fourth is built partly of dry stone (with two cut lime-stone arches) and partly of wood.

The truss bridge over the broadest channel is 212 feet long, 30 feet wide, and 40 above the surface of the Ottawa. The township of Eardly extends along Lake Chaudière, and is followed by the important and rapidly increasing settlement of Hull, which is watered by the large river Gatineau, and contains valuable mines of iron and quarries of marble.

Below the Chaudière Falls and union bridges, the Ottawa has an uninterrupted navigation for steam-boats to Grenville,

60 miles distant. The current is gentle, the river banks low and generally flooded in spring to a considerable distance, especially on the north or Lower Canada side, but though the scenery is somewhat tame, it is always pleasing, and as described by colonel Bouchette, the frequently varying width of the river—its numerous islands—the luxuriant foliage of its banks—and the growing settlements appearing here and there on the skirts of the forest, or the margin of the stream, in themselves possessed of sufficient interest to preserve from monotony this part of "Ottawa's tide."

At Grenville commences the impetuous rapid termed the Long Sault, which is only descended by *voyageurs*, or raftsmen of experienced skill and energy. Below Long Sault the Ottawa continues, at intervals, rapid and unnavigable as far as Point Fortune (immediately opposite the east outline of Chatham), where it expands into the lake of the Two Mountains, and finally forms a junction with the St. Lawrence river below the cascades, where the remarkable hue of the waters of the Ottawa strongly contrasting with the blueish-green of those of the St. Lawrence, renders the line of confluence distinctly visible.

The Ottawa region is within the temperate zone; in general level, or moderately undulating, well watered, and covered with fine timber, which affords an unfailling source of remunerative employment. The Bytown tract extending for 200 miles, from the embouchure of the Ottawa to the Upper Allumettes lake gently slopes to the river, has extensive level tracts of fertile soil, and is the chief seat of the Ottawa settlers. The progress of Bytown, on the right bank of the Ottawa, has been very rapid; in 1831 it contained only 150 wooden houses.

The *Saguenay River* rises in Lake St. John, which is situated between 48° 27' and 48° 51' N. lat., and is about 100 miles in circumference. It has a course of 108 miles before its junction with the river St. Lawrence, 100 miles below Quebec; it varies in width, and its passage, like that of other American rivers, is interrupted by foaming torrents. At its confluence with the St. Lawrence at Tadoussac in lat. 48° 5', long. 69° 37', the Saguenay discharges not less than 2,500,000 cubic feet of water per hour, double the quantity that the St. Lawrence sends past Quebec. The depth at its mouth in mid-channel has not been ascertained; captain Martin could not find

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bottom with 330 fathoms of line; two miles higher the soundings were 140 fathoms, and at 70 miles from the St. Lawrence, from 50 to 60 fathoms. It has been since stated, that a ridge of rocks below the surface of the water, lies across the Saguenay's mouth, through which there is a channel 120 feet deep, and that in the middle the depth increases to 840 feet; if this be so, the bed of the Saguenay must, necessarily, be 600 feet below that of the St. Lawrence, into which it falls. Its reported terrific whirlpools do not exist. Thirty rivers pour their tributary waters into the Saguenay, many of them navigable for large boats. The banks of this noble stream vary from 200 to 2,000 feet in height, rising in some places perpendicularly from the river's side; the scenery throughout being wildly magnificent. The cliffs of the *Capes de la Trinité* beetle over the broad, rapid and deep torrent to the elevation of 1,800 feet, and sink plumb down 900 feet below its surface. An experienced traveller who visited the Saguenay in 1845, says—"the whole descent from Ha-Ha Bay to Tadoussac can be compared to nothing that I have ever seen for the magnificence and extent of its scenery, unless, perhaps, to the passage through the highlands of the Hudson, if you can imagine that chain of heights continued for 40 miles, and its elevation increased some hundreds of feet." The Point aux Bouleaux and the land for some distance on the west side of its mouth, are alluvial deposits, containing probably the richest soil in the world, being composed of a species of soapy-grey marl, from 30 to 40 feet deep. There is a very remarkable harbour, 40 miles from the mouth of the Saguenay, called Bay de Has, or Ha-Ha Bay, capable of affording shelter to the largest ships of the line, and to the whole navy of England, which may sail directly into the bay with the same wind that brought them to its entrance. The bay is from 7 to 9 miles in length, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ in width, with good anchorage varying from 15 to 35 fathoms. Ha-Ha Bay opens into another bay or basin. Vast tracts of arable land, with a rich soil of blue and grey marl, surround these singular bays, extending to Lake Kiguagomi, which is joined to the Saguenay by the circuitous route of the Chicoutimi river. In the neighbourhood of Ha-Ha Bay, which is surrounded by hills, a European settlement has been commenced; and the saw-mills belonging to Mr. Price

have encouraged cultivation in the interior. Grain, especially oats, thrive, as do also potatoes. The fixed population is about 5,000. There are several sawing mill establishments around Ha-Ha Bay, and also above and below it on the Saguenay, which is well adapted for water power. The saw logs, though not so large in butt and stem as the produce of the Ottawa, or of New Brunswick, grow to a considerable height, and being more free from knots, furnish deals of a closer and better grain.

Proceeding from Ha-Ha Bay towards Chicoutimi, 18 miles higher up, the river has for 8 miles a width of about 2; its banks become much less elevated, and at the end of that distance it narrows to about half a mile, and diminishes greatly in depth. Farms, well-built wooden habitations, and crops of grain, potatoes, and hay, are to be seen in every sheltered nook or ravine running down to the river. The place has been settled by squatters from Malbay and St. Paul's Bay. Groups of well conditioned horses, and herds of fine cattle, speak well for the condition of the district. The Hudson's Bay Company have a post at Chicoutimi (60 miles from Tadoussac), consisting of a good store and out-buildings, near which is a little old chapel, built by the Jesuits in 1726, for the converted Indians of the Montaignais tribes. The mixed growth of timber here, consisting of maple, black and white birch, and spruce, indicates the strength of the soil, which appears to be a blue clayey loam. The government has laid out a town-plot on the point opposite the Hudson's Bay Company; and a new and valuable settlement will, doubtless, be formed, not only for the sawing of timber, but also for the production of food.

A few other rivers of East Canada which empty themselves into the St. Lawrence, require to be briefly noticed.

Proceeding from the Ottawa down the St. Lawrence on the northern shore, we arrive at the

St. Maurice or *Three Rivers*, which although of inconsiderable depth, is inferior in that respect only to the Ottawa and Saguenay. It drains an extent of country more than 140 miles in length, and from 20 to 100 in breadth, equivalent to 8,400 square miles. The source of the stream is a large lake called Oskelanaia, near the skirts of the N.W. ridge of mountains. Its course is generally from N. to S., inclining a little to

the eastward, and receiving many tributary rivulets and lakes during its progress.

Among the former are the Kasikan, Pisnay, Ribbon, Windigo, Vermillion, Bastonais, Rat, Mattouin, and Shawenegan. After passing the falls of the last-named river, the St. Maurice turns again to the south, and has its embouchure in the St. Lawrence below the town of Three Rivers, where it forms several islands. The banks of the St. Maurice are generally high, and covered with large groups of fine majestic trees; navigation for boats is practicable for 38 leagues to La Tuque, with the exception of the portages. At Wenontichinque in 47° N. the St. Maurice is divided into three branches, of which the W. forms an extraordinary chain of lakes and navigable waters, 23 in number, varying in size, and having in many places a depth of 40 fathoms. There are about 14 small islands of different sizes in various parts of the St. Maurice, and there are a variety of falls and cascades of greater or less extent. Those of Grand Mère, about 4 miles above the Hêtres fall or cascade, are extremely beautiful and have a perpendicular descent of 30 feet. The stupendous falls of the Shawenegan, 6½ miles lower than the Hêtres, are magnificent, the fall being 150 perpendicular feet;—the river rushing with terrific violence in two channels against the face of the cliff below, then reuniting, the vast and foaming torrent forces its way through a narrow passage not more than 30 yards wide. Before quitting the St. Maurice, it may be proper to observe, that the large river Aux Lievres, which has a course of upwards of 150 miles to the Ottawa, anastomoses with the St. Maurice, by means of a chain of lakes.

Champlain River rises in the Seignory of Cap de la Magdeleine; running N.E., it traverses the country to Champlain, enters Batiscan, where it turns S., and after forming the boundary between the latter seignory and Champlain, it falls into the St. Lawrence. This river, though of small size, is deserving of notice from an extraordinary circumstance, stated to have occurred on its banks a few years ago, which presents a similarity to the *moving bogs* in Ireland. A large tract of land containing a superficies of 207 arpents was instantaneously moved 360 yards from the edge of the water and precipitated into the river, which it dammed up to a distance of 26 arpents, and by obstructing the waters, caused them to swell to an extraordinary height: this singular event

was accompanied by an appalling sound, and a dense and suffocating vapour, as of pitch or sulphur, filled the atmosphere. My authority for this statement is Colonel Bouchette; it appears to corroborate the truth of the great Canadian earthquake of 1663.

Montmorenci River, also a tributary of the St. Lawrence, rises in the Lac des Neiges; and flows in a continued current, until it forms the celebrated cataract of Montmorenci, where its breadth is from 16 to 20 yards, and the height of the fall about 250 feet, 100 more than that of Niagara; but the volume of water is comparatively small. A slight declination in the bed of the river before it reaches the fall, gives great velocity to the stream, which is precipitated over the brink of the perpendicular rock in an extended sheet of a fleecy appearance. Immense clouds of spray rise from the bottom in curling vapours, and present an inconceivably beautiful variety of prismatic colours. The late Duke of Kent resided in a house close to the falls, which commanded a beautiful view of one of the most picturesque scenes in America.

Chaudiere River rises from Lake Megantick, and waters a country of 100 miles in length, by about 30 in breadth, thus clearing nearly 3,000 square miles of territory of its redundant waters: in breadth it varies from 400 to 600 yards; and is frequently divided by islands, some of them containing many acres, and covered with timber-trees. The banks of the Chaudière are in general high and steep, thickly clothed with wood; the bed of the river is rugged, and often much contracted by rocks jutting out from the sides, which occasion violent rapids; one of the most celebrated of these is about four miles from its mouth. Narrowed by salient points extending from each side, the precipice over which the waters rush is scarcely more than 130 yards in breadth, while the height from which they descend is as many feet; huge masses of rock rising above the surface of the current at the break of the fall, divide the stream into three portions, forming partial cataracts which unite before reaching the basin which receives them below. The deep excavations the continual action of the water has worn in the rock, give a globular figure to the revolving bodies of brilliant white foam; the spray spread by the wind, produces in the sunshine a splendid variety of prismatic colours, while the dark-hued foliage on either side, pressing close on the margin of the river, forms a

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striking contrast with the snowlike effluence of the falling torrent; indeed, few falls can be compared with those of the Chaudière for picturesque beauty.

St. Francis River, S. of the Chaudière, flows through a fine country, in which the valuable territories of the *British American Land Company* is situated. The St. Francis passes that portion of the St. Lawrence called Lake St. Peter, and has a water communication to the district town of Sherbrooke, a distance of about 70 miles. The tributaries of the St. Francis—the Salmon, Eaton, Coaticook, Massawippi, Magog, &c.—water a country of great beauty; hill and dale, river and lake, forest and meadow, meet in succession the eye of the traveller. The surrounding districts, called the eastern townships, were considered by Lord Sydenham one of the finest parts of Canada. There are two remarkable lakes in this neighbourhood, namely, Matapedia and Memphramagog. The former is about 16 miles long, and 3 broad in its greatest breadth; about 21 miles distant from the St. Lawrence river in the co. of Rimouski, amidst the highlands that divide the waters running into the St. Lawrence, from those that run to the Bay of Chaleur, it is navigable for rafts of all kinds of timber, with which the banks of the noble river Matapedia are thickly covered. Memphramagog Lake, in the co. of Stanstead, stretching its southern extremity into the state of Vermont, is of a semi-circular shape, 30 miles long, and very narrow. It empties itself into the fine river St. Francis, by means of the river Magog, which runs through Lake Seawanepeus. The Memphramagog Lake is said to be navigable for ships of 500 tons burthen.

Richelieu River, also called Chambly, Sorel, St. Louis, and St. John, affords a quick and easy water communication from the United States territory (*via* Lake Champlain) into the heart of Canada. Its principal source is in the United States, and estimating its length from the S. point of Lake George to the termination at Sorel, now William Henry Town (so called after king William IV.) on the banks of the St. Lawrence, its course cannot be less than 160 miles—the estimated extent of tract watered being 30 miles, and the surface drained 4,800 square miles; only a portion of this lies within the province of British America, the distance from the boundary line to the mouth of the river being about 70 miles of the 160.

The banks of the river are generally from 8 to 12 feet high, diversified on each side by many farms and extensive settlements, in a high state of cultivation; on and near it are neat, populous, and flourishing villages, handsome churches, numerous mills of various kinds, good roads in all directions, and every characteristic of a prosperous country. From its junction with the St. Lawrence, decked vessels of 150 tons may ascend from 12 to 15 miles, after which the navigation is carried on by boats, canoes, rafts, and craft of large dimensions. The breadth of the bed at its mouth is 250 yards, which it preserves with a few exceptions (occasioned by some small and beautiful islands), up to Chambly basin, which is a nearly circular expansion of the river, about a mile and a half in diameter, embellished by several little islands, covered with fine verdure and natural wood, artistically grouped. From the basin of Chambly to the Isle du Portage the breadth is 500 yards—beyond this it spreads to double that distance, and continues to widen more or less as far as St. John's, where there is ship navigation to the towns on Lake Champlain. This lake has its name from the distinguished Frenchman who discovered it in 1609, and lies between Vermont and New York; its extreme length from Whitehall at its southern extremity to its termination, 24 miles N. of the Canada line, is 128 miles; with a varying breadth of from 1 to 16 miles; its mean width being 5; and altogether covering a surface of about 600 square miles. The outlet of the lake is the Richelieu river above described. There are about 60 islands of different sizes in the lake, the principal of which are N. and S. Hero and Isle Lamotte. N. Hero, or Grand Island, is 24 miles long and from 2 to 4 wide. Lake Champlain has a depth sufficient for the largest vessels; half the rivers and streams which rise in Vermont fall into it, and it receives at Ticonderago the waters of Lake St. George from the S.S.W., which are said to be 100 feet higher than its own.

The other rivers being of considerably less magnitude, do not require any separate notice.

The following detail will show the divisions of Eastern Canada, and afford some idea of the numerous rivers and lakes by which this fine country is irrigated.

The district of Quebec (including Anticosti and other islands) extends along the St. Lawrence 826 miles, is in depth inland 360, and contains an area of 127,949 square miles.

Montreal (including the adjacent islands) extends 110 miles along the St. Lawrence, 810 inland, and has an area of 54,802 square miles. Three Rivers (including St. Francis and the islands) extends 52 miles along the St. Lawrence, 320 inland, and has an area of 15,823 square miles. Gaspé peninsula (including islands) extends 80 miles along the St. Lawrence, 200 inland, and has an area of 7,289 square miles. Total superficies in square miles, 205,863.

QUEBEC DISTRICT.—Rivers. *N. of St. Lawrence*: Ste. Anne, Jacques Cartier, Batiscau, St. Charles, Montmorenci, Gouffre, Mal Bay, Black River, Sagunay, Belsiamite, St. John, Ste. Anne, L., Portneuf. *S. of St. Lawrence*: Chaudière (part of), Etchemin, Du Sud, Du Loup, Greenriver, Rimouski, Trois Pistoles, Mitis, Tartigo, Matane, Madawaska, St. Francis (part of), St. John (part of).—Lakes. *N. of St. Lawrence*: St. John, Commissioner's, Quaquagamack, Wayagamack, Bouchette, Kajoulwang, Ontaretri, St. Charles, Chawgis, Assuapmoussin, Shecoubish. *S. of St. Lawrence*: Temiscouata, Matapediac, Mitis, Abawisquash, Long lake, Pitt, Trout, William, St. Francis, McTavish, Macanamack.

MONTREAL DISTRICT.—Rivers *N. of St. Lawrence*: Gatineau, Lièvres, Petite Nation, Rivière Blanche, Rivière Du Nord, Mascouche, Achigan, L'Assomption, Lachenaye, Berthier, Chaloupe, Du Chêne. *S. of St. Lawrence*: Richelien, Sorci, Yamaska and branches, Pike, Montreal, L. Chateauguay and branches, Lacolle, Magog, Coaticook, Missiskoui.—Lakes. *N. of St. Lawrence*: White Fish, Sables, Killarney, Temiscaming, Lièvres, La Roque, Rochelave, Pothier, Nimicachinaque, Papineau, Maskinongé. *S. of St. Lawrence*: Memphramagog, Tomefobi, Missiskoui Bay, Scaswaninepus (part of), Yamaska Bay, St. Louis, Two Mountains, St. Francis, Chaudière, Chats, Allumets.

THREE RIVERS DISTRICT.—*N. of St. Lawrence*: St. Maurice and branches, Batiscau, (part of), Champlain, Du Loup G. and L. Maskinongé, Machiches. *S. of St. Lawrence*: St. Francis and branches, Nicolet and do. Becanour, Gentilly, Yamaska (part of).—Lakes. *N. of St. Lawrence*: O'Cananshing, Matawin, Goldfinch, Shasawatajata, Montalagoose, Oskelania, Crossways, Perchaudes, Blackbeaver, Bewildercd. *S. of St. Lawrence*: Nicolet, St. Francis, (part of), Pégantic, St. Paul, Outardes, Blacklake, Ccr ecticut Weedon, Scaswaninepus (part of), St. Peter.

The rural districts N. of the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Quebec, are principally occupied by the French Canadian Seigniories; and from the Isle Jesus to Three Rivers, the banks of the St. Lawrence present an uninterrupted succession of flourishing settlements. The Isle Jesus, parallel to that of Montreal, 21 miles long by 6 broad, is level, fertile, and highly cultivated. The Montreal district on the north side of the St. Lawrence, comprises the counties of Montreal, Berthier, Lachenaye, L'Assomption, Terrebonne, Two Mountains, Vaudreuil, and Ottawa, and contains a comparatively dense population. The Ottawa district, which extends more than 300 miles along the north bank of that great river, is very thinly peopled, as will be seen by the statistics of the chapter on Population.

The district of Three Rivers extends from the mouth of the River St. Anne to the upper part of Lake St. Peter, which is 25 miles long by from 5 to 10 broad. The town of Three Rivers was founded in 1618, and stands at the mouth of the St. Maurice, where it is divided by islands into three branches. There is a good wharf, where ships of large burthen may lie close to the shore. There are now about 5,000 inhabitants in the town, which derives much advantage from the excellent iron establishments on the St. Maurice.

The counties belonging to the Montreal district *south* of the St. Lawrence, north of the states of New York and Vermont, and west of the St. Francis, are those of Beauharnois, La Prairie, Acadie, Verchères, Chambly, Rouville, Richelieu, St. Hyacinthe, Shefford, Missisqui, and Stanstead. This district, where it borders on the St. Lawrence, is nearly flat, but gently undulates to the southward, and forms detached hills called Mounts Rouville, Chambly, Johnson, and Boucherville, &c.

The soil of this rich plain is exceedingly productive, and has a numerous population scattered in farms and villages, especially along the St. Lawrence. The scenery is described as extremely picturesque, being covered with "fruitful fields, luxuriant meadows, and smiling villages variegated by towering peaks." La Prairie, opposite to Montreal, is a handsome town, and in the high road of communication between Montreal and the United States. Chambly and St. John's are on the same route, and rapidly rising in importance. The counties within this district of "Three Rivers," on the *south*

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side of the St. Lawrence, are Yamaska, Nicolet, Drummond, and Sherbrooke. The country rises to the eastward, and is well irrigated by the St. Francis and several fine rivers. The land along the St. Lawrence from 8 to 10 miles inland, was bestowed in grants, and formed into seigniories, while the fine undulating tracts in the rear, reaching to the frontiers of the United States, were neglected.

At the close of the last war the government began to form townships in this region, of which there are now about an hundred. Colonel Herriot laid out Drummond Ville with some military, discharged from the army on the establishment of peace; and private settlers were attracted from the adjacent United States territories by the fertility of the soil, and other advantages. Subsequently the *British American Land Company* purchased from Government a block of land containing 596,000 acres, and other tracts from private individuals, making altogether 700,000 acres, at a cost of nearly £200,000. Of this money £60,000 has been returned to them to be expended in improvements; and they have formed a harbour at Port St. Francis on Lake St. Peter, improved the road to Sherbrooke, and rendered the country very eligible for settlers, as *improved* farms, with buildings complete, may now be purchased in any part of the eastern townships at from £150 to £300 for a lot of 300 acres.

Shefford, watered by the lower branches of the Yamaska river, is, in some places, hilly and rocky. Stanstead is diversified by hill and dale, and has, in its centre, the pleasing lake called Memphramagog. Stanstead town on the east side of the lake, within two miles of the American frontier, is large and well built. A railroad is in course of formation from Montreal through Chambly, Richelieu, St. Hyacinthe, Shefford, Sherbrooke, and Stanstead counties, to the American state of New Hampshire, from whence it is projected to continue the line to the seaports of Boston, and Portland in the United States.

The district of St. Francis is divided into 29 townships; has a broken and varied surface; hills clothed with fine timber; and much valuable and well-watered land.

The Quebec district on the S. side of the St. Lawrence contains the counties of Beauce, Bellechasse, Megantic, Lotbinière, Nicolet, Kamouraska, and Rimouski. The aspect of this district is hilly; the land stretching in

irregular ridges, intersected by extensive valleys; and from 15 to 20 miles inland, a more elevated tabular surface is formed with a gradual slope to the river St. John. The land facing the St. Lawrence was granted by the French government in seigniories, but in the rear of these, townships have been laid out for English settlers who may obtain farms in fee-simple. Kamouraska is the fashionable watering-place of the Canadians, and the fine scenery, combined with sea air, render the place very attractive. On proceeding further towards the sea the country is less populous; but the settlements of Kent and Strathearn, adjoining Lake Temisconata, formed by colonel Fraser, are rising in importance.

Along Gaspé peninsula, the land adjoining the coast has been laid out, and double ranges are now forming inland. The country will soon be cultivated extensively, and will probably become very prosperous from its valuable fisheries and mines.

The vast territory embraced in the division of Upper or Western Canada, as regards the *inhabited* parts, is in general, a level, champaign country; for, from the division line on Lake St. Francis to Sandwich, a distance of nearly 600 miles westerly, nothing like a mountain occurs, although the greater part of the country gently undulates in pleasing hills, fine slopes, and fertile vallies: but a ridge of rocky country runs in a north-east and south-west direction through the Newcastle and Midland districts, towards the Ottawa or Grand River, at the distance of from 50 to 100 miles from the north shore of Lake Ontario and the course of the River St. Lawrence. To the N. of this ridge is a wide and rich valley of great extent, which intervenes between it and a rocky and mountainous country, of still higher elevation.

Farther to the north, beyond the French river which falls into Lake Huron, are lofty mountains, some of them of great, but unknown height.

The country on the N. and W side of Lake Ontario, and of Lake Erie, which is still further west, continues flat as far as Lake Huron, with occasional elevations of easy ascent. Of this tract of country only a comparatively small portion is under cultivation, the remainder being in its primitive state of forests, lakes, and rivers; the latter for the most part falling into the great lakes, or into large rivers, which again empty themselves into that great artery of the

country, the St. Lawrence. The settlements are chiefly confined to the shores, and are seldom far distant from the borders of the great lakes and rivers. In order to convey a clear idea of the physical aspect of the province, it may be expedient to proceed at once to a description of its vast inland seas.

The lakes of West Canada are almost incalculable. The following table shows the dimension of a few of the best known:—

Names.	Length.	Breadth.	Circumference.	Aver. depth.	Elevat. above the Sea.
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Feet.	Feet.
Superior . .	360	140	1600	1000	627
Huron . . .	250	100	1000	800	504
Michigan . .	260	55	800	780	
Eric	280	63	700	250	565
Ontario . . .	180	50	500	500	234
Simcoe . . .	40	30	120	125	700
St. Clair . .	35	30	100	20	
George . . .	25			58	
Rice Lake . .	24	2 to 5	58		600

Lake Superior, called also *Ketchicogahmi* and *Missisawgaiegon*, the largest and most elevated of those singular seas, which, in Western Canada, seem to fill the place that great mountains occupy in other countries, and to affect the climate in a somewhat similar manner, is situate between the meridians of $92^{\circ} 19'$ and $84^{\circ} 18'$ W. long., and the parallels of $49^{\circ} 1'$ and $46^{\circ} 26'$ N. lat. It is in form, an irregular oblong basin, about 1,500 geographical miles in circumference, in length from E. to W. the imaginary line which, passing through its centre, divides the territory of Great Britain from that of the United States, is 300 miles; its extreme breadth (opposite Peak Island) is 140 geographical miles, with a depth, where it admits of measurement, of from 80 to 150 fathoms, but without soundings in its centre; the waters are always extremely cold, clear, and devoid of tides, or any other kind of periodical rise and fall. During heavy gales of wind, the waters of this and the other great lakes, between which a subterranean communication is supposed to exist, rise so high, that it was at first doubted whether the smaller-class steam-boats could live in them, and the ground swell, owing to the comparative shallowness, or little specific gravity of the fresh water, is so trying as to produce sea-sickness even in old sailors. [See Geology.]

This monarch of lakes is situated to the S. of, and near the continuous chain of high

lands, which, stretching from the rocky mountains to Lake Superior in broad diluvial plains and undulations, divides the waters flowing into the Mexican Gulf from those which find their exit in Hudson's Bay; and proceeding thence in an easterly direction to the coast of Labrador, constitutes the north dividing range of the valley of St. Lawrence.

The surface of Lake Superior is 627 feet above—and the bottom of its basin (so far as it has been sounded) upwards of 500 feet below the level of the Atlantic ocean; it receives 220 tributary rivers and rivulets, but owing to the immense evaporation continually taking place from Lake Superior, the volume of water which it discharges through its only outlet (the Falls of St. Mary) into Lake Huron, is far less in quantity than that which it has itself received.

The extent of the American shore along Lake Superior from the mouth of the Ontonagon is 500 miles; that of the Canadian coast is estimated at 1200 miles. Some of the rivers on the S. coast are 153 miles long; the principal of these, namely, the Ontonagon, or Coppermine, Montreal, Mauvaise, Boisbrulé, and St. Louis, communicate with the Mississippi.

Numerous islands exist in various parts of the lake, some of which are of considerable size; Isle Royale is 45 miles long by 7 or 8 broad; Caribou is about 6 miles in circumference, and the Islands of the Twelve Apostles are 23 in number, with perpendicular cliffs of sandstone on the N. and S.E., 60 feet in height. At Les Portailles and Grand Island there are perpendicular cliffs broken into the most beautiful and picturesque arches, (under some of which a boat can pass,) porticoes, columns, and caverns of large dimensions.

The shores of Lake Superior (whose direction is E. and W.) are in several places rocky, and considerably elevated, with occasional large tracts and bays of sand. From Point Iroquois to the "Pictured Rocks," it is generally sandy, from thence to the foot of the Fond du Lac, rocky. The great promontory or peninsula of Kewananon, which divides it into two equal sections, is very high at its central part, consisting of steep conical granite hills, rising 1,000 feet above the lake. The country around Lake Superior, whether on the American or on the British territory, is but imperfectly known; there is a great extent of hill and dale, and in some places ranges of what in West

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Canada may be termed mountains, 1,500 feet above the level of the lake, and consequently 2,127 feet above the level of the ocean. The Porcupine hills, 200 feet high, approach the lake on the S. shore.

At Gros-Cap (where Lake Superior is connected by the river St. Mary, with Lake Huron) the prospect is not only beautiful but magnificent; the spectator standing beneath the shattered crags 300 feet high, has before him an apparently immeasurable flood, which, if it burst its barriers, would overwhelm a continent: in front is a low island, on the S. Point Iroquois declines from a high tabular hill, and on the N.W. a picturesque and elevated country is dimly seen in the distance.

The line of rocky hills which constitutes the N. shore of Lake Superior consists of rocks and crags, piled to the height of 150 or 200 feet at the N. end, and from about 400 to 450 feet at the S. end, where they dip into the lake from an elevation of 300 feet in detached fragments, lowering successively on each other. Along the E. shore of the lake from Gros-Cap to the river Michipicoton (125 miles) are several promontories, bays, and rivers; among these are Batchewine and Huggewong bays, off the mouth of which latter is the island termed Montreal or Hogwart. The W. end of Lake Superior, termed Fond du Lac, is a slowly contracting *cul de sac* commencing in long. 91°, at the promontory opposite the isles of the Twelve Apostles, 80 miles in length, with a breadth of 8 to 10 miles at the end.

There are 139 rivers and creeks on the S. shore, but fewer in the eastern than in the western division. One of these, the St. Lewis, is 150 yards broad at its mouth, expanding immediately into a sheet of water 5 or 6 miles wide, and extending inland 23 miles, with a varying breadth. Some of the mountains near the lake rise to the height of 1,400 feet. Thunder mountain, for instance, which is of considerable breadth, several miles long, the western half being almost tabular, with the eastern irregular and hummocky. In general the hills have flat pine-clad summits. The *pictured* rocks (so called from their appearance), situate on the S. side of the lake towards the E. end, form a perpendicular wall 300 feet high, extending about 12 miles, with numerous projections and indentations in every variety of form, and vast caverns, in which the entering waves make a jarring and tremendous sound. Mr. Schoolcraft describes

them as "surprising groups of overhanging precipices, towering walls, caverns, waterfalls, and prostrate ruins, which are mingled in the most wonderful disorder, and burst upon the view in ever-varying and pleasing succession." Among the more remarkable objects are the Cascade La Portaille and the Doric Arch; the cascade consists of a considerable stream, precipitated from a height of 70 feet by a single leap into the lake, and projected to such a distance that a boat may pass beneath the fall and the rock untouched by the waters.

The Doric Arch has a most singular effect, having all the appearance of a work of art; it consists of an isolated mass of sandstone, with four pillars supporting an immense entablature of stone covered with soil, from which springs a beautiful grove of pine and spruce trees of considerable height.

The lake is subject to storms, sudden transitions of temperature, and dense fogs and mists. The mean heat for June is 66°, and for July 64°, and of the lake 61°; the winter is long and severe. The principal forest trees are white and yellow pine, oak, hemlock, spruce, birch, poplar, with a mixture of elm, maple, and ash, upon the banks of some of the rivers.

The waters of Lake Superior are very transparent, and their lower strata appear never to gain a warm temperature, for the water in a bottle sunk to the depth of 100 feet in July, and there filled, is, when brought to the surface, cold as ice. They abound nevertheless with trout (weighing from 12 to 50 pounds), sturgeon, and white fish as large in proportion, together with pike, pickerel, carp, bass, herring, and numerous other species.

The St. Mary's river, or strait, which connects Lake Superior with Lake Huron, is about 60 miles long.

The falls or rapids of St. Mary, by which travellers usually enter Lake Superior, are in length about three quarters of a mile by half a mile in breadth, the river being here narrowed by a broad tongue of land, protruding from the N. shore, and affording a site for the store-houses of the Hudson's Bay Company. The rapids are 15 miles from Lake Superior. in 46° 31' N. lat., and have a descent of 22 feet 10 inches in the narrow limit of 900 yards. The broken foaming billows are hurried with velocity over a slope of ledges and huge boulder stones, through a thickly wooded country, whose low level has permitted the formation on each side of

a number of islets, divided by channels, which are narrow on the left, but much wider on the right bank. The height of the latter varies from 10 to 50 feet, and is composed of light alluvial earth; this acclivity is more distant on the Canadian than on the American shore. The St. Mary river extends above the rapids about 15 miles, through a low well-wooded country, and its bed is from one mile to one and a half wide. The current ceases to affect boats 2 miles above the rapids. Immediately below the rapids, the St. Mary fall widens to upwards of a mile.

Lake Huron, the third from the Atlantic ocean of the great chain of lakes which occupy the four plateaus of the upper part of the valley of the St. Lawrence, is of an irregular shape. It has a circumference at the south part exceeding 720 lineal miles, and an area of 14,000 square miles. The northern part is divided by the Manitoulin islands into two parts; the eastern, called Georgian Bay, is 120 miles long by 20 broad, and has an area of 6,000 square miles; and the western, called the "North Channel," has an area of 1,700 square miles. The total superficies of the lake amounts to about 21,700 square miles. Lake Huron is nearly 594 feet above the ocean level, and has a depth of 130 feet.

Lake Michigan, is in fact, a part of the same body of water, separated only by the strait of Michilimackinac, but as it is entirely possessed by the United States, it does not come within my notice. I may, however, observe, that it is 260 miles long, by 55 broad, and 800 miles in circumference, covering an area of 16,200 square miles, or 10,368,000 acres, and navigable for ships of the largest burthen. Green Bay extends from the N. end of the lake 90 miles in a S.W. direction, with a width of from 15 to 20 miles. Across its entrance is a chain of islands, called the Grand Traverse, the channels between which admit vessels of 200 tons burthen, and sloops of equal burthen can ascend to the head of this extensive bay. From the bottom of Green Bay, boats can ascend the Ontagamis or Fox River, to within two miles of the Onisconsin, to the head of which a portage has been made, and a descent is practicable from thence to the Mississippi. The tributaries of Michigan are extremely numerous, some of them full flowing rivers, but, so far as we know, none are of any great length. Along the north shores of Lake Huron

are the Manitoulin, or Sacred Isles, many of which are from 25 to 30 miles long by 10 and 15 broad.

Drummond Island (one of the Manitoulin) is 24 miles long by from 2 to 12 broad, and at the west end approaches the main land of the United States, where it forms the strait of the True Detour, the principal commercial route to Lake Superior; the strait is scarcely a mile wide, and bounded by two promontories; the coast of the United States is here flat and woody, with morasses,—that of the island is irregular, and covered with large masses of rock. In the higher and middle parts of Drummond Isle, the elevation is from 200 to 250 feet, inclining on either side of the water, often presenting low white precipices, in broken lines, on the summit or sides of the slopes; the south coast of the island is broken into small but deep bays, with shoal points; those on the west contain many islets,—one of which, according to Dr. Bigsby, has an immense deposit of iron pyrites: the north coast is distinguished by the magnitude of its bays, and the groups of islands which cover the contiguous waters. This coast is terminated on the east, in the strait called False Detour, by a calcareous precipice of considerable beauty, 500 yards long, and 250 feet high, which forms at the top a terrace of rock, and below is separated from the lake by a narrow and high beach.

The False Detour, which separates Drummond Island from the little Manitoulin, or Cockburn Island, is from 8 to 10 miles long, and from 3 to 6 miles wide, with a mid depth of seldom less than 40 fathoms; the opening from the south is spacious and bold, it has three fine capes on the west, and one on the east. At the north outlet, the shores are very much rounded, with precipices to the west, and woody steps to the east: in front, is that part of Lake Huron termed the North Channel, studded with a few islets in pairs, and bounded in the distance by the mis-shapen hills of the northern main; on the north-west the heights of St. Joseph form a blue waving line, and on the north-east, the looming of the isles at the foot of La Cloche is just visible.

Little Manitoulin has a diameter of seven or eight miles, and an aspect somewhat similar to, though more elevated than that of Drummond Isle: the shores have successive banks or stairs formed by the debris of the lake, with here and there terraces of

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limestone, *in situ*;—inland, the surface has a rugged ascent, with protruding strata in primitive masses, intersected by short ledges, which often crown the greatest heights, and form a table land of small extent, but well wooded.

Between the Little and Grand Manitoulin is the third Detour, eight miles long by four broad, which has high shores, and is clear at both outlets.

The Grand Manitoulin, or "Sacred" Isle, is 80 miles long by 20 broad, with an area of 1,600 square miles, and deeply indented by bays, which nearly divide the island; its general features are similar to those of the two preceding named islands, only it is higher, abounds more in precipices, and is rugged throughout. At the W., its features are more majestic than those of any other part of Lake Huron. At the north end of the third Detour, its shores are lined with ranges of shingle, backed by a wooded ascent: towards the centre of this strait, ledges and low precipices begin to appear along the beach, increasing to the height of 250 feet, crowned with cedars and pines: these ledges either rise perpendicularly, or are formed by enormous piles of displaced masses, from 7 to 10 yards in diameter, sloping at a high angle, sometimes advancing into the waters of the lake, and affording a hazardous passage over their slippery sides, under arches and through winding passages. Near the south-east angle of the Detour, a bluff precipice, 40 feet high, protrudes into the water, skirted by very large cubic masses of rock. From these natural precipices arise clumps of beautiful trees, and knolls of flowering shrubs, shadowed in the background by the dense gloom of impenetrable forests.

The interior of the island appears to be well irrigated with streams and lakes. One lake, 10 miles long, is in the form of an hour-glass, 7 miles wide at the ends, and only 1 in the centre, with an area of 55 square miles. The margin of the lake is fringed with trees to the water's edge, except on the S.W. side, where the ledges rise 20 to 40 feet. This lake is 155 feet above the level of the waters of Lake Huron. Only one stream flows into it, while three large brooks run from it. Where the water is derived from, Mr. Murray (in his recent geological survey) was unable to discover. Manitoulin island is chiefly composed of limestone; which formation not infrequently has subterranean passages; the different lakes in

the island therefore possibly have a communication.

The insulated rocks called the Flower Pots are six miles S.S.E. of the fourth Manitoulin, one of them has an elevation of 47 feet, and consists of large tabular masses placed *horizontally* one upon the other, narrow below, but increasing in breadth as they ascend—the whole standing on a floor of rock projecting into the lake from the lofty island which bears their name. Cabot's Head is a singular looking head-land, in Michipocoton, or Georgian Bay, consisting of indented limestone bluffs, rising to the height of 300 feet, and skirted by numerous reefs and islets, and presenting on the S. W. a continued range of calcareous precipices.

From the French River (which connects Lake Nipissing with Lake Huron) westwards to the islands of La Cloche, about 50 miles distant, the lake near the shore is studded with innumerable islands; some near the main, barren, and chiefly composed of gneiss, are like heaps of ruins; others farther out in the lake, loftier, and girded with a belt of flat ground, consist of shelly limestone, and are richly wooded. Further west the islands of La Cloche, which derive their name from the belief that some of the islands are composed of dark rocks, which, when struck, sound like a bell, form a charming contrast to the bleak hills on the main, which rise 1000 feet above the level of the lake;—the islands, with their dark green forests diversified by grassy vales and clumps of trees, appear like an English park. Groups of islands occupy the lake from La Cloche to Missalaga River, 60 miles distant; some near the main are low and barren; others, elevated and woody; beyond the Missalaga is a low rocky shore. To the westward of Spanish River, which was discovered by captain Bayfield, in 1820, the coast is for the most part low, rugged, and has several safe and commodious harbours among its numerous islands and inlets. To the E. of the Spanish River the scenery is improved by the gradual approach of a high range of picturesque hills, which extend to the shores of the lake, about four miles W. of the Hudson's Bay Company's post at La Cloche. Their highest elevation is 482 feet above the lake. To the E. of the Manitoulin islands, the La Cloche hills recede to the northward, and the coast is generally low and destitute of vegetation.

Mr. Alexander Murray, assistant provincial geologist, in his survey of Lake Huron

(14th January, 1848), describes the north shore of the lake as poor, rocky, in some parts destitute of vegetation; in others thickly clad with trees of a stunted growth. But after passing these marginal forests of fir, spruce, pine, beech, and poplar, the interior in many places presents a very different character, especially in the valleys of the different streams, where there are frequently to be seen extensive valleys of rich and deep soil, producing maple, oak, elm, birch, and basswood, besides occasional groves of red and white pine of large size. Various places of this description have been cleared and cultivated by the Indians, and as at Spanish river, notwithstanding the rude state of aboriginal culture, the crops of maize and potatoes are nearly equal, both in quantity and quality, to those usually seen under the more enlightened system of tillage in West Canada. Mr. Murray remarks, that the Thessalon, Mississaugui, Serpent, and Spanish rivers, have the most favourable districts for cultivation.

The Thessalon and Mississaugui rise far in the interior, where the country is represented to be spotted with numerous small lakes, run in a south-east direction, and fall into Lake Huron, within 25 miles of each other. The Serpent and Spanish rivers rise to the northward, flow westward for the lower part of their course, and disembogue into Lake Huron, within 15 miles of each other.

The north-west arm of Lake Huron, which communicates with Lake Superior, is of an oblong shape, the two longer sides at their western extremities converging towards the north; it contains about 400 square miles, and is crowded with islands of all sizes; the principal, St. Joseph, is 65 miles in circumference, through it runs an undulating ridge, called the Highlands of St. Joseph, 500 feet high: the N.W. point of St. Joseph is in long. 84°, and lat. 46° 18'. Pelletan's Channel, which divides St. Joseph from the main, is remarkable for its fine scenery. The island (St. Joseph) belongs to the English, and its neighbour, Drummond Isle, to the United States, and on each are small military detachments belonging to their respective governments. Portlock Harbour, a British military position, 1100 miles from Quebec, is an extensive haven, interspersed with rocky islets, and girt by woody hills starting forth in a series of verdant or rocky capes. Muddy Lake, bounding the S.W. side of St. Joseph's

Isle, is a noble sheet of water 17 miles long, and varying from 2 to 7 in breadth; its shores are deep embayments, ending in grassy marshes, especially on the S.E. side.

Michilimakinac strait, the south-west arm of Lake Huron, leading into Lake Michigan, is 11 miles wide, and by its side is the peninsula called False Presquise. The view into Lake Michigan, from Michilimakinac Isle, which lies in the strait of that name, midway from either main, is remarkably pleasing; the land, which at first closes on the water, suddenly expands into a spacious sound, with curving shores and woody capes, with clusters of islands in the distance. The pretty hamlet of St. Ignace, the high white cliffs of Michilimakinac contrasting with the dark foliage around, and the blue light streaming through the sound from the vast lake beyond, offer a rich treat to the lovers of natural scenery. There is nothing particularly worthy of remark down the south-east shore, as far as Thunder Bay and Middle Islands, which are flat, calcareous, and well covered with timber of various kinds. Respecting the Gulf of Saguna the English know little: from Pont aux Barques to the River St. Clair, is a straight line of beach, intermixed here and there with stiff clay, and, about midway, a large block of white limestone rises from the waters of the lake.

On the elevated south-east shore of the lake, in the London district, between 43° 10' and 43° 53' of north latitude, about 40 miles at its nearest point from the head of Lake Ontario, and 30 miles from the north border of Lake Erie, is situate the fine tract termed the Huron territory, which belongs to the Canada company. It is of a triangular shape, the base is 60 miles in length, it rests on Lake Huron, and comprises an area of nearly 1,100,000 acres. Near to the confluence of the river Maitland with the lake an excellent harbour is formed, capable of sheltering vessels of 200 tons burthen, where the Canada Company have laid out the neat and flourishing town of Goderich;—the country around is fast improving under their judicious management. The surface of the Huron territory is generally level, and frequently presents rich natural meadows. The rivers Maitland, Aux Sables, a large branch of the Thames, and other rivers and streams, water this fine district.

Georgian Bay, a vast arm of Lake Huron on the north-east side, is studded with fine harbours.

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Lake Huron is Penetanguishine (lat. 44° 57', long. 79° 35'), in the south-east bight of Georgian Bay, within Gloucester harbour; it is sheltered by hills of sand and rolled blocks.

The lake we are now treating of, may be considered the centre of the great chain of waters round it, with all of which it has a direct communication. It communicates with Lake Superior by St. Mary's River; with Michigan (and through it with the Illinois river) by the Strait of Michilimackinac; with Lake Erie by the river and Lake of St. Clair; and with Lake Ontario by the Severn river,—Lake Simcoe, a chain of comparatively small lakes, and the Trent river. It has also two known communications with the Ottawa—one through Lake Simcoe, and a chain of lakes to the source of the Madawasca, which falls into the Lake des Chats—the other, up French river, through Lake Nipissing, and down a rapid river to the Ottawa, near Mataouin.

The principal rivers emptying themselves into Lake Huron are, the Thessalon, Missassagua, French, Severn, St. Clair, Maitland, and Sagouina. The two former, situate in the north-east corner of the lake, are small. French River, which connects Lake Huron with Lake Nipissing, is 75 miles in length, and resembles a multitude of rivers rather than a single stream, flowing with frequent inosculation, among lengthened ridges of rock: its shores seldom present continuous lines, but are excavated with deep and narrow bays, obscured by high walls, masses of rock, and groves of dwarf pines. Its breadth varies; sometimes it extends more than one league, and is occupied by islands of every imaginable shape. Dr. Bigsby says, few American prospects exceed in singularity and grandeur those which are here afforded, by groups of long and lofty islets extending in giant rays from a centre in some dark bay,—the clear water reflecting their rugged outlines and wild foliage, amid the solemn stillness pervading these solitudes.

Two cataracts occur in French River,—by one, it leaves Lake Nipissing; the other, called the Récollet, is 20 miles below, where the black crags in the midst of the foaming waters, skirted by pine trees, impart strange beauty to the scene.

There are also several rapids; near one, the Buisson, thirteen wooden crosses commemorate an equal number of fatal accidents which occurred in crossing the foam-

ing torrent; the average velocity of which, along the whole course of the river, is about two miles per hour.

The Sagouina River flows through a fine and level country, and has a breadth of 180 yards for 2½ miles, when it divides into three small and very circuitous branches, one of which is called Flint River. The Sagouina is 120 miles from Detroit, through the woods, and about 220 by water.

The Severn River, connecting Lakes Simcoe and Huron, is about 30 miles in length; and at its mouth, near Penetanguishine, it is one mile and a quarter in breadth; it has two falls, and a descent of 80 feet from Lake Simcoe.

The St. Clair, according to Dr. Bigsby, is the only river of discharge for Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, which cover a surface of 38½ million of acres, and are fed by numerous large rivers. I differ from this able observer, and am of opinion that the Missouri and Mississippi receive some of the waters of Superior and Michigan. It is 300 yards broad at its commencement, and flows for 26 miles, previous to its entrance into Lake St. Clair, through a luxuriant alluvial country, in a straight course, with a smooth and equable current of 2 miles an hour. At its head, there is a rapid, which flows for three quarters of a mile, at the rate of 5 miles per hour; and it enters Lake St. Clair by a multitude of shallow changeable mouths, which are, nevertheless, navigable for schooners.

Lake St. Clair is scarcely more than an intermediate link between Huron lake and the noble basin of Erie, being connected with the latter by the Detroit River; it is of an irregular oval shape, about 30 miles in diameter, with a depth of water sufficient for steam-boats and schooners. The shores are low and level, and a group of flat islands formed by the constant alluvial accumulations carried from Lake Huron by the St. Clair River, contracts its surface to the northward. This lake receives two large rivers; 1st, the Thames River (formerly Rivière à la Tranche,) which rises north of the township of Blandford, has a serpentine course of 150 miles, and discharges itself into Lake St. Clair. It is navigable for large vessels to Chatham (15 miles from its embouchure), and for boats nearly to its source; the bar at its entrance is, however, some obstacle to its free navigation. The Thames winds through a level and highly fertile country, the banks presenting many

fine plains and natural meadows. The soil is principally a sandy earth, intermixed with large quantities of loam, and sometimes marl, under which is a substratum of clay; and the river flats are exceedingly rich, from the alluvial deposits left by the overflowing of the banks. The oak, maple, pine, beech, and walnut, growing in the vicinity, are of superior quality.

London is situate on the banks of the main branch of the Thames, about 90 miles from its mouth, and in a tolerably central position with regard to the surrounding lakes. Chatham, as already observed, is 15 miles from its mouth.

The Big Bear River, or "Creek," rises near the limits of the Huron tract, and after running a course of about 100 miles generally parallel to the Thames (in one place approaching it within 5 miles), falls into Lake St. Clair at the mouth of one of its north-east channels.

The Detroit River, or rather Strait, is broad, deep, and 29 miles long; it connects Lake St. Clair with Lake Erie,—flowing, after a westerly bend, nearly due S. from the former; the greater part of its course is intersected by long narrow islands, of which the largest (Gros Isle, 8 miles long,) is within the American boundary; and the next in size (Turkey Island, 5 miles long,) is within the British territory. Isle au Bois Blanc, 1½ mile long, belonging to Upper or Western Canada, is of great importance from its situation, as it divides the channel between Gros Isle and the E. bank of the river (leaving the deepest channel on the E.), and commands the entrance of the Detroit, which is navigable for vessels of the larger size employed upon the lakes; it moreover affords, at the British settlement of Amherstburgh, an excellent harbour. Sandwich, another delightful British town, is situate 14 miles from Amherstburgh. The country around is extremely picturesque; the banks high and richly cultivated, the eye everywhere resting on fertile fields, well stocked gardens, neat farm-houses and orchards, and extensive barns. The most important American town, on the opposite bank, is Detroit, which is a strong military station. During winter, the river is completely frozen over.

We now arrive at that splendid sheet of water called—

Lake Erie, which receives the Detroit river, about 30 miles from its north-west extremity. This magnificent lake, unlike Huron or Superior (which lie generally

north and south), runs nearly east and west, between 41° 20', and 42° 50', north latitude, 78° 35', and 83° 10', west longitude, being 280 miles long, and 63½ miles broad at its centre, 700 miles in circumference, with an area of about 12,000 square miles. Its extreme depth varies from 40 to 45 fathoms, with a rocky bottom, unlike Lake Superior and Huron, which have a stiff clayey bottom mixed with shells; its average depth is from 15 to 18 fathoms; hence when the wind blows strong, the lake becomes exceedingly rough and boisterous, and a very high and dangerous surf breaks upon its shores, which often resemble the sea beach, being strewn with dead fish and shells, and frequented by various species of aquatic birds.

The surface of Erie is 334 feet above that of Lake Ontario, with which it is connected by the Welland canal, and 565 feet above the tide water at Albany, with which it is connected by the great Erie canal.

The southern shore of the lake (which is exclusively within the territory of the United States, as the north is within that of Great Britain), is generally low, from the American town of Buffalo at its eastern extremity, to Detroit at its western, except near the portage of Chataughue, where, for a short distance, it is rocky and bold, and between Cleveland and the Renshowa river, where the cliffs rise 20 yards perpendicularly above the water, and continue of the same elevation to the River Huron. Erie, an American town of some extent, with a strong battery, dock-yard, &c., lies to the S.E. of the lake. About 20 miles from its mouth, is a tract called the Sugar-loaf country, from its numerous conical hills, which average from 20 to 30 feet in height, are composed of sand and clay, and extend several miles. The beach at this part of the lake is covered with huge black rocks, against which the waves beat with incessant roar, and during spring and autumn thick mists often obscure the sky for days together.

To return to British territory, the north shore of Lake Erie is bolder and more elevated than the opposite coast, and is of an irregular form, by reason of several capes. The banks of the lake sometimes rise to the height of 100 perpendicular feet, and consist of clay and sand, broken and excavated in a thousand different ways by the action of the waves; in some places large bodies of clay project 20 or 30 feet beyond the main bank, and lofty trees, from the roots of which the soil has been swept

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away, appear supported by a few fibres. During tempests the waters suddenly rise, and beat with great violence against these sand cliffs, covering the beach, and overwhelming boats, &c. The first cape is Point Pelé, or South Foreland, on the north-west shore (near Lake St. Clair), the southernmost point of Canada, and indeed of the British dominions in North America. The next prominence is Point aux Pins (Landguard) whence there is a short westerly route to Chatham, on the Thames. Further east is Long Point, or the North Foreland (now an island), stretching eastward into the lake for about 20 miles, which forms a bay on its north-east shore. The fine river Ouse waters a thickly settled country, and falls into Lake Erie, after a course of 100 miles, where the Welland canal (see canals) which joins Erie and Ontario commences. The northern, or British shore, along the counties of Middlesex, is thickly settled.

Compared with the other great lakes, Erie, as before observed, is shallow, and is rendered rather dangerous by the numerous rocks which, for many miles together, project from the north shore, and the little shelter afforded from storms.

A constant current sets down Lake Erie when N.W. and S.W. winds prevail. The principal harbours on the south (American) shore, are Buffalo and Dunkirk (New York); Erie (Pennsylvania); Sandusky (Ohio); besides the harbour at Put-in-Bay Island.

The promontories on the north (British) side, form several good harbours and anchorage during the heavy gales which blow on this lake. Some years ago the violence of a tempest made a breach through Long Point, (North Foreland) near the mainland, converted the peninsula into an island, and actually formed a canal almost at the very spot where it had been proposed to cut one, at an estimated expense of £12,000, leaving nothing else necessary to secure a safe channel for vessels, and a good harbour on both sides, than the construction of a pier on the west side, to prevent its being choked with sand.

Both the American and Canadian shores of Lake Erie, especially towards Niagara, are among the most populous, and best settled of any districts in either country; a circumstance which accounts for the large number of vessels and steam-boats which find profitable employment on the lake. Lake Erie may be regarded as a central reservoir, from which open in all directions

the most extensive channels of inland navigation to be found in the world; enabling vessels from the lake to traverse the whole interior of the country; indeed, the map of the entire globe does not present another sheet of water so strikingly peculiar as Lake Erie, commanding, as it does, the navigable waters of North America. That justly celebrated American work, the Erie canal, commences at the city of Albany, terminates at Buffalo, in the county of Erie, and connects the waters of the Hudson river with those of Lake Erie. It is 363 miles in length, has 83 locks, (each 90 feet long in the clear, and 15 wide) of 680 feet rise and fall; having 18 aqueducts, the longest (at Rochester) 804 feet across the Genesee river; the canal is 40 feet wide at the surface, 28 at the bottom, and 4 in depth. It was commenced in 1817, and finished in 1825. Together with the Champlain canal (which extends 64 miles, with 188 feet of lockage country, connecting the Erie canal waters with those of Lake Champlain), its cost was upwards of 11,000,000 dollars, and the tolls thereon produced, some years ago, an annual income of upwards of one million dollars, which has, doubtless, since greatly increased. The Oswego canal, commencing at Syracuse in Onondaga, and terminating at Oswego, connects the Erie canal with the waters of Lake Ontario. It is 38 miles long has 123 feet lockages, was completed in 1828, and cost 565,437 Spanish dollars. There are several other canals all branching in different directions, and connecting almost every lake and river, no matter how distant.

From the N., the vessels of Ontario visit Erie, through the Welland canal and river. This river, following its windings, is about 150 miles long, 1,000 feet wide, and navigable for 30 miles. On one of its branches called the Speed, 100 miles from its mouth, lies the thriving town of Guelpi. It has been proposed to make the St. Lawrence a ship channel from Lake Ontario to Montreal, so that vessels from England may pass from Quebec into Erie, through Lake Ontario. The Ohio and Pennsylvania canals will open a communication, through the Ohio river, to the Mississippi, and another channel between Lake Erie and the Gulf of Mexico, presents itself by the way of Lakes Huron and Michigan. No country offers greater facilities for inland navigation; and as on the Grison Alps, a person may drink, without changing place, of a stream which flows into the Mediterranean, the Rhine,

and German Ocean, so it is not improbable that a point of junction may exist of the waters of the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, and the Red River of Hudson's Bay, and the Colombia River, which are embosomed in the ocean at the extreme east, west, north, and south shores of the North American continent. Lake Erie is 560 feet above the tide waters of the Hudson, St. Clair 10 feet higher, Huron 19, and Superior 53, the last-mentioned being 642 feet above the ocean level. The sources of the Mississippi, which runs 3,420 miles, are 1,330 feet above the level of the sea.

The *Niagara River*, which connects Erie and Ontario Lakes, commences at the N.E. extremity of the former, and is the outlet not only of the waters of Erie, but also of the vast basins of Lakes Huron, Michigan, Superior, and their thousand tributaries. The river is 33½ miles long in its bends (28 direct), and traverses a country unrivalled in richness and fertility. When first assuming the character of a river at Fort Erie, it is one mile wide, but soon contracts its bed, at Black Rock, to half a mile, and becomes rapid; then again expanding to its original dimensions, it flows on more gently, its general direction being from S. to N. From the ferry at Black Rock, where the current is 7 miles an hour, may be seen in perfection the mighty mass of waters rushing from the inland seas to join the parent ocean. Beyond Black Rock the river widens to enclose Grand Isle, 12 miles long, and 2 to 7 miles broad, with Square Isle at its head, and Navy Island at its foot (the only one in the Niagara river not ceded to the United States, by the decision of the commissioners, under the 6th article of the treaty of Ghent). Below Navy Island the river resembles a bay, being more than 2 miles in breadth, and then narrowing down the rapids to the far-famed Falls of Niagara, which are 20 miles from Lake Erie;—the whole river is navigable, except below Chippewa, where the indraught of the cataract begins to be felt.

Niagara Falls.—This celebrated cataract has been so often and so eloquently described, as scarcely to need more than a brief statement of the leading facts connected with it.

The river Niagara, previous to arriving at the ledge of limestone rocks (see geological section), over which it is precipitated with tremendous velocity, takes a sudden turn or bend to the N.N.E., its previous course

having been latterly due W., and forms what is termed the "Horseshoe Fall;"—the bend increases the violence of the rapid. On the New York side of the river, a small islet, termed Goat Island, separates a portion of the mighty torrent, and beyond it the cataracts on the British-American side may be said to commence. [See map.]

Of these the Horseshoe cataract is the largest; the curvatures of the fall have been geometrically computed at 700 yards, and its altitude, taken with a plumb line from the summit of the Table Rock, 149 feet; the American fall, narrowed by Goat Island does not exceed 375 yards in curvilinear length (the whole irregular semicircle measures nearly three-quarters of a mile); its perpendicular height being 162 feet, or 13 feet higher than the top of the Great Fall; adding 57 feet for the fall, the rapids thus give a total of 219 feet, which is less than that of other cataracts. The following estimate by an American writer, showing the height of various falls in different parts of the globe, may enable the general reader to form a better estimate of the comparative importance of those in our territory:—The Montmorency river, 9 miles below Quebec, 50 feet in breadth, fall of 250 feet; Chaudière, near the Montmorency, 100 feet; Mississippi, above its junction with the Ohio, 700 feet wide, fall 40 feet; Missouri, 500 miles from its sources, descent in 18 miles of 360 feet—the river is 1000 feet broad, one cataract is 87 feet broad, another 47, and another 26; Passaic, N. Jersey, stream 150 feet wide, falls into a chasm only 12 feet broad, 70 feet; Mohawk, at Cahoes, near its junction with the Hudson, 60 feet; Tuccoa, stream 20 feet wide, 187 feet; the Ache, in Bavaria, fall in 5 steps, 200 feet; Tequendama, South America, the river Bogota, rises in the mountains 9000 feet above the level of the sea, and is precipitated through various gorges, chasms, and precipices, until it plunges into an immense chasm, 600 feet; Nile, at Syene, 40 feet; Gothea, in Sweden, fall at Trollhatta, 100 feet; Lattin, in Swedish Lapland, half a mile wide, fall 400 feet; Maamelven, in Norway, as related by Mr. Esmark, fall in three places; Schaffhausen, 400 feet wide, fall 70 feet; Orco, from Rosa, in Italy, descends in one continued cascade 1,200 feet; Staubbach, in Switzerland, a small stream, fall 1,400 feet; Terni, 45 miles N. of Rome, the river Velino fall, over marble rocks, 300 feet; at Tivoli, 18 miles N.E. of Rome, the

Anio, a branch of the Tiber, fall 100 feet. The magnificence of the falls of Niagara consists in the immense volume of water precipitated over them, which has been computed at 2,400 millions of tons per day=100 millions per hour! A calculation made at Queenston, below the falls, is as follows:—the river is here half a mile broad; it averages 25 feet deep; current 3 miles an hour; in 1 hour it will discharge a column of water 3 miles long, half a mile wide, and 25 feet deep, containing 1,111,440,000 cubic feet, being 18,524,000 cubic feet, or 113,510,000 gallons of water each minute.

Goat island which divides, and perhaps adds to the sublimity of the falls, is 330 yards wide, and covered with vegetation; the eastern or American bank of the river, and the islands thereon, are low and also covered with vegetation, which, with its soft beauty, is in strong contrast to the awful scene beneath; the W., or British, bank is more bold and lofty, consisting of a horizontal ridge of rocky table-land along the margin of the rapids, and gradually increasing in elevation from 10 to 100 feet; at the foot of this ridge, on a level with the summit of the Horseshoe Fall, is the Table Rock, famous as the spot where a close view of the cataract may be obtained; indeed it forms a section of the ledge over which part of the torrent is precipitated; its flat surface jutting out horizontally about 50 feet, and overhanging the terrific gulf.

At the foot of the cataract it is possible, though hazardous, to penetrate 30 yards behind the gigantic concave sheet of the headlong flood, where a cavern is formed of about 150 feet in height, 50 in breadth, and 300 in length, well adapted for the habitation of its present tenants—the eel and the water snake. The perilous path lies along the narrow margin of whirling eddies, beneath impending rocks, and amidst the jarring elements; great self-possession is therefore necessary in making the attempt, for one false step, or the least giddiness, might plunge the adventurer into the horrible vortex; a danger the more imminent because the path leads over sharp, broken, and excessively slippery rocks, on which it is extremely difficult to retain a footing, owing to the perpetual mossy moisture they imbibe from the oozing crevices of the superincumbent cliffs. This dangerous chasm is considered the best place for estimating the height of Niagara—that vast body of water which four great lakes, the least of which is

700 miles in compass, and which altogether comprise an area of 100,000 square miles pour forth to the ocean—and the overwhelming fury with which the mighty mass foams and boils when rushing from the precipice. Here also may best be witnessed the prismatic colours in all their changing beauty, as they form with the clouds of rising spray—while the snow-white billows rolled out by the meeting waters, and the awful roar sent up from the deep abyss, with the apparently trembling and quivering motion, imparted even to the massive rocks, produce an effect on the mind of the beholder, of which it is impossible to convey an adequate idea.

But from the Table Rock above, the Falls appear less terrific, but even more beautiful. The spectator may approach so near that, if he possess nerve enough, he may, by lying prostrate on the rock, and stretching forth his arm, move his hand in the dread torrent; but it is a fearful experiment, owing to the bewildering noise of the cataract. Here may be distinguished the first ripple by which the increasing rapidity of the Niagara is marked; the eye may follow it downwards in its growing impetuosity, where its waves roll in crested curls; or watch them where they no longer roll but rush with a loud roar of wild confusion, or uniting in a sheet of transparent emerald green, plunge into the gulf, and rising again in infinitely divided spray, float gossamer-like in mid air.

Colonel Bouchette observes that, according to the altitude of the sun, and the situation of the spectator, a distinct and bright Iris is seen amidst the revolving columns of mist that soar from the foaming chasm, and shroud the broad front of the gigantic flood; both arches of the bow are seldom entirely elicited, but the interior segment is perfect, and its prismatic hues are extremely glowing and vivid; the fragments of a plurality of rainbows are sometimes to be seen in various parts of the misty curtain.

The charm of this extraordinary scene is enhanced by the sight of the wild duck, and other water fowl, swimming down the rapids to the brink of the precipice, then flying out and re-descending with manifest delight—while above, the blue bird and the wren, during their annual visit to Niagara, fly within one or two feet of the brink, and sport over the frightful fall with evident enjoyment, now verging on the crystal stream that flows over the precipice, now dipping a wing in the bright green wave or skimming

swiftly along its surface:—who would not wish at such a moment for the wings of a bird? The sound of the falls is audible at various distances according to the state of the air, and the direction of the wind; it has been clearly distinguished at Buffalo, 18 miles distant, and some say the noise has been distinctly heard at Toronto, on the opposite shore of Lake Ontario, a distance of 46 miles. The roar of the Niagara is almost indescribable, being an alternation of open and muffled sounds, likened by some to the hoarse voice of ocean surges heavily lashing the shore—by others to the heavy plunge of huge spherical rocks hurled in quick and ceaseless succession from a precipice of great altitude, into waters of unfathomable depth—and among many other similitudes, its roaring, rumbling, thundering noise, is said to approximate most nearly to the pealing artillery of two large squadrons at sea in thick weather, the auditor being about five miles distant; such as may have been heard on the heights of Aboukir, when the fleets of Nelson and Bruce sent the reverberating echo of their dread hostilities along the Nile. A "suspension bridge" for Niagara is in progress, composed of wire, which it is supposed will be capable of sustaining a weight of 300 tons, to be conveyed over at a rate of 10 miles an hour. There are to be two tracks for carriages, and one for foot passengers. It is to be formed of three spans, with abutments 200 feet high. The estimated cost is 200,000 dollars.

A little below the falls, the Niagara resumes its wonted soft beauty, and flows calmly onward to Ontario, a distance of 13 miles. On reaching Queenston, 6 miles from the falls (Upper or Western Canada side), the face of the country suddenly alters, and rises in abrupt and elevated ridges, which are supposed to have been the banks of the river in former ages. About 4 miles above Queenston, is a singular part of the Niagara river called the whirlpool, the mouth of which is more than 1000 feet wide, its length being about 2000 feet. Mr. Howison, in his interesting sketches of Upper Canada, says, that the river has formed a circular excavation in the high and perpendicular banks, resembling a bay. The current, which is extremely rapid, whenever it reaches the upper point of this bay, forsakes the direct channel, and sweeps wildly round the sides of it;—having made this extraordinary circuit, it regains its original course, and rushes with perturbed velocity

between two perpendicular precipices, not more than 400 feet asunder. The surface of the whirlpool is in a state of continual agitation. The water boils, mantles up, and writhes in a fearful manner that proves its depth, and extreme compression; the trees that come within the sphere of the current, are swept along with a quivering zig-zag motion which it is difficult to describe. This singular body of water must be several hundred feet deep, and is not known to have been frozen over, although in spring the broken ice that descends from Lake Erie collects in such quantities upon its surface, and becomes so closely wedged together, that it resists the current, and remains there till broken up by the warm weather. The whirlpool is one of the greatest natural curiosities in the Upper province, and is the more remarkable, because unaccounted for by the ordinary laws of nature.

Fort George, or Niagara, or Newark, formerly the seat of government, (distant from Toronto, round the head of Lake Ontario, about 40 miles) is situate upon a rising ground on the W. bank of the River Niagara, within a mile of the angle formed by the river and the lake. From Fort George along the Niagara river to Queenston, a distance of eight miles, there is a considerable elevation of the land on either side of the river, extending both E. and W. about 14 miles. The land rises for 10 miles further to Chippewa, but the river is only navigable for large vessels as far as Queenston, where it is about 200 yards broad; from thence to the falls it seldom exceeds 50 or 60 yards in width.

The Niagara River enters Lake Ontario in N. lat. 43° 15' 30", long. 79° 00' 40"; the difference of height between its efflux and afflux being 334 feet on a distance of 36½ miles. Thus—difference of elevation between Lake Erie and the head of the rapids (distance 23 miles) 15 feet; thence to the foot of the rapids (half a mile) 51 feet; height of the great fall on the American side, 162 feet; from the base of the falls to Queenston (distance 13 miles) 10½ feet; and from Queenston to Lake Ontario, 2 feet—total, 334 feet.

Lake Ontario is the last link in the chain, and the most easterly of the great inland American seas, which may well rank among the wonders of the world. It lies E. and W., nearly half being in the state of New York, and is situate between the parallels 43° 10'

and $44^{\circ} 11'$ N. lat., and the meridians of $76^{\circ} 25'$ and $79^{\circ} 56'$ W. long.; in form it is elliptical, and measures 172 miles on a central line drawn from its S.W. to its N.E. extremity; in its greatest breadth 59 miles, medial 40, and about 500 miles in circumference; its surface being 234 feet above the tide waters at Three Rivers, on the St. Lawrence, and at Albany, on the Hudson. The breadth varies greatly; from Toronto (York) to Niagara it is 35 miles; from Presqu'île to Genessee river, 60 miles; from Ernest town to Oswego, 55 miles; and from Kingston to Sacket's Harbour, round the head of Wolf or Grand Island, 36 miles. According to some examinations, the depth also varies very much, there being seldom less than 3, or more than 50 fathoms; except in the middle, where, at a depth of 300 fathoms no soundings have been obtained. The shores of Ontario are generally covered with gravel, consisting principally of small pieces of limestone, worn smooth by the action of the water; the gravel is deposited on the beach in long ridges, sometimes several miles in extent, and when consolidated with the clayey soil which generally abounds along the shore, it becomes firm under the feet, and furnishes an excellent material for the formation of roads. The water of Ontario, like that of the other lakes, and of the St. Lawrence river, is limpid and pure (though not equally so with that of Lake Huron or part of Lake Michigan), except when mixed with particles of earth from the shore, by the agitation of the winds (those of the Ohio and Mississippi are turbid, like the Ganges and Rinoco); the water of Ontario is used for drink, and also for washing, though it is not so suitable for the solution of soap as rain water. For a few days in June the water near the shores is annually covered with a yellowish scum, rendering it unfit for culinary or other purposes: the cause of this phenomenon is unknown. During the height of summer, the shore-water is too warm for pleasant drinking, unless kept some hours in a cool cellar. Gales of wind on this lake are frequent, and attended with an unpleasant "sea." Every seven years the waters of the lake rise to an unusual height, for which no satisfactory reason has as yet been given. The refractions which take place on Ontario in calm weather are very remarkable; islands and trees appear turned upside down; the white surf of the beach seems to be translated aloft; large fountains of water appear to swell upon the horizon.

The physical aspect of the shores of Ontario exhibits great diversity; towards the N.E. they are low, with swampy marshes; to the N. and N.W. the banks assume a bold appearance; which again subside to almost a plain on the southern or American shore; but well relieved, in the back-ground, by a ridge of hills, which, after forming the precipice of the Niagara cataract, stretch away to the eastward. The country bordering the lake is well wooded, and through the numerous openings, the prospect is enlivened by flourishing settlements; the view being extremely picturesque along the white cliffs of Toronto, heightened on the N. by the remarkable high land over Presqu'île, called the Devil's Nose.

A range of high land runs from the Bay of Quinté, on the N.W. of the lake, along the northern shores of Ontario to the westward, at a distance, in some places, of not more than 9 miles from them (as at Hamilton), dividing the numerous streams and head waters falling into that lake from those descending N. into the river Trent, Rice Lake, Otanabee river, and the contiguous chain of lakes. At Toronto (York) this ridge recedes N.E. from the lake to the distance of 24 miles, separating the waters of Holland river, and other streams falling into Lakes Huron and Simcoe, from those discharging themselves into Lake Ontario. The ridge then bending round the heads of the Toronto river and its tributary streams, divides them from those of the Grand or Ouse river, pursues a south-eastwardly direction towards the head of the lake, merges in the Burlington Heights, and runs along the shores of Burlington Bay, and the S.W. side of Lake Ontario (at a distance of from 4 to 8 miles), to Queenston Heights; the direction continuing eastward until it stretches into the territory of the United States, to Lockport on Erie Canal (12 miles from Lake Ontario), which it crosses and with which it runs parallel, until it arrives at Rochester, on the Genessee banks, where it subsides; thus, as it were, forming the shores of the original basin of the lake, as far as regards the greater part of its northern and southern boundary. The ridge on the American side of Lake Ontario is called the Ridge Road, or Alluvial Way; it extends 87 miles from Rochester, on the Genessee, to Lewiston, on the Niagara, and is composed of common beach sand and gravel-stones worn smooth, intermixed with small shells; its general width is from 4 to 8 rods, and it rises in the

middle in a handsome crowning arch, from 6 to 10 feet in height; at Genessee and Niagara its elevation is about 130 feet.

Many tributaries flow into Lake Ontario; which receives from the state of New York the rivers Niagara, Genessee, Oswego, and Black river, besides many smaller streams. Almost all these have a sand bar across their entrance. Among its bays, on the same side are Chaumont, Sodecs (Great and Little) Toronto, and Braddocks.

The principal river on the N. British shore is the Trent, which issues out of Rice Lake, and after a very circuitous course of 100 miles, falls into the Bay of Quinté, near the village of Sidney. The Otanabee, which falls into the N. shore of Rice Lake, may be considered a continuation of the Trent river; of which Rice Lake is merely an expansion, as is so frequently the case in American rivers. The Otanabee, like the Trent, is a broad and full river, and both are navigable for boats. From its source in Trout Lake, it communicates by a chain of lakes with Lake Simcoe, through which it is proposed to open a canal communication between Lakes Huron and Ontario.

Simcoe Lake, in Home district, between Lakes Huron and Ontario, with an area of 300 square miles, is the most extensive interior lake of Upper Canada; the elevation of its surface (estimated by the height of the frequent falls and cascades by which its outlet is broken) is 100 feet above the level of Lake Huron, and, therefore, much higher than either Lakes Erie or Ontario. It is proposed to connect Simcoe with Huron and Ontario Lakes by canals; which, however, would require frequent lockage, though the distance is comparatively small. The lands in the vicinity of Lake Simcoe are remarkably fine; and from the depth of soil and equality of the surface, peculiarly easy of cultivation.

Rice Lake, in the district of Newcastle, about 15 miles from Lake Ontario, and lying nearly S.W. and N.E., is 25 miles long by 5 wide. Its name is derived from the wild rice growing on its margin and in the surrounding marshes.

Several navigable bays occur on both sides of Ontario, particularly on the British shore, where Quinté and Burlington Bays stand conspicuous; the commodiousness of the latter (in the S.W. angle of the lake) was impaired by a sand bank—but this disadvantage is now remedied by a canal, which renders this safe and capacious bay

highly valuable; Quinté bay is secure, but its navigation rather intricate, owing to the windings and indentations of the shore of Prince Edward peninsula, by which it is fronted, together with many islands which, clustering at the end of the lake, divide its extremity into several channels. Stoney and Grenadier islands are at the east end of Ontario; Wolfe, or Grand Island, is at the entrance of the St. Lawrence; and the celebrated Thousand Islands are just below Wolfe or Grand Island—which, being placed at the commencement of the Catarqui (Iroquois, or St. Lawrence) River, forms two channels leading into Kingston Harbour, bearing the names of the North, or Kingston Channel, and the South, or Carleton Island Channel.

Of the harbours, the most considerable, on the American side, is Sacket's Harbour, which is an excellent haven on the S.E. shore, well fortified, with extensive arsenals and excellent docks for the construction of the largest-sized ships of war. One of the three-decker ships of war built here by the Americans during the war, had 182 feet 8 inches keel, 212 feet on the lower gun deck, and 52 feet beam: 800 shipwrights were employed 42 days in running up this immense vessel.

Toronto, formerly called Little York, is situated in the township of York, near the N.W. extremity of Lake Ontario, in 43° 39' N. lat., 79° 36' W. long. The harbour covers an area of 8 square miles, and is formed and well-sheltered by a long low sandy, almost insulated peninsula, in some places not 60 yards broad, but widening at its extremity to nearly a mile, where there is a good light-house with an elevation of 70 feet. In 1793 when Mr. Bouchette visited this spot, he found dense forests, and a solitary wigwam. In 1794 the first rudiments of a British settlement were formed.

In 1817 Toronto contained 1,200, and in 1826 only 1,700 inhabitants. For five miles around scarcely one improved farm could be seen adjoining another; the average being one farm-house in every three miles. Toronto had no brick houses, no tinued roofs, no plank sidewalks: the stumps of trees remained in the streets; the site of the present excellent market place was an unhealthy bog—no banks, no markets, no sewers—a few stores, and scarcely a schooner frequenting its wharfs. Now Toronto contains 30,000 busy and intelligent citizens—rows of handsome brick buildings roofed

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with tin—numerous places of worship—splendid shops or stores, with plate glass windows—gas-lit and macadamized streets—town or city hall—a noble university—wharfs loaded with produce, and crowded with steam-boats and schooners—board of trade—mechanics' institute—public baths—a fixed and floating property estimated at £5,000,000;—and around and about the city, in all directions, villas, farms, fine orchards and gardens. The principal entrance to the city is Yonge-street—a broad macadamized road, which runs several miles into the interior, studded on either side with mansions, dwellings, and cottages of the most pleasing and comfortable aspect. There is a race-course, cricket-ground and racket-court, and a bowling-green, not excelled by any out of England. The college under the direction of Mr. Barron, and the university presided over by Dr. McCaul, are institutions of high repute. They are liberally endowed, and the instruction given in all branches of learning is on a solid basis and for reasonable terms.

The new college consists of five neat brick buildings, surmounted by an ornamental dome. A railroad is projected from Toronto to the mouth of Shawgane on Lake Huron river, 60 miles N. of Goderich, where a good harbour can be made. The distance to Lake Huron by the proposed route is 120 miles.

The classification of the Population of Toronto, and the Division of Wards, is shown in the Census of the City of Toronto, Canada, for 1845, compiled from the Assessor's Returns:

	WARDS.					Total.
	St. David's.	St. Patrick's.	St. Andrew's.	St. Lawrence.	St. George's.	
Males over sixteen	1972	1229	1126	901	450	5678
Males over five and under sixteen	795	609	500	291	169	2355
Males under five	591	460	300	214	123	1752
Females over sixteen	2115	1317	1169	740	532	5863
Females over five and under sixteen	805	555	479	260	166	2271
Females under five	649	454	364	206	114	1787
Total	6931	4624	3988	2618	1545	*
* Total						19,708
Total in 1835						9,765
Increase						9,941

RELIGIOUS PERSUASIONS.

Denominations	Wards.					Total.
	St. David's.	St. Patrick's.	St. Andrew's.	St. Lawrence.	St. George's.	
Church of England	2636	1940	1780	1233	779	8307
Church of Scotland	297	230	183	149	69	928
Presbyterian Church of Canada	620	437	325	188	127	1597
United Secession Church	147	106	57	19	26	355
Independent Presbyterians	1	4	—	—	2	7
Church of Rome	1738	624	708	641	335	4046
British Wesleyan Methodists	402	448	321	112	68	1401
Wesleyan Methodist Church in Canada	437	219	184	60	15	924
Episcopal Methodists	2	—	—	—	—	6
Primitive Methodists	119	83	42	14	62	310
Other Methodists	25	113	43	15	4	200
Congregationalists	199	171	107	43	52	572
Lutherans	—	—	—	—	—	2
Jews	—	—	—	2	10	12
Disciples of Christ	42	14	21	19	1	100
Universalists	—	—	11	1	—	12
Covenanters	23	28	—	—	—	25
Baptists	122	187	138	43	3	493
Quakers	5	2	—	—	—	9
Unitarians	13	2	—	—	—	20
Millerites	11	13	18	—	—	42
Christian	1	—	—	—	—	1
Socialists	2	—	—	—	—	2
Mormon	—	—	1	—	—	1
No Religion	130	23	46	60	21	274

An intending settler, in a journey in 1844 through the country north of Toronto, recorded the following observations, which may interest immigrants:—

“With the drive through the beautiful country on either side the Great North-road (Yonge-street) we were highly delighted. The crops, though late, were luxuriant, and hold out to the farmer promise of a large return, and good prices. Gentleman's seats and handsome farm-houses, cheered the sight until we reached the 'Oak Ridges.' We there found the road naturally very good though a gravel track, and arrived at the 'Pinnacle Inn,' after attaining a height of 800 feet above the waters of Ontario;—having passed the picturesque little sheet of water called 'Bond Lake' on the right, said to be without soundings; a little beyond the 'Pinnacle,' the road gradually descends, until the eye at length rests upon a rich and widely extended region, consisting of hill and dale, thickly covered with rich farms of the most valuable description. Before us lay this beautiful picture, stretching fifteen or twenty miles, whilst far off to the right we now and then obtained peeps at the vales of Newmarket and Davidtown. On our left we passed scores of thriving, beautiful farms, whose brick houses and comfortable out-buildings betokened the wealth of the owners. Among these stands conspicuous the handsome residence of Captain Irving. At Holland Landing (head of the Holland River) we came to a pretty little village, with mills, shops, &c., and were comfortably lodged at Fraser's hotel, after a pleasing drive of six miles. The following morning at seven we were on board the well regulated steam-boat Simcoe. A calm lake and the good fare provided by our obliging and intelligent host, Captain Laughton, made this part of our excursion

peculiarly pleasant. The windings of Holland River for seven miles through a meadow of reeds and wild grass are extremely curious; in one instance the angle of the Elbow was so acute, that the head of the boat was within a few points of the compass of the house from which we started. This prairie abounds with wild duck, and on its margin are found woodcock and snipe, in numbers to gratify the most fastidious sportsman. Emerging from this crooked stream, we struck boldly into the transparent waters of old Simcoe. On the east shore of the lake, and seven miles from the mouth of the river, we stopped at Roach's Point, a pretty little settlement, with an inn, store, &c. The farms we passed in coming to this place studded thickly the whole shore, and the wheat crops particularly were remarkable for their fine appearance. Leaving this place we passed close to Snake Island, a pretty spot, containing 400 acres, or thereabouts. Here the Government has erected twenty or more comfortable cottages for Indian families, who pass their time happily and profitably in cultivating their farms, in hunting and in fishing. A church with a tin-covered spire is soon to be built for them; this will greatly add to the present cheering aspect of their little hamlet. Twelve miles from Roach's Point, after runding by scores of fine farms and fields waving with luxuriant wheat, we came to Jackson's Landing, a sheltered, pretty little nook, with a shore so bold that the steamer could anywhere lie alongside it. A little in the rear of this harbour is a populous settlement on the road leading to Toronto. Near the Landing is the fine farm and pretty stone cottage, with green verandah, of Captain Bouchier, R.N. A mile beyond this, the spire of a neat church rears its head above the rich surrounding foliage. A resident clergyman is in charge. Near the church, on a pretty jutting point, stands the handsome residence of Mrs. Silbald, surrounded apparently by that neatness and comfort which render a country life desirable. Captain Lee's fine farm, and one belonging to Mr. Campbell (late of the North American Hotel), adjoin that of Mrs. Silbald. The forest is here pierced every quarter of a mile by a pretty clearing, with its dwelling, barns, and out-houses around it, until we arrive at Heavertown, or Little Talbot, where the lesser branch of the Talbot River falls into the lake. We passed between the main shore and Georgina Island, a naturally beautiful spot, six miles in length, and containing perhaps 2000 acres. It belongs, like all the other islands, to the Indians, and is taken care of by the Government for their use as a hunting and fishing station.

Heavertown, or Heaverton, is a flourishing little place, contains two saw-mills and a grist-mill, and is supported by a fine settlement in the rear; the water would drive extensive machinery. Opposite this village is another Indian island, called Thorah Island, containing about 1,200 acres. Beyond this we passed the mouth of the Great Talbot River, over which a bridge was visible from the boat. We now came to Chewitt's Point, in the township of Mara, and then stretched across a deep bay, to Creighton Point. This is a beautiful strip of land, containing upwards of 900 acres, covered with fine forest trees, among which the elm, the ash, the oak, and the maple predominate. On this Point the Indians make every spring many thousands of pounds of maple sugar. This beautiful Point, together with the whole frontage, until we passed through the Narrows (probably fifteen miles along the line of shore), is the property of Captain Creighton, of To-

ronto, who purchased it as long since as 1831. We now rapidly approached the beautiful entrance to the far-famed Narrows.

Lake Simcoe is in length about 45 miles, and varies in breadth from 2 to 20 miles; perhaps the widest part is between Thorah and the county town, Barrie. The basin which contains this limpid lake is formed of secondary limestone, alternating with clay and marl. At Holland Landing the lake has evidently receded from the foot of the hill, where Thorne's mill now stands. This hill branches off to the north at the Landing, and passing by the rear of the Barrie, skirts the lake until it arrives at the Narrows, where, passing in rear of the little village of Orillia, it shoots away toward the north-west. On the east shore of the lake the soil is said to be richer than that on the west. This may be occasioned by the westerly winds causing the *debris* of the west bank to be deposited on the shore. The country rises gradually from the water on the east shore of the lake, until it attains an elevation of 300 feet. The circumference of Lake Simcoe being 120 miles, it is natural to suppose so large a body of water would make for itself a channel in some direction. This has been effected at the Narrows, where the hills begin to recede from the lake. At this point there is a perceptible current toward the north, which, increasing as it flows through this contracted highway, acquires the velocity of three or four miles per hour, until it becomes mingled with the waters of the pretty Lake Couchiching, Lake Coe-ha-sing is 40 miles in circumference, and forms at its N.W. extremity the river Severn. Here its waters, mingled with those of Lake Simcoe, are hurried over rocky precipices and rapids, until finally they reach the surface of Lake Huron. The Narrows, from shore to shore, are only 300 yards. The bottom is a greasy marl, through which the water has worn a channel nine feet deep, and only thirty feet in width. We saw shoals of large fish as we passed through, the transparency of the water enabling us to distinguish the class they belonged to at a depth of several feet. The steamer at length landed us within the little lake, at the village of Orillia. A comfortable inn and clean beds induced us to prolong our stay three days. At Orillia a good road conducts the traveller to Coldwater, on Lake Huron. About 2,000 bushels of surplus wheat were purchased last winter at Mr. Dallas's fine mills, near the Narrows, for which he paid (and is now paying) 5s. each per bushel. At Holland Landing 10,000 bushels were brought from the circuit of the lake, and produced the same price. In the Indian village in Lake Couchiching, are quarries of free-stone, limestone of several shades and kinds, and abundance of fire-stone. These quarries are worked without the use of gunpowder, and produce slabs of an extraordinary size. The day is probably not far off when all the pretty points at the Narrows will be studded with the cottages of gentlemen, attracted thither by the healthfulness of the climate, the beauty of the scenery, or the richness of the soil. Shooting they will have in abundance; and the waters abound with maskinonge, the white-fish, salmon-trout, black bass, and herrings of a very fine and large kind; the smaller fish are also plentiful.

Any, one of the townships beyond Lake Simcoe, now in progress of settling, is about seventeen miles in length, and averages about seven miles in breadth. It is bounded on the west and north by Lake Huron, on the east by Penetanguishene Bay and Pentan-

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quishene-road, and on the south by the Township of Flos. The village of Penetanguishene is situated on the east side of this township, near the southern extremity of Gloucester Bay. In this village there are four merchants' stores; but their trade is chiefly with the Indians for fur. The buildings, with the exception of about four or five, are all of log. The inhabitants, in all, are probably about one hundred, and are chiefly composed of French Roman Catholic Canadians, a good deal intermixed with half-caste Indians, and are principally dependent on the fur trading and fishing for their support. There is a Catholic church and clergyman in the place, and a rather large congregation is afforded between the village and neighbouring settlement. There are now about a thousand inhabitants, who have grist and saw-mills, and are rapidly thriving. About two miles further north, or up the Bay, on the Township of Tay Side, there are Government Barracks and a military establishment."

On the margin of Lake Ontario, between Toronto and Kingston, the whole country is extremely fertile and beautifully cultivated. Port Hope, Cobourg, Bond Head, and Whitby are the principal towns and ports.

Newcastle harbour, in the township of Grathame, is situate somewhat more than half-way between Toronto and Kingston; it is well protected from winds, and almost encircled by a peninsula, which projects in a curve into the lake, forming a basin of sufficient depth for shipping, and affording a good landing. The harbour is somewhat difficult of entrance.

Peterborough, the district town of Newcastle, is well placed at the foot of a series of rapids formed by numerous scattered inland lakes and streams. A recent visitor says:—

"Between the village of Peterborough and the navigable waters in the rear, a space of eight miles intervenes, presenting a wild turbulent rush of waters, alternately swift streams, dangerous rapids, and every mile or so a noisy cascade. The river flows through a limestone formation, in some instances stretching from bank to bank, one hundred yards of solid smooth rock. Beyond this chain of rapids the waters spread out in every form and shape the imagination can suggest. Lakes varying in size from one to ten and twelve miles in diameter—the rolling lands covered to the margin with the luxuriant foliage of boundless and magnificent forests: the soil singularly fertile; the climate favourable to human health. Along the surface of these waters the voyager may sail in deeply-laden boats for ninety miles east and west, and thirty miles north and south: but the stillness of the forest is around him, with few exceptions nothing greets his gaze save the monotonous outline of the sombre and gloomy forest; an occasional savage may be seen chasing the deer, spearing his fishy prey, or awaiting the dark clouds of wild fowl which resort to these haunts almost undisturbed. The signs of civilization are few and far apart—stretching away to the west, and ascending a deep placid river, bounded by high cliffs of limestone,

the voyager approaches a fall but little known, yet combining in an eminent degree all the attributes which constitute beauty. From Balsam Lake, an opening of circular form and immense depth, Indian traders are in the habit of ranging the country along the shallow streams, until they gain the waters of Simcoe on one side, and approach those of the Ottawa on the other; but as yet no indications of settlement or agricultural improvement are perceptible. Descending the stream from that point, we first enter a small lake surrounded with swelling ridges of pine, from whence the waters pass through a channel called after an ancient Indian tribe who dwelt upon its margin, and whose graves yet remain—the Otonabee, a name soft and musical if pronounced in the Indian dialect. This stream leads the navigator into Rice Lake, from thence he passes down the Trent into the Bay of Quinte. Such are the outlines of the country—such the facilities and difficulties of its navigation."

In 1827 the spot on which is now the flourishing town of Guelph, with its surrounding rich agricultural district, was a dense, untrodden wilderness. The value of the land along the Detroit river in the western district increased 300 per cent. in three years. Dr. Rolph, writing in 1841, stated that "some farmers who would have sold their farms two years ago for 1,200 dollars, have refused this year 20,000 dollars for the very same property."

The town plot of London at the forks of the Thames, was only surveyed in 1826, it now contains five thousand inhabitants; a thousand houses; a court house, several temples of worship, large market-place, schools, public libraries, hotels, and many excellent merchants' stores. A fifth of an acre for building fronts, recently sold at the rate of £100 an acre, whereas the original town lots had cost but £10 an acre.

Hamilton is a flourishing town at the western extremity of Ontario. It contains buildings which would be no disgrace to any city in Europe. An extensive nail manufactory has been established, with machinery equal to any other of the kind in America. Forty acres of land that might have been bought in 1833 for £600 had so increased in value in 1839 that one acre sold by public auction for £1,250.

The progress and state of the different divisions of Western Canada will be shown when examining their products in 1848.

Kingston, distant from Toronto, 184, and from Montreal 180 miles, stands in lat. 44° 8', lon. 76° 40' W., it is advantageously situate on the north bank of Lake Ontario at the head of the river St. Lawrence, and separated from Points Frederick and Henry, by a bay which extends a considerable dis-

tance to the N.W. beyond the town, where it receives the waters of a river flowing from the interior. Point Frederick is a long narrow peninsula, extending about half a mile into the lake in a S.E. direction, distant from Kingston about three quarters of a mile. This peninsula forms the west side of a narrow and deep inlet called Navy Bay, from its being our chief naval depôt on Lake Ontario. The extremity of the point is surmounted by a strong battery, and there is a dockyard with store-houses, &c.

Point Henry, which forms the E. side of Navy Bay, is a high narrow rocky ridge, extending into the lake in the same direction as Point Frederick. It is crowned by a fort, built on the extremity of the ridge, and occupying the highest point of ground in this part of Canada. The dock-yard, storehouses, slips for building ships of war, naval barracks, wharfs, &c., are on an extensive scale; during the war, a first-rate (the *St. Lawrence*) carrying 102 guns, was built here, and in a case of emergency, a formidable fleet could in a very short time be equipped at Kingston. About the year 1600 the French seeing the value of this position commenced a settlement, which was at first called by the Indian name of Cataragui, and subsequently Frontenac; but on our conquest of the province it received its present name.

Kingston, next to Quebec and Halifax, is the strongest British post in America, and next to Quebec and Montreal, the first in commercial importance; it has rapidly risen of late years, by becoming, through the means of the Rideau canal, the chief entrepôt between the trade of Eastern Canada, and all the settlements on the great lakes to the westward. In 1828, the population of the city amounted to 3,528. In 1848 to 8,360.

The increasing value of property is shown in the fact that Bishop Macdonnel, in 1816, bought 11 acres for £600, and in 1840 sold the land in building lots for £1,000 an acre. In the same year the Rev. Mr. Herchimer held 200 acres valued at £200, and in 1841 government bought 188 of the acres for £30,000, and the proprietor reserved to himself 12 acres facing Lake Ontario. In 1809, an estate of 100 acres, known as the Murney property, was purchased from the original grantee for £500, and in 1840 government purchased 32 acres of the estate for £10,000. Kingston has the finest market-place in America, and 300 or 400 teams may be seen at one time in the market. In a few years 700 houses were built,

principally of dark freestone, at a cost of £400,000. The population doubled itself in 4 years. A fleet of 200 barges, and schooners of 60 to 250 tons burthen, are employed at Kingston in transshipping the up and down freight on the lake. What a contrast the present navigation on the lakes offers to the period when the French built the first vessel on the shores of Lake Erie in 1679, and named it the *Griffen*. She was manned by a crew of Frenchmen, and commanded by La Salle, the celebrated voyageur, who navigated the Mississippi to the sea.

The importance of the inland navigation afforded by the St. Lawrence and the other great lakes it is difficult to overrate. Vessels may now traverse an extent of water equal to the distance between Europe and America. Supposing a steam propeller to take freight at Ogdensburgh, an inland point on the St. Lawrence, more than 650 miles from the Atlantic, for Chicago, she travels a distance of 1,300 miles. Having freight now offered for the military posts on Lake Superior, she runs (supposing the St. Mary's lock at the Sault to be built) an additional 800, making it 2,100 miles; and her direct return route with produce would be full 1,000 more, making in all a distance equal to that between America and Europe. This inland journey may be increased to 4,000 miles by commencing the trip at some of the lower ports on the St. Lawrence. As an illustration—

Quebec is 350 miles from the ocean. The completion of the Welland canal and similar works on the St. Lawrence invites commerce, and by the above means steam-vessels will extend their trips beyond Montreal and Kingston to the head of Lake Ontario, at the terminus of the Welland Canal, a distance of 600 miles. From this point they proceed westward to Chicago, 1000 miles further, and return to Quebec with grain or produce, without a single transshipment. This direct business trip is 3,200 miles long, and may, of course, be continued to the ocean. The trade is now with Kingston and Montreal, but it must extend still further down on both sides of the St. Lawrence.

By means of the Welland canal the navigation of the lake is uninterrupted for the distance of 844 miles from E. to W., and from N. to S. for a varying distance, of which the extreme range is 347 miles. A large part of the 400,000 square miles of

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country which these lakes drain is remarkably rich and varied, and, when cultivated, yields in abundance subsistence for man and beast.

On the Ontario Lake 40 steam-vessels are employed in traffic and in the conveyance of passengers. During the winter the N.E. part of Ontario, from the Bay of Quinté to Sacket's Harbour, is frozen across; but the wider part of the lake is frozen only to a short distance from the shore. On Lake Erie, which is frozen less than Ontario, there are about 100 steamers of various sizes, some of them carrying 1,500 passengers at a time to the settlements on Lake Michigan; the northern parts of Huron and Michigan are more frozen than either Erie or Ontario; and Superior is said to be frozen to a distance of 70 miles from its coasts. On Lake Huron there are only a few steamers; and on Lake Superior, a lesser number; but one steamer continually plies to and from Buffalo. The navigation of Ontario closes in October; ice-boats are sometimes used when the ice is *glare* (smooth). One of these is described by Lieut. De Roos as 23 feet in length, resting on 3 skates of iron, one attached to each end of a strong cross-bar, fixed under the fore part,—the remaining one to the stern, from the bottom of the rudder, the mast and sail are those of a common boat: when brought into play on the ice, she could sail (if it may be so termed), with fearful rapidity, nearly 23 miles an hour. In addition to her speed before the wind, she is also capable of beating well up to windward,—requiring, however, an experienced hand to manage her, in consequence of the extreme sensibility of the rudder during her quick motion.

The appearance of the N.E. extremity of Ontario, at its junction with the St. Lawrence river at Kingston, is so strikingly beautiful, as to have obtained for it the poetical appellation of the "Lake of the Thousand Isles." As the St. Lawrence issues from Ontario, it is 12 miles wide, divided into two channels by Wolfe Island, which is 7 miles broad, the widest channel on the N. side being 3½ miles across.

The second British township, Leeds, 32 miles below Kingston (at the mouth of the Gananoqui river) has an excellent harbour: the river continues narrowing down to Prescott, which is distant 62 miles from Kingston, 243 from Toronto, and 385 from Quebec. Prescott is well defended by its stronghold, Fort Wellington, which commands the navigation of the river.

A few miles below Prescott the St. Lawrence commences flowing rapidly; and has a shallow course for four miles, with a speed of from six to eight miles an hour, interrupted by two small rapids, the Du Plat and Galoose, half a mile, and a mile and a half long. The most difficult rapid is the Long Sault, in front of Osnaburgh above Cornwall (46 miles from Montreal) which is about 9 miles long, intersected by several islands, through whose channels the water rushes with velocity, so that boats are carried on it at the rate of 27 miles an hour; at the foot of the Rapid, the water takes a sudden leap over a slight precipice, whence its name.

The Cedar Rapids, 24 miles from La Chine, are 9 miles long, and very intricate; the waters run at the rate of from 9 to 12 miles an hour, with in some places only 10 feet depth in the channel. The Coteau du Lac rapid, 6 miles above the Cedars, is 2 miles long, intricate, and in some places only 16 feet wide.

To improve the navigation between Eastern and Western Canada, and to place the internal traffic beyond the reach of molestation during any war that might unfortunately occur with America, has been a leading object with the British government and local legislature, and large sums have consequently been expended on different public works, and especially on canals.

The *Rideau Canal*.—This far-famed undertaking, which is not, properly speaking, a canal, but rather a succession of waters raised by means of dams, with natural lakes intervening, commences at a small bay, called Entrance Bay, in the Ottawa, 128 miles from Montreal, and 150 from Kingston, in N. lat. 45° 30', W. long. 76° 50'—about a mile below the Falls of Chaudière, and one mile and a half above the point where the Rideau river falls into the Ottawa. From Entrance Bay the canal is entered by eight locks; it then passes through a natural gully, crosses Dow's Swamp—which is flooded by means of a mound—Peter's gully, by means of an aqueduct, and joins the Rideau river at the Hog's Back, about six miles from Entrance Bay. At the Hog's Back there is a dam 45 feet high, and 400 long, which, by throwing back the river, converts about 7 miles of rapids into still, navigable water. The canal rises into the river by means of a lock. A series of locks and dams now commences, with occasional embankments.

At the Black Rapids there are a dam and lock, 188 miles from Montreal; a dam, three locks, and two embankments, at Long Island Rapids, which render the river navigable for 24 miles, to Barret's Rapids, 167 miles from Montreal; 8 dams and 14 locks bring the canal to Olive's Ferry, 210 miles from Montreal, where the Rideau Lake contracts to 463 feet wide, and a ferry connects the road between Perth and Brockville. At the Upper Narrows, 16 miles further, the Rideau Lake contracts again to about 80 feet across, over which a dam is thrown with a lock of 4 feet lift, forming the Upper Rideau Lake into a summit pond of 291 feet above Entrance Bay, in the Ottawa; 6 miles further is the isthmus, which separates the Upper Rideau Lake from Mud Lake, the source of the River Cataragui. The canal is cut through this isthmus, which is one mile and a half wide; 5 miles lower down is the Isthmus Clear Lake, 330 feet wide, through which a cut is made, to avoid the rapids of the natural channel.

From thence to Cranberry Marsh, 17 miles from Isthmus Clear Lake, 255 miles from Montreal, and 23 from Kingston, there are 3 dams and 6 locks. The Marsh is about 78 feet above the level of Kingston harbour, and about 8 miles long. Besides flowing into the Cataragui river, the waters of this marsh or lake burst out at White Fish Fall, and flow into the Gannanoqui river, which is the waste weir for regulating the level of the water in the Rideau Lake (the summit pond); thus the water in the whole line of canal, whether in times of flood or drought, is kept at a steady height. At Brewer's Upper and Lower Mills, 18 and 17 miles from Kingston, there are 3 dams and 3 locks; and at Kingston Mills, 5 miles from Kingston, one dam and 4 locks. The Canal, or Cataragui River, falls into Kingston Bay at these mills, at a distance from Montreal of 273 miles.

The canal now described opens, it will be perceived, a water communication between Kingston and the Ottawa, a distance of 132 miles, by connecting together several pieces of water lying in that direction, viz.: Kingston Mill-stream, Cranberry Lake, Mud Lake, Rideau Lake and river, the length of the cuts not exceeding 20 miles. The difference of level is 445 feet; about 20 miles are excavated some parts of the distance through rocks. There are 47 locks, each 142 feet

in length, 33 in breadth, and with a water depth of 5 feet, which admit vessels under 125 tons. The expenditure on this canal greatly exceeded the original estimate, which was only £169,000—the next, before the plan of enlarging the locks was adopted, amounted to £486,000, which was raised by the addition of the locks to £762,673; but the total expenditure is now calculated to exceed one million sterling. The locks were originally planned upon a scale to correspond with those on La Chine canal, i. e. 100 feet by 20; these dimensions were subsequently increased to 142 feet in length by 33 in width, with a depth of 5 feet water; hence a considerable augmentation of expense. The canal has been in use 16 years, and every part of it looks fresh and perfect as when first finished. At each lock station, neat lock-master's houses have been built, trees planted, and grass-plats formed; the whole surrounded by substantial iron railings, stone walls, or wooden fences.

A more striking proof of the good effect of this fine canal can scarcely be desired, than that 15 years ago there was but one farm on the long bend of the Rideau river, 27 miles, while now there is scarcely an unsettled lot. The country along the banks of the canal, and the shores of its numerous lakes, is very generally occupied. The former hamlet of Newborough, at the Isthmus, has become a thriving, well-built, and populous village, with stores, taverns, post office, &c. Westport, on the Upper Rideau Lake, is also thriving. The land around is good, crops excellent, and settlements are forming in the interior.

The *Welland Canal* connects Lake Erie with Lake Ontario. It was not undertaken by government, but by a company incorporated by the legislature in 1825. This canal communicates with Lake Ontario by the Twelve-mile Creek, and is conducted over the range of hills forming the barrier of Lake Erie, at the Falls of Niagara, by means of locks, until it meets the Chippawa at 8½ miles from its mouth, which it then ascends for about 11 miles, and joins the Ouse upon Lake Erie at about one mile and a half from its mouth: the shifting bar at the entrance of the Ouse being remedied by piers extending into deep water beyond the bar. The length of the canal is 42 miles, its width 56 feet, and its depth 8½: the summit level is 330 feet, the ascending locks are 37 in number (made of wood), 22 feet wide, and 100 feet long. The cost

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of this canal has been upwards of £500,000; but it now yields a rapidly increasing return for the capital expended.

The *Grenville Canal* consists of three sections, one at the Long Sault on the Ottawa—another at the fall called the Châte à Blondeau, 60 miles from Montreal and 218 from Kingston—and a third at the Carillon Rapids, 56 miles from Montreal and 222 from Kingston, opening into the Lake of the Two Mountains, through which an uninterrupted navigation is maintained by steam-boats to La Chine, 9 miles above the city of Montreal. This canal renders the navigation of the Ottawa, between the Rideau and Montreal, complete. All the locks on the Carillon, and on the Châte à Blondeau, are of the same size as on the Rideau; but on a part of the Grenville canal, which was commenced before the large scale was adopted, some locks, and a part of the cuttings, will only admit boats 20 feet wide; the locks on La Chine also are calculated for boats only 20 feet wide; the navigation for boats above 20 feet wide is interrupted at the Grenville Canal, and if large boats be used on the Rideau, and on the higher part of the Ottawa, all goods must be unshipped on arriving at the Grenville canal, and either be conveyed by portage, or removed to smaller boats.

The distance from Kingston, on Lake Ontario, to Bytown, where the Rideau river joins the Ottawa, is about 150 miles; from Bytown to the Grenville canal, 64 miles—total 214 miles, through the whole of which line, the locks and cuttings are of a size to admit steam-boats 134 feet long and 33 feet wide, and drawing 5 feet of water.

The Montreal communication with the Ottawa, by the canal between the former place and Lake St. Louis, at La Chine, near Montreal, is termed—

La Chine Canal—and is 28 feet wide at the bottom, 48 at the water line, has 5 feet depth of water, and a towing-path; the whole fall is 42 feet with the locks; the length being about 7 miles. It is the property of a company; was begun in 1821, and completed in 3 years, at a cost of £137,000, which was defrayed by the company, slightly assisted by government, in return for which aid the public service is exempt from toll.

The *Cornwall Canal* is 12 miles in length, and has 6 locks, which obviate the Long Sault rapids. The locks are on a large scale,

capable of admitting first-class steamers on the river, and its stone work is very massive.

By means of the great and useful works just mentioned, a large extent of country is opened up to the industry of British settlers: there is continuous steam-boat communication in Upper Canada for about 460 miles, viz., from the Grenville canal, on the Ottawa, to Niagara. Many other canals are in contemplation, some even commenced, such as that projected between the Bay of Quinté and Lake Huron, through Lake Simcoe, which will render us independent of the Americans on the Detroit river. The Thames is also to be made navigable for steam-boats, from Chatham up to the Port of London; and if railroads do not take the place of canals, there is little doubt of the greater part of Canada being, in a few years, intersected by them. The value of canals and steam navigation may be judged of from the fact, that, in 1812, the news of the declaration of war against Great Britain, by the United States, did not reach the post of Michilimakinac (1,107 miles from Quebec) in a shorter time than two months; the same place is now within the distance of ten days' journey from the Atlantic. A similar remark applies yet more strongly to railways. The route from Montreal to Kingston, 171 miles by the St. Lawrence, and 267 miles by the Rideau canal, *via* St. Ann's, is now performed by a large, fast, and elegant class of steamers, passing down the Long Sault rapids to the Côte du Lac, and returning by the Cornwall canal. From the Côte du Lac to the Cascades there is 16 miles to be travelled by stage, thence to LaChine by steamer, and thence to Montreal 9 miles more by stage. The voyage may also be performed in a smaller class of steamers, which pass down *all* the rapids direct to Montreal, and return by the Rideau canal. The trip round occupies 8 days. About 30 small steamers and proppers are employed on this line. Recently a fine screw schooner, named the *Adventure*, belonging to the "Toronto and St. Lawrence Steam Navigation Company," went from Toronto to Montreal (470 miles) laden with freight, in 2½ days.

Western Canada was divided by the Act 8 Vic. c. 7, into 20 districts, which are again subdivided into 32 counties, for the more effectual legislative representation and the registration of property. The counties are laid out in townships, surveyed, and prepared for location.

86 DISTRICTS, COUNTIES, AND TOWNSHIPS OF W. CANADA IN 1848.

Districts.	Towns not Represented.	Counties, Ridings, and Cities.	Number of Townships in each County.	Population of Counties.	Population of Districts.
Bathurst	Perth	United { Lanark	13 } 11 } 12 }	— — 29,219	29,118
Brock	Woodstock	Oxford			29,219
Colborne	Peterborough	Peterborough	19	21,379	21,379
Dalhousie		Carleton	10	19,245	25,520
		Bytown, town of	—	6,275	
Eastern		Stormont	4	11,471	38,653
		Dundas	4	10,723	
		Glengarry	4	15,005	
		Cornwall, town	—	1,454	
Gore	Brantford Dundas	Wentworth	8	19,546	59,013
		Halton	8	29,580	
		Hamilton, city	—	9,889	
Home		North riding	11	17,050	106,352
		South	4	21,033	
		East	4	24,530	
		West	5	20,236	
		Toronto, city	—	23,503	
Huron	Godurieh Prescott	Huron	21	20,450	20,450
Johnstown		Grenville	5	17,180	43,444
		Leeds	11	23,835	
		Brockville, town	—	2,449	
London		Middlesex	17	41,963	46,547
		London, town	—	4,584	
Midland		Frontenac	15	17,311	45,219
		United { Lennox	3	6,484	
		{ Addington	6	13,135	
		Kingstown, city	—	8,369	
Newcastle	Port Hope Cobourg	Durham	6	23,346	47,133
		Northumberland	8	24,087	
Ottawa		Prescott	6	8,663	10,364
		Russell	4	1,701	
Ningara	St. Catherine's	Lincoln	7	17,774	51,325
		Welland	8	17,732	
		Haldimand	9	12,719	
		Niagara, town	—	3,100	
Prince Edward		Prince Edward	6	18,061	18,061
Simcoe	Picton	Simcoe	23	23,060	25,060
Talbot		Norfolk	7	15,710	15,716
Victoria		Hastings	12	23,133	23,133
Wellington	Belleville	Waterloo	27	41,439	41,439
Western		Essex	8	12,630	27,410
		Kent	21	14,810	
					723,247

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The cities are Toronto, Kingston, and Hamilton; the incorporated towns, Bytown, Cornwall, Brockville, Prescott, Pictou, Belleville, Coburg, Port Hope, Niagara, St. Catharines, London, Peterboro, Brantford, and Dundas.

The province of Western Canada has generally been viewed in three great *divisions*,—the (1) Eastern, (2) Central, and (3) Western. The first comprises the districts W. and N.W. of Montreal, lying between the St. Lawrence and Ottawa, and N. of the Ottawa. It includes the Eastern, Johnstown, Ottawa, and Bathurst districts. The Eastern district commences at the boundary line separating Eastern from Western Canada, and runs along the St. Lawrence, with part of Lake St. Francis (an expansion of the St. Lawrence) and the Long Sault rapids in front, until it reaches the adjoining district of Johnstown; inland it is bounded by the Ottawa district.

A range of elevated table-land commences at Loehel and runs diagonally to the township of Matilda, whence it passes into the adjoining district.

The Eastern district is rich, well watered, cultivated, and fertile; some of it has been granted to discharged soldiers, a good deal to the children of New England loyalists, and the Canada Company possesses some lots in it.

The district in the rear of the one just described, and bordering on the S. shore of the Ottawa, from the Rideau river to the St. Lawrence, is termed the Ottawa district; it is but thinly settled; the lands are good, but low and marshy; along the Rideau canal cultivation is progressing, and as civilization increases, these very lands which are now considered useless, marshy soils, will become among the most fertile sections in the country.

The Johnstown district lies along the St. Lawrence to the westward of the Ottawa and Eastern districts; the Rideau canal passes through the centre. The soil is generally good, and it is advantageously situated. The districts on the N., bounded by the Ottawa, are those of Bathurst and Dalhousie.

The townships on the Ottawa, N.W. of Bathurst district, are in great demand: lumberers now go 250 miles beyond Lake Chat; and as the Ottawa has few rapids to the northward, towards its junction with Lake Nipissing, we may command a shorter communication between Montreal and Georgian Bay, and Lake Huron, than we now

have through Lakes Ontario, Erie, and the Detroit. A great part of this district is colonized by highland and lowland Scotchmen, whose prudent thrifty habits admirably qualify them for emigrants.

The next division, as we proceed westward, is the long and extensive tract formerly called the Midland District, but now subdivided into the Prince Edward and other districts. The base or southern extremity of this tract rests on the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, in the parallel of 44° N., its northern boundary extends to 46° 30', and is terminated on the N.E. by the Ottawa river.

The preceding districts form the eastern section of the province, and present generally a moderately elevated table-land, declining towards it numerous water-courses; the forest-timber is large and lofty, and of every variety. The soil, though moist and marshy in many places, is extremely rich, consisting chiefly of a brown clay and yellow loam, admirably adapted to the growth of wheat and every species of grain; the rivers and lakes are extremely numerous; of the former may be mentioned as the most remarkable, the Rideau, Petite Nation, Mississippi, and Madawaska, which have their sources far in the interior, generally to the westward, and which fall into the Ottawa: the Gannanoqui, Raisin, Cata-raqui, Napance, Salmon, Moira, and part of the Trent discharge themselves into the Bay of Quinté and the St. Lawrence: these streams, besides fertilizing the lands through which they flow, afford, many of them, convenient inland communications, and turn numerous grist, carding, fulling, and saw-mills.

Besides numerous lesser lakes, there are the Rideau, Gannanoqui, White (Henderson's) Mud, Devil, Indian, Clear, Irish, Loughborough, Mississippi, Olden, Clarendon, Barrie, Stoke, Marmora, Collins, Blunder, Angus, and Ossinicon. There are many roads throughout the section; the principal one is along the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Kingston, traversing Cornwall and Lancaster, through which a line of stage-coaches run between the two provinces every lawful day, when steam-boats cannot travel. Kingston, the maritime capital of Western Canada, has to the westward the fine Quinté tract, in a prosperous state of cultivation.

Bytown, in Nepean, on the S. bank of the Ottawa, is most picturesquely situate.

Perth is a thriving village in the township of Drummond, on a branch of the Rideau, occupying a central position between the Ottawa and St. Lawrence. There are several other rising settlements.

The second or central division of Upper Canada embraces the large districts formerly called Newcastle and Home, with a frontage of 120 miles along Lake Ontario, in 44° 30' N. lat., and stretching back northerly to the Ottawa, Nipissing Lake, and French river in 46° 30' N. lat. By the Act 8 Vic. c. 7, this extensive tract has been separated into several districts. [See map of Western Canada.]

The soil throughout this large district is generally good: and though the population is numerous, compared with other districts, there is yet abundance of room for more settlers. It is well watered by the Rice, Balsam, Trout, and other lakes, and by the Otanabee rivers, part of the Trent, &c. The extensive territory adjoining Newcastle, with its N. W. extremity resting on Georgian Bay (an inlet of Lake Huron) is termed the Home District: it contains the capital of Upper Canada, Toronto (late York).

The central section of Upper Canada does not fall short in fertility, either of the east or west portions of the province: it is well watered, the Nottawasaga, Holland, Musketchesbé, Beaver, Talbot, and Black rivers fall into Lake Simcoe; the Credit, Etobicoke, Humber, and Don rivers flow into Lake Ontario. There are excellent roads throughout the section.

The third section of the province, termed the Western, includes the Gore, Niagara, London, Western, and other districts; and, circumscribed as it is by the waters of the great Lakes, Ontario, Érie, and Huron, it may be considered a vast equilateral triangular peninsula, with its base extending from Fort Erie to Cape Hurd, on Lake Huron, measuring 216 miles, and a perpendicular striking the Detroit river at Amherstburgh, of about 195 miles in length, with an almost uniformly level, or slightly undulating surface, except a few solitary eminences, and a ridge of slightly elevated table-land in the Gore and Niagara districts, averaging 100 feet, and at some points approaching to 350 feet in height. The whole tract is alluvial in its formation, consisting chiefly of a stratum of black and sometimes of yellow loam, above which is found, when in a state of nature, a rich and deep vegetable mould. The substratum is a tenacious

grey or blue clay, sometimes appearing at the surface, intermixed with sand. Throughout the country, there is almost a total absence of stones or gravel, within arable depth, but numerous and extensive quarries exist, which furnish abundant supplies for building, &c. The forests are remarkable for the steady growth and the rich foliage of their trees: in several places immense prairies or natural meadows exist, extending for hundreds of miles, and with the vista delightfully relieved by occasional clumps of oak, white pine, and poplar, as if planned by man with a view to ornament. With a delicious climate stretching from 42° to 44° N. latitude, it is not to be wondered at that this section is the favourite of Western or Upper Canada.

The district to the southward of Gore, and termed Niagara, from being bounded to the E. by the river and cataract of that name, is one of the finest and richest tracts in the world, and most eligibly situate in a hight, between the magnificent sheets of water, Erie and Ontario.

The scenery throughout this part of Canada is extremely picturesque. Fort George, or Niagara, is the sea-port (if it may be so called) of the district; the fort is strong, and the neat town all bustle and gaiety, owing to the frequent arrival and departure of steam-boats, sloops, and other vessels.

The London district and its recent subdivisions have the advantage of a great extent of water frontier, along the shores of Lakes Erie and Huron, besides a large portion of the Thames, and the river Ouse on Lake Erie, and Aux Sables and Maitland on Lake Huron. London town is in the heart of a fertile country, on the banks of the fine river Thames, and will no doubt rapidly increase.

About the central part of the north coast of Lake Erie, colonel Talbot founded a settlement which reflects credit on his head and heart. Ever since the year 1802 this benevolent man has persevered in opening the fine country around him to the English emigrant. The Upper Canada Company have some of their land in this district. The scenery around, especially on the river Maitland, is more English-like than that of any other in America.

Extensive roads are now making in every direction, and the London district offers a most eligible spot for the consideration of the intending settler

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CHAPTER III.

GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, SOIL, AND CLIMATE.

IN briefly sketching the leading geological features of our Colonies, I beg to be understood as doing no more than registering such facts and observations as have yet been remarked by those who have made it their study to extend the limited knowledge as yet possessed concerning the surface of our globe. I would further beg to remind my readers, that the geology of a country not only indicates the quality of the soil, but exercises an important influence on the salubrity of the climate.

Following the arrangement adopted in the preceding chapter, I begin with the geology and mineralogy of Lower or Eastern Canada.

There are in America as manifest traces of an universal deluge as on the lofty Himalaya chain: boulder-stones are distributed in vast quantities all over the country; sometimes they are found rounded and piled in heaps of immense height, on extensive horizontal beds of limestone, as if swept there by the action of water; shells of various kinds, especially fresh-water clams, cockles, and periwinkles, are in abundance; of the latter, masses have been found several hundred feet above the level of Lake Ontario. In the vicinity of large rivers, and even in many instances remote from them, *undulating* rocks are seen, exactly similar to those found in the beds of rapids where the channels are wavy. The wavy rocks are termed provincially, *ice shoves*. On the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, detached boulder-stones of an enormous size (20 tons weight) are met with; they differ from those found inland, are very hard, of a blackish-grey colour, not veined, but with pointed particles of a brilliant appearance: how they came there it is difficult to judge, the rocks of the shores being composed of a slaty limestone.

The fossil organic remains are numerous, and consist of productæ, teribratulæ, orthoceratites, trilobites, and encrinurites; these are found on the surface or upper strata, but rarely below. These records of a former animal existence, distinct from any known in the present day, are intimately blended with the limestone in which they are embedded.

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That the whole country has been subjected to some violent convulsion, subsequent to the Deluge, would appear from the singular contortions of the rivers, and the immense chasms in the mountains; from the indications of volcanic eruptions at St. Paul's Bay and north of Québec; and also from the vast masses of alluvial rocks met with on the surface of the earth, which have the appearance of vitrification. The American continent generally, and the configuration and geology of Western Canada in particular, appear to me to afford indications of having but recently emerged from the ocean, and that at no very distant period of time (comparatively speaking), instead of a continent, there was only a succession of islands and rocks.

So far as we know, the geological structure of Canada exhibits a granitic region, accompanied with calcareous rocks of a soft texture, and in horizontal strata. The prevailing rocks in the Alleghany mountains are granite, which is found generally in vast strata, and sometimes in boulders between the mountains and the shore; graywacke and clay-slate also occur with limestone; various other rocks, usually detached, present themselves. The lower islands of the St. Lawrence are mere inequalities of the vast granitic region which occasionally emerges above the level of the river; the Kamouraska islands, and the Penguins in particular, exhibit this appearance; and in Kamouraska and St. Anne's parishes, large masses of primitive granite rise in sharp conical hills (one is 500 feet high), in some places with smooth sides and scarcely a fissure, in others full of fissures, and clothed with pine-trees which have taken root in them; the whole country appearing as if the St. Lawrence had at a former period entirely covered the land. At St. Roche, the post-road leads for more than a mile under a perpendicular ridge of granite 300 feet high. The banks of the St. Lawrence are in several places composed of a schistous substance in a decaying or mouldering condition, but still in every quarter granite is found in strata more or less inclined to the horizon, but never

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parallel with it. In the Gaspé district numerous and beautiful specimens of quartz have been obtained, including a great variety of cornelian, and agate, opal, and jasper: indications of coal have also been traced. The limestone stone formation extends, according to a recent calculation, over 30,000 square miles; the dip is moderate, and the strata of limestone generally undisturbed.

The N. shore of the St. Lawrence from Quebec to its mouth, and round the coast of Labrador, offers a rich field for the mineralogist; much of the coast bordering on the gulf being primitive, or of the earlier formations. According to some observers, the N. coast below the St. Lawrence exhibits trap-rocks, clay-slate, various detached rocks, and granite occasionally; the latter being supposed to prevail in the interior of the country, forming the base of the Labrador mountains and the coast of Quebec. Cape Tourment (30 miles from Quebec) is a round, massive, granite mountain about 1000 feet high. The immediate bed of the fall of Montmorenci is a horizontal shelf of dark grey limestone, of the kind called primitive or crystalline. Except in the bogs or marshes, rocks obtrude on the surface in all quarters, and in many parts there exist deep fissures from 6 inches to 2 feet wide, which appear to have been split by the action of fire, or some volcanic shock. The Indians say these rents occasionally extend several miles in length, about a foot in breadth, and from 40 to 50 feet in depth: and frequently form dangerous pitfalls, being hidden from view by creeping shrubs.

These appearances seem to confirm the following graphic, but scarcely credible account of a terrific earthquake, contained in an old manuscript preserved in the Jesuits' College at Quebec:—"On the 5th of February, 1663, about half-past five o'clock in the evening, a great rushing noise was heard throughout the whole extent of Canada. This noise caused the people to run out of their houses into the streets, as if their habitations had been on fire; but instead of flames or smoke, they were surprised to see the walls reeling backwards and forwards, and the stones moving, as if they were detached from each other. The bells sounded by the repeated shocks. The roofs of the buildings bent down, first on one side and then on the other. The timbers, rafters, and planks cracked. The earth trembled violently, and caused the stakes of the pali-

sades and palings to dance, in a manner that would have been incredible, had we not actually seen it many places. It was at this moment every one ran out of doors. Then were to be seen animals flying in every direction; children crying and screaming in the streets; men and women, seized with affright, stood horror-struck with the dreadful scene before them, unable to move, and ignorant where to fly for refuge from the tottering walls and trembling earth, which threatened every instant to crush them to death, or sink them into a profound or immeasurable abyss. Some threw themselves on their knees in the snow, crossing their breasts and calling on their saints to relieve them from the dangers with which they were surrounded. Others passed the rest of this dreadful night in prayer; for the earthquake ceased not, but continued at short intervals, with a certain undulating impulse, resembling the waves of the ocean; and the same qualmish sensations, or sickness at the stomach was felt during the shocks as is experienced in a vessel at sea.

"The violence of the earthquake was greatest in the forests, where it appeared as if there was a battle raging between the trees; for not only their branches were destroyed, but even their trunks are said to have been detached from their places, and dashed against each other with inconceivable violence and confusion—so much so, that the Indians, in their figurative manner of speaking, declared that all the forests were drunk. The war also seemed to be carried on between the mountains, some of which were torn from their beds and thrown upon others, leaving immense chasms in the places from whence they had issued, and the very trees with which they were covered sunk down, leaving only their tops above the surface of the earth; others were completely overturned, their branches buried in the earth, and the roots only remained above ground. During this general wreck of nature, the ice, upwards of six feet thick, was rent and thrown up in large pieces, and from the openings, in many parts, there issued thick clouds of smoke, or fountains of dirt and sand, which spouted up to a very considerable height. The springs were either choked up, or impregnated with sulphur—many rivers were totally lost; others were diverted from their course, and their waters entirely corrupted. Some of them became yellow, others red, and the great river of St. Lawrence appeared entirely white, as far

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down as Tadoussac. This extraordinary phenomenon must astonish those who know the size of the river, and the immense body of water in various parts, which must have required a great abundance of matter to whiten it. They write from Montreal that during the earthquake, they plainly saw the stakes of the picketing, or palisades, jump up as if they had been dancing; and that of two doors in the same room, one opened and the other shut of their own accord; that the chimneys and tops of the houses bent like branches of trees agitated with the wind; that when they went to walk they felt the earth following them, and rising at every step they took, sometimes sticking against the soles of their feet and other things, in a very forcible and surprising manner.

"From Three Rivers they write, that the first shock was the most violent, and commenced with a noise resembling thunder. The houses were agitated in the same manner as the tops of trees during a tempest, with a noise as if fire was crackling in the secrets. The shock lasted half an hour or rather better, though its greatest force was properly not more than a quarter of an hour; and we believe there was not a single shock which did not cause the earth to open either more or less.

"As for the rest, we have remarked, that though this earthquake continued almost without intermission, yet it was not always of an equal violence. Sometimes it was like the pitching of a large vessel which dragged heavily at her anchors; and it was this motion which occasioned many to have a giddiness in their heads, and qualmsiness at their stomachs. At other times the motion was hurried and irregular, creating sudden jerks, some of which were extremely violent; but the most common was a slight tremulous motion, which occurred frequently with little noise. Many of the French inhabitants and Indians, who were eye-witnesses to the scene, state, that a great way up the river of Trois Rivières, about eighteen miles from Quebec, the hills which bordered the river on either side, and which were of a prodigious height, were torn from their foundations, and plunged into the river, causing it to change its course, and spread itself over a large tract of land recently cleared; the broken earth mixed with the waters, and for several months changed the colour of the great river St. Lawrence, into which that of Trois Rivières disembogues itself. In the course of this violent convul-

sion of nature, lakes appeared where none ever existed before: mountains were overthrown, swallowed up by the gaping, or precipitated into adjacent rivers, leaving in their places frightful chasms or level plains; falls and rapids were changed into gentle streams, and gentle streams into falls and rapids. Rivers in many parts of the country sought other beds, or totally disappeared. The earth and the mountains were entirely split and rent in innumerable places, creating chasms and precipices whose depths have never yet been ascertained. Such devastation was also occasioned in the woods, that more than a thousand acres in our neighbourhood were completely overturned; and where but a short time before nothing met the eye but one immense forest of trees, now were to be seen extensive cleared lands, apparently cut up by the plough.

"At Tadoussac (about 150 miles below Quebec on the north side) the effect of the earthquake was not less violent than in other places; and such a heavy shower of volcanic ashes fell in that neighbourhood, particularly in the river St. Lawrence, that the waters were as violently agitated as during a tempest. (The Indians say that a vast volcano exists in Labrador.) Near St. Paul's Bay (about 50 miles below Quebec on the north side), a mountain about a quarter of a league in circumference, situated on the shore of the St. Lawrence, was precipitated into the river, but as if it had only made a plunge, it rose from the bottom, and became a small island, forming with the shore a convenient harbour, well sheltered from all winds. Lower down the river, towards Point Alouettes, an entire forest of considerable extent was loosened from the main bank, and slid into the river St. Lawrence, where the trees took fresh root. There are three circumstances, however, which have rendered this extraordinary earthquake particularly remarkable: the first is its duration, it having continued from February to August, that is to say, more than six months almost without intermission! It is true, the shocks were not always equally violent. In several places, as towards the mountains behind Quebec, the thundering noise and trembling motion continued successively for a considerable time. In others, as towards Tadoussac, the shock continued generally for two or three days at a time with much violence.

"The second circumstance relates to the extent of this earthquake, which we believe

was universal throughout the whole of New France, for we learn that it was felt from P^r Isle Percée and Gaspé, which are situated at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, to beyond Montreal, as also in New England, Acadia, and other places more remote. As far as it has come to our knowledge, this earthquake extended more than 600 miles in length, and about 300 in breadth. Hence, 180,000 square miles of land were convulsed in the same day, and at the same moment.

"The third circumstance, which appears the most remarkable of all, regards the extraordinary protection of Divine Providence, which has been extended to us and our habitations; for we have seen near us the large openings and chasms which the earthquake occasioned, and the prodigious extent of country which has been either totally lost or hideously convulsed, without our losing either man, woman, or child, or even having a hair of their heads touched."

The extensive Ottawa region has been imperfectly explored. Mr. T. S. Hunt, chemist and mineralogist to the Provincial and Geological Survey, in an excellent report on the rocks along the Ottawa, dated April, 1848, says, that the limestone there is invariably highly crystalline, and sometimes very coarse-grained in its structure; at other times its texture is very fine, forming what is termed saccharoidal limestone; and occasionally the grain is so fine, as to yield a marble fit for the artist. The crystalline limestones of the Ottawa underlie unconformably the silurian rocks of the country, and are interstratified with sienitic gneiss. Near Perth, Dr. Wilson, who has enriched the mineralogical knowledge of the province, has discovered a locality of *apatite*, or phosphate of lime. It is found in a bed of coarse crystalline limestone, tinged of a flesh-red, and often embracing grains of pyroxene. The crystals are from half to one inch diameter. One crystal was found 12 inches in length and $9\frac{1}{2}$ in circumference. The *apatite* is translucent, of a delicate celandine green colour; the angles of the crystals are invariably rounded, and the terminations rarely distinct—looking, indeed, as if they had been half fused after their formation. The value of phosphate of lime in the shape of guano and bone powder is now fully recognized; several plants, especially wheat, largely extract it from the soil, and thus impoverish the land. Canada possesses in it an almost inexhaustible supply

of a fertilizing product for the exhausted wheat lands in the seigneuries.

Mineral corundum—the emery of the East Indies, so useful for polishing gems—is found in the neighbourhood of the Ottawa, as is also heavy spar, or sulphate of barytes in gneiss, either massive or in thin bladed crystals. This is very extensively used in Europe and America to mix with white lead, and also as a paint, under the name of permanent white. The crude material is worth from 8 to 10 dollars per ton. Various other semi-metallic products, and also copper, are found in this locality.

There are several "saline," "sulphuric," "sour," "gas," and warm and cold springs in the province. The Charlotteville sulphur spring yields 26.8 cubic inches of sulphuretted hydrogen gas to the gallon of water, while the strongest of the celebrated Harrowgate springs yields but 14 cubic inches. The "Tuscarora," or "sour" spring, is situated in the county Wentworth, Canada West, 9 miles S. of Branford, and 8 miles S. of the bank of the Grand river. The water is of a very unusual character,—it is acid, sulphureous, and emits gas; sulphuric acid is the predominant ingredient.

The various mineralogical substances found in Eastern Canada, and capable of application to useful purposes, are the magnetic and specular oxides of iron, bog iron ore, and iron ochre, chromic iron, wad or bog manganese ore, copper ore, gold, granite, and other descriptions of stone, suited for building; for mill and whetstones, flagstones, roofing slates, marble serpentine, soapstones, magnesite, dolomite, and common limestone, brick and potter's clay, and shellmarl. The only gold yet found was obtained in the vicinity of Sherbrooke; but the same general geological formation being traceable from Gaspé, through the United States to Georgia, the Carolinas, and Virginia, and even to Mexico,—it is not improbable that this precious metal may yet be found extensively in Eastern Canada.

There are inexhaustible quantities of fine granite in various localities; it presents an even mixture of translucent white quartz and opaque white feldspar, with a brownish-black mica, sparingly, but equally disseminated: it is capable of being readily split with wedges into rectangular blocks.

Shellmarl, so valuable for manure, is found in different places: on the land of Mr. Martin, to the east of Stanstead Plains, there is a bed of comminuted fresh water

shells, of 50 to 100 acres in extent. In another place the fresh water shells have a depth of several feet, and rest on a deposit of marine shells of the tertiary age. The soapstone, which is the same material as French chalk, mixed with oil, is now used for house painting. A decomposed talcose slate forms a white-wash instead of lime, and produces a dirty white, or light ash-grey colour. Soapstone is also used as a lining for ovens, furnaces, and fireplaces; and from its long retention of heat, a piece of soapstone heated in the fire, and wrapped in a blanket, is found useful in long Canadian winter journeys.

A bed of the silicious rock termed jasper, 6 feet in thickness, exists at Shrubrooke; it is cut into boxes, chimney ornaments, knife handles, &c. Large blocks of serpentine, resembling the celebrated *verd antique*, are found near Orford.

The geology of the country around the great lakes has been investigated by several distinguished English and American explorers.

Lake Superior.—The whole S. coast of this vast inland sea is stated by Mr. Schoolcraft, an American gentleman who formed part of a government expedition from New York, to be a secondary sandstone, through which the granite on which it rests, occasionally appears; chalcedony, cornelian, jasper, opal, agate, sardonyx, zeolith, and serpentine (all silicious except the last two), with iron, lead, and copper, are found imbedded in it. The sand hills W. of the Grand Marais, present to the lake, for 9 miles, a steep acclivity 300 feet high, composed of light yellow silicious sand, in 3 layers, 150, 80, and 70 feet thick; the last-mentioned uppermost, and like the lowest, pure, while the middle bed has many pebbles of granite, limestone, hornblende, and quartz. By the subsidence of the waters of Lakes Superior and Huron, occasioned, Mr. Lyell thinks, by the partial destruction of their barriers at some unknown period, beds of sand, 150 feet thick, are exposed; below which are seen beds of clay, enclosing shells belonging to fish of the very species which now inhabit the lakes.

Dr. Bigsby, who minutely examined Lake Superior, observed, that a red sandstone for the most part horizontal, predominates on the S. shore, resting in places on granite. Amygdaloid occupies a very large tract in the N. stretching from Cape Verd to the Grand Portage, profusely intermingled with

argillaceous and other porphyries, sienite, trappose-greenstone, sandstone, and conglomerates. Trappose-greenstone is the prevailing rock from Thunder Mountain westward, and gives rise to the pilastered precipices in the vicinity of Fort William. Part of the N. and E. shore is the seat of older formations, viz., sienite, stratified greenstone, more or less chloritic, and alternating with vast beds of granite, the general direction E., with a perpendicular dip.

Great quantities of the older shell limestone are found strewn in rolled masses on the beach, from Point Marmozet to Grand Portage; its organic remains are trilobites, orthoceratites, encrinites, productæ, madreporæ, terebratulæ, &c. At Michipicoton Bay was found a loose mass of pitchstone porphyry, the opposite angle being trappose.

Lake Huron.—The almost uniformly level shores of Lake Huron present few objects of interest to the geologist: secondary limestone, filled with the usual reliquæ, constitutes the great mass of structure along the coast. Here and there are found detached blocks of granite, and other primitive rocks; the only simple minerals found by Mr. Schoolcraft were pieces of chalcedony in one place, and in another, crystals of staurolite. Around Saganaw Bay the primitive formation appears to approach nearer the surface; the secondary limestone then gives place to sandstone, which disintegrates, and forms sand banks and beaches, as on the sea shore.

With the exception of spots of sand opposite the mouth of Spanish and other rivers, the shore N. of Lake Huron is composed of naked rocks; but on the S.E., and at the naval station of Penetanguishine, there are several undulating alluvial platforms some hundred feet high, rounded into knolls, intersected by water-courses, and extending to the N.W. shores of Lake Simcoe, and, in fact, to Lakes Erie and Ontario.

Mr. A. Murray, in his elaborate geological survey of the shores of Lake Huron, says, that the older groups he observed, consist, firstly, of a metamorphic series, composed of granitic and sienitic rocks, in the forms of gneiss, mica slate, and hornblende slate; and, secondly, of a stratified series, composed of quartz rock, or sandstones, or conglomerates, shales, and limestones, with interposed beds of greenstone; and of the fossiliferous groups following these, six for-

mations are met with, which, in the New York nomenclature, come under the following designations:—1. Potsdam sandstone, 40 feet; 2. Trenton limestone, 320 feet; 3. Utica slates, 50 feet; 4. Lorraine shales, 200 feet; 5. Medina sandstone, 103 feet; 6. Niagara limestones, including the Clinton group, 560 feet; total, 1,273 feet. At Cabot's head the thick bedded coralline limestone is 20 feet deep.

The Niagara limestones, as they are termed, extend over a large part of the southern portion of Drummond Island, and nearly the whole of Cockburn Island—eastward through the Grand Maratoulin. They cap the cliffs at Cabot's head, and can be traced thence to the southward. The fossils met with peculiar to the Niagara limestone are chiefly corals; some of the most massive beds appear to be entirely composed of coral of the most elaborate structure; one fallen mass was observed at Cabot's head, which appeared to be all coral, measuring 10 yards square on the surface, with an average thickness of 5 feet. Bivalve shells are met with abundantly, and univalves occasionally.

Lakes Huron, Michipicou, and Superior, have evidently been at one time considerably higher than they are at the present day, and it would appear (as has been previously remarked) that the subsidence of their waters has not been effected by slow drainage, but by the repeated destruction of their barriers: indeed, these three lakes have evidently at some remote period formed a single body of water, as is evinced by their comparatively low dividing ridges, by the existence, in Batchewine Bay, of numerous rolled masses which are *in situ* in the N.W. parts of Lake Huron, and, among many other indications, by the very large boulders of the Huggowong granite, and the greenstone of Michipicou, strewn in company with rocks of Lake Huron, over the Portage of St. Mary's; their original situation being at least 100 miles N. from where they are placed at present. Great alluvial beds of fresh water shells are found in the E. of Lake Huron, whose appearance argues them to be of post-diluvian formation, effected while the waters were still of immense height and extent.

Lake St. Clair.—The entrance of the Lake of St. Clair affords the first indication of the change in the geological formation, observed as we proceed through the lakes; pebbles of granite, hornblende rock, and silicious sand

are seen on the edge of the water, washed out from below the alluvion of the banks. According to the editor of an able American Review, this is probably very near the limits where the materials of the primitive formation show themselves beneath the secondary, nothing of them being seen on the American side of Lake Erie; but around St. Clair, masses of granite, mica slate, and quartz, are found in abundance.

Lake Erie.—The chasm, at Niagara Falls, affords a clear indication of the geology of the country. The different strata are—first, limestone—next, fragile slate—and lastly, sandstone. The uppermost and lowest of these compose the great secondary formation of a part of Canada, and nearly the whole of the United States, occupying the entire basin of the Mississippi, and extending from it between the lakes and the Alleghany ridge of mountains, as far eastward as the Mohawk, between which the slate is often interposed, as at Niagara, and throughout the State of New York generally. At Niagara, the stratum of slate is nearly 40 feet thick, and almost as fragile as shale, crumbling so much as to sink the superincumbent limestone; and thus verifying to some extent, the opinion that a retrocession of the falls has been going on for ages.

Lake Ontario.—Limestone, resting on granite. The rocks about Kingston are usually a limestone of very compact structure, and light blueish-grey colour—a fracture often approaching the conchoidal, a slight degree of translucency on a thin edge; and after percussion, emitting the odour of flint, rather than that of bitumen. The lowermost limestones are in general more silicious than those above them; and so frequently is this the case, that, in some places, a conglomerated character is given to the rock by the intrusion of pieces of quartz or hornstone. It is worthy of remark, that both angular and rounded masses of felspar rock, which usually underlies limestone, (or, if absent, is supplied by a substratum in which hornblende predominates) are imbedded and isolated in the limestone, demonstrating the latter to have been at one time in a state of fluidity.

The limestone formation is stratified horizontally, its dip being greatest when nearest to the elder rock on which it reposes, and by which it would appear to have been upraised, subsequently to the solidification of its strata; the thickness of which, like the

depth of the soil, varies from a few feet to a few inches. Shale occurs as amongst most limestones; and, in some places so intimately blended with the latter, as to cause it to fall to pieces on exposure to the atmosphere. The minerals as yet noticed, in this formation, are chert, or hornstone, basanite, chlorite, calcareous spar, barytes, sulphate of strontian, sulphuret of iron, and sulphuret of zinc. Pure granite is seldom or never found.

THE SOILS of Upper or Western Canada are various; that which predominates, is composed of brown clay and loam, with different proportions of marl intermixed; this compound soil prevails principally in the fertile country between the St. Lawrence and Ottawa; towards the N. shore of Lake Ontario it is more clayey, and extremely productive. The substratum throughout these districts is a bed of horizontal limestone, which in some places rises to the surface. The colour is of different shades of blue, interspersed with grains of white quartz. It is used for building, and is manufactured into excellent lime by an easy process of calcination; and greatly enriches and invigorates the soil when sprinkled over it. The limestone of Niagara differs from the foregoing in colour and quality, being grey, and not so easily calcined into lime. The Newcastle district lying between the upper section of the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence, is a rich black mould; which also prevails throughout the East Riding of York, and on the banks of the Ouse, or Grand River, and the Thames.

At Toronto the soil is fertile, and its alluvial nature is clearly demonstrated by the scarcity of stones for common use, which is also the case in some townships bordering Lakes Erie, St. Clair, and the Detroit. A light sandy soil predominates round the head of Lake Ontario.

The quantity of good soil in Canada, compared with the extent of the country, is equal to that of any part of the globe; and here yet remains location for several millions of the human race. The best lands are those on which the *hardest* timber is found—such as oak, maple, beech, elm, black-walnut, &c., though bass-wood when of luxuriant growth, and pine when large, clean, and tall, also indicate good land. Many of the *cedar swamps*, where the cedars are not stunted, and mingled with ash of a large growth, contain a very rich soil, and are calculated to form the finest herbage

grounds in the world. So great is the fertility of the soil in Canada, that 50 bushels of wheat per acre are frequently produced on a farm, where the stumps of trees, which probably occupy an eighth of the surface, have not been eradicated—some instances of 60 bushels per acre occur, and near York, in Upper Canada, 100 bushels of wheat were obtained from a single acre! In some districts wheat has been raised successively on the same ground for 20 years without manure.

The soil on the promontory where Quebec stands, is light and sandy in some parts, in others it is a mixture of loam and clay; beneath the soil a black, silicious slaty rock is everywhere met with, resting generally on a bed of granite. Above Richelieu Rapids, where the mountains commence retreating to the S. and N., the greater part of the soil of the low lands is apparently of alluvial formation, consisting of a light and loose blackish earth, ten or twelve inches in depth, lying on a stratum of cold clay.

The soil of Montreal island is generally alluvial, consisting in many places of light sand and loam, and in others of a stiff clay, on a horizontal stratum of limestone with animal remains: the substratum granite being intersected by black slaty rock, similar to that of Quebec.

Along the Ottawa there is a great extent of alluvial soil, and many new districts of fertile land are constantly brought into view.

MINERALOGY.—Among the mountains to the W. of the St. Lawrence, have been obtained iron felspar, hornblende, native iron ore, granite (white, grey and red), and a kind of stone very common in Canada, called limestone granite, it being limestone that calcines to powder, yet when fractured resembles granite: marble is in abundance, and plumbago of the finest quality. The iron mines of St. Maurice have long been celebrated, and the metal prepared with wood is considered equal if not superior to Swedish. Canada is rich in copper, lead, tin, cobalt, titanium, molybdenum, manganese, zinc ore, &c.

Copper abounds in various parts of the country; some large specimens have been found in the angle between Lakes Superior and Michigan. At the Coppermine river (Ontanagon 300 miles from the Sault de Ste. Marie), this metal, in a pure and malleable state, lies in connexion with a body

of serpentine rock, which it almost completely overlays; it is also disseminated in masses and grains throughout the substance of the rock. Henry and others speak of a rock of pure copper, from which the former cut off an 100 lbs. weight. Mr. Schoolcraft examined the remainder of the mass in 1820, and found it of irregular shape—in its greatest length 3 feet 8 inches, greatest breadth 3 feet 4 inches, making about 11 cubic feet, and containing, of metallic matter, about 2,200 lbs.; but there were many marks of chisels and axes upon it, as if a great deal had been carried off. The surface of the block, unlike that of most metals which have been long exposed to the atmosphere, is of metallic brilliancy.

The beautiful spar, peculiar to Labrador, whence it derives its name, has long been celebrated; some specimens are of an ultramarine, or brilliant sky-blue colour, others of a greenish-yellow, of a red, and of a fine pearly grey tint. Marble of excellent quality and of different hues, white, green, and variegated, is found in several parts of the country; and limestone, so useful to the agriculturist, almost everywhere abounds. According to the geological survey in 1847-48, it appears that the quantity of iron in the province is likely to prove very considerable. Considering the valuable deposits of this mineral already known in Marmora, Madoc, Bedford, Hull, &c., and the deflection of the magnet over regions of great extent, it is not unreasonable to suppose that provincial beds may exist of equal consequence with those of New York State.

The deposit of gypsiferous shale, so valuable for its gypsum salt, hydraulic lime, occupies nearly all that neck of land which separates Lake Ontario from Lake Erie, skirts the shore of the former lake through Niagara county, passes by Cayuga, York, and Paris, near Galt, on the Grand River, and turns northward towards Cabot's head on Lake Huron. The thickness of this deposit is estimated at 300 feet. About 3½ miles below Cayuga, there is a hard solid bed of water lime, 30 feet thick. The gypsum, it appears, is deposited in detached masses, almost invariably assuming more or less of a conical shape. Adjacent to the gypsum, and indeed sometimes intermixed with it, are vast quantities of water lime. The beds worked in York and Paris are extensive, and produce excellent gypsum. This part of Canada, it is asserted, extending from Galt to Cayuga, cannot fail

to become, in time, from the mineral contents of the subsoil, one of the most valuable parts of the province.

An interesting discovery has been made of the existence of lithographic stone at Rama, on Lake Simcoe. It is of the best quality, and the supply is very large, which is the more satisfactory, inasmuch as this stone is only to be found in one other place in the world—Solenhofen on the Danube—and has hitherto commanded a monopoly price.

I have already adverted to the native copper found on the banks of Lake Superior, on the Coppermine river; iron is abundant in various parts of Western Canada, particularly at Charlotteville, about eight miles from Lake Eric; it is of that description which is denominated shot ore, a medium between what is called mountain and bog ore; the metal made is of a superior quality. The Marmora Iron works, about 32 miles north of the Bay of Quinté, on the river Trent, which are situated on an extensive white rocky flat, bare of stones, and were apparently in former times the bottom of a river; exhibit like many other parts of Canada, different ridges and water courses; the iron ore is extraordinarily rich, some specimens yielding 92 per cent.; it is found on the surface, requiring only to be raised—the requisite smelting materials of limestone and pine fuel abound in the vicinity. Magnetic oxyde, red oxyde, mountain, or lake ore, and other varieties are met with at this place. Black lead is found also at Marmora, on the shores of the Gannanoqui lake, and in the eastern division of Western Canada, where it is said some silver mines are known to the Indians; small specimens of a metal like silver have been found at Marmora, and titanium at Lake Superior.

Mr. Murray is of opinion that the N. shore of Lake Huron is a region of great mineral importance. Although the whole district is covered by a dense forest, still in its original wild condition several copper lodes have been discovered—some of decided value, others of considerable promise. The "Bruce mines," now being worked, on the main shore between French and Palladean islands, 10 miles west of Thessalon Point, are very valuable.

Two mineral springs flow at Scarborough, 15 miles E. of Toronto. Above the Niagara Falls is a phenomenon, termed the Burning Spring, the water of which is in a constant state of ebullition, black, warm, and emit-

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ting a portion of sulphuretted hydrogen gas sufficient to light a mill, which stood at the place, the gas yielding, when concentrated in a tube, a light and beautiful flame; in winter the water loses its burning properties. At the head of Lake Ontario there are several fountains, strongly impregnated with sulphur; the latter is found in substance collected into solid lumps of brimstone. The Indians speak of volcanoes in several parts of the province, particularly towards the Chippewa hunting-grounds.

Salt licks (springs) are numerous; one at Salt Fleet yielded a barrel of salt a day. Near the Moravian villages, on the river Thames, there are springs of petroleum, and a bituminous substance appears on several of the waters in the north-west country: on the above named river there is a quarry of soft free stone, of a dark colour, which the Indians hew out with their axes: it will not endure the heat of fire, but is useful for building. Near the Gannanoqui Lake is found a soft-soap stone, with a smooth oily surface. Gypsum is obtained in large quantities and of excellent quality on the Grand, or Ouse river. Potter's and pipe clay are frequent, and yellow ochre is occasionally met with.

Mr. Derottermund, chemist to the government geological survey of Canada, says that the waters of the St. Lawrence which flow past Montreal, are of two kinds, the one coasting along the left side of the river appertains to the Ottawa, and is of a brown colour, the other, flowing opposite to the city, comes from the great lakes and is of a fine blue colour. These waters run together for several leagues without intermingling, as may be observed in the Lake of Geneva, where the Rhône preserves in its passage through the lake its peculiar blue colour. The waters of both the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa, are very pure, differing from distilled water only by .002 or .003. The different specific gravity of the two waters may possibly be the cause of their not intermingling; both contain chlorides, sulphates, and carbonates, with bases of lime and of magnesia, but the St. Lawrence water holds in solution carbonate of lime, and is not therefore so well adapted for culinary purposes. The brown colour of the Ottawa water may be owing to the presence of a very minute quantity of marl or loam, or the two rivers being impregnated differently with saline matter, the rays of light are reflected differently, and the effect is the

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more striking when the two waters are in contact and in large quantities.

Water taken from the river opposite Montreal, in July, 1845, Mr. Derottermund obtained the following comparison:—

	St. Lawrence.	Ottawa.
	grs.	grs.
Sulphate of Magnesia . . .	0.62	0.69
Chloride of Calcium . . .	0.38	0.60
Carbonate of Magnesia . . .	0.27	1.07
Carbonate of Lime . . .	—	0.017
Silica . . .	0.31	0.50
	1.59	2.877

There is a great difference observable in the transparence and purity of the waters of the great lakes. Those of the Ontario, Erie, and the southern parts of Michigan, are like other lake waters; but Huron, and the northern part of Lake Michigan, and it is said also Superior, contain waters of a degree of purity and clearness such as is seldom to be found elsewhere. The Huron waters are so transparent that the rays of the sun are said to pass through them as through the cloudless atmosphere, without meeting with any solid matter in suspense to obstruct or draw off their caloric. Hence the water on the surface, and that drawn from a depth of 200 fathoms, has been found of precisely the same temperature, viz. 56°. Whether the water in the lowest depths of lakes Superior and Ontario be salt or fresh, we cannot ascertain; for the greater density of the former may keep it always below, or there may be a communication with the ocean.

CLIMATE.—The temperature of the numerous regions of this vast country necessarily vary, according to their distance from the equator, and the contiguity of mountains and forests; but generally speaking the clear blue sky, the absence of fogs, and the consequent peculiar elasticity of animal fibre, indicate the salubrity of British North America. In Eastern Canada, the greater severity of the winter, is owing partly to its latitudinal position, and partly to the north eastern range of lofty mountains. In the more northern part of the province, the snow commences in November, but seldom lies many days on the ground before December, when the whole country is covered by it for several feet deep, nor does it entirely disappear until the beginning of May. The frost during this period is generally intense, with N.W. winds and clear atmosphere, during the greater part of the winter; but on a change of wind to the

southward and eastward, the weather becomes overcast, the atmosphere damp, with occasional dense fogs, and falls of snow, accompanied by a considerable rise in the thermometer, which usually ranges, during the months of December, January, February, and March, from 32° to 25° below zero, Fah. In 1790, mercury froze at Quebec. The temperature is often 60° Fah. below the freezing point—20° is the average. The extreme cold may be imagined by the effect of the following experiment; bomb-shells were nearly filled with water, an iron plug was then driven into the fusc-hole by a sledge-hammer; when the water froze, the plug was forced out with a loud report, and was thrown with great velocity to a considerable distance; a plug 2½ oz. weight was thrown 415 yards, the elevation of the fuse axis being an angle of 45. When a plug with notched springs, permitting its expansion within the shell, was used, the shell nevertheless burst. Rocks, particularly those of the calcareous, schistous, and sand-stone order, are often rent as if with gunpowder, by the expansive force of intense frost. During the cold frosty nights, the woods creak as if 10,000 *bucheron*s were at work among them.

As winter advances, one snow storm succeeds another till the face of the whole country is changed, every particle of ground is covered, the trees alone remaining visible, and the mighty river St. Lawrence is arrested in its course. The feathered tribes take flight, even the hardy crow retreats, and few quadrupeds are to be seen: some, like the bear, remaining in a torpid state, and others, like the hare, change their colour to pure white.

Instead of the pleasing variety which a Canadian summer presents, enabling the traveller to trace the course of noble rivers—to contemplate the fall of mighty cataracts or the busy hum of commerce in the passing vessels on the moving waters—the fine tints of the forests, and the auburn tinge of the ripening corn—the whistle of the plough-boy, and the lowing of the tended kine—nothing is now to be seen but one unvaried surface; no rivers, no ships, no animals—all one uniform, unbroken plain of snow, the average depth of which, unless where snow-storms or drifts have accumulated, is about 30 inches.

From Quebec to Montreal, the St. Lawrence ceases to be navigable, and serves as a road for sleighs and carriages. The carriage varies in shape according to the fancy of

the owner; sometimes like that of a phaeton, gig, chariot, or family coach: the body is placed on what are called *runners*, which resemble in form the irons of a pair of skates, rising up in front in the same manner, and answering somewhat the same purpose. The *high runners* are about eighteen inches long; the carriage is generally elevated about twelve inches above the snow, over which when level it glides with great ease, without sinking deep: but when *cahots* (from *cahoter*, to *jolt*, a word denoting narrow ridges with deep furrows), are formed in the snow, the motion is like rowing in a boat against a head sea, producing a sensation in one unaccustomed to it, something like sea-sickness. The carriage is often mounted with silver, and ornamented with expensive furs. The *traineaux*, *burline*, *cutter*, and *sleigh*, are all varieties of the *carriage*.

The dress of the Canadian now undergoes a complete change; the hat and *bonnet-rouge* are thrown aside, and fur caps, fur cloaks, fur gloves, are put in requisition, with worsted hose over as well as under the boots; those who take exercise on foot, use snow shoes, or *moccasins*, which are made of a kind of network, fixed on a frame, and shaped like a boy's paper kite, about 2 feet long, and 18 inches broad; these cover so much of the surface that even when the snow is softest the wearer sinks in it but a very few inches.

While the severity of the season is thus guarded against by the Canadians when out of doors, their habitations are also secured against the destructive power of intense cold. The walls of the houses are usually plastered on the outside, to preserve the stones from moisture, which during extreme frost, renders them liable to split; and the apartments are heated with stoves, which keep the temperature at a higher and more uniform rate than is done by our English fire-places.

And here it may be observed, that the result of intense cold (such as is felt in Canada is, if not guarded against, similar to that of intense heat; with this difference, that it is easier to guard against the effects of the one in North America than of the other in India. A cold iron during a Canadian winter, when tightly grasped, blisters and burns nearly in the same manner as a hot iron. The principle in both instances is alike—in the former, the rapidity with which the caloric or vital heat of the body passes from the hand into the cold iron.

destroys the continuous and organic structure of the part; in the latter, the caloric passes so rapidly from the hot *iron* into the hand, as to produce the same effect: heat, in both cases, being the cause; its passing into the body from the iron, or into the iron from the body, being equally injurious. For a similar reason the incautious traveller, in Canada, is *burnt* in the face by a very cold wind, and experiences the same sensation as if exposed to the blast of an eastern sirocco. Milton well describes the effects of extreme cold in the following lines:—

‘Beyond this flood, a frozen continent
Lies, dark and wild, beat with perpetual storms
Of whirlwind and dire hail, which, on firm land
Thaws not, but gathers heap, and ruin seems
Of ancient pile: all else deep snow and ice;
A gulf profound as that Serbonian bog
Betwixt Damietta and Mount Casius old,
Where armies whole have sunk: the parching air
Burns *frons*, (frozen) and cold performs the effect
of fire.” PARADISE LOST, Book ii.

We also find in Virgil Georg. I. 93—

— Boreæ penetrabile frigus adurat.

Dogs become mad at Quebec in December and January when the cold is greatest; extreme cold and extreme heat tending equally to the propagation of hydrophobia. The term *frost-bitten* denotes the effect produced by cold, accompanied by a sharp biting wind. In such weather persons are liable to have the nose, toes, fingers, ears, or those parts where the circulation of the blood is scanty and slow, *frost-bitten*, without being made aware of the change by their own sensations; and it not infrequently happens that they are first informed of their misfortune by a passing stranger, who observes the nose, for instance, becoming quite *white*, while the rest of the face is very red. In such a predicament, it is at first startling to see an utter stranger running up to you with a handful of snow, calling out “*your nose, sir: your nose is frost-bitten*,” and without further ceremony, rubbing without mercy at your proboscis. If *snow* be well *rubbed in* in due time, there is a chance of saving the most prominent feature of the face: if not, or if *heat* be applied, not only is the skin destroyed, but the nose, and a great part of the adjacent surface, are irrecoverably lost.

The inevitable result of the long-continued action of snow or cold on the animal frame is death, and that of the most pleasing kind;—at first a pleasing sensation of languor is felt, to this succeeds an oppressive drowsiness which, if indulged in, is

surely fatal; the sufferer passing, impassible and unconscious, from the slumber of life into the cold sleep of death; the countenance remaining as calm and placid as if the pulse of existence still vibrated through the frame, while voluntary muscular power was suspended, under the temporary oblivion of sound repose. The pleasurable moments which intervene between the states of consciousness and unconsciousness on approaching sleep, and the indistinct visions and indescribable emotions then experienced afford us some idea of the mode in which the soporific influence of frost softens the iron grasp of the grim tyrant. It must not, however, be supposed that the severity of the winter is an obstacle to all out-door amusements, though it stops the navigation of the rivers and the cultivation of the soil; on the contrary, winter in Canada is the season of joy and pleasure: the cares of business are laid aside, and all classes and ranks indulge in a general carnival, as some amends for the toil undergone during the summer months. The sleigh or carriage of the proud *seigneur*, or humble *habitant*, is got ready all over the country—riding abroad on business or pleasure—visiting between friends, neighbours, and relatives commences—city and town balls, pic-nic country parties, where each guest brings his dish, are quite the rage; and, after dining, dancing, supping, and dancing again, the wintry morning dawn is ushered in, while the festive glee is yet at its height, and a violent snow-storm often blockades the *picnickers*, until broad daylight enables them to proceed in their carriages towards home—over the ice-bound rivers and waves of snow, the inconveniences of the moment being viewed as a zest to the more staid and fashionable *routes* of Quebec or Montreal.

Travelling over frozen rivers or lakes is, however, not unattended with real danger; the sleigh, its horses and passengers, having been not unfrequently instantly engulfed, and sucked beneath the ice; there being no warning of the danger until the horses are submerged, dragging the carriage and its inmates after them. Fortunately, the weak or thin places are in general of no great extent; and when the horses are found to be sinking, the passengers instantly leap out on the strong ice, seize the ropes, which, with a running noose, are placed ready for such an emergency on every sleigh horse's neck, and, by sheer pulling, the animal is partially strangled in order to save his life; for if the

horse be allowed to kick and struggle, it only serves to injure and sink him: as soon, however, as the noose is drawn tight, his breathing is momentarily checked, strangulation takes place, the animal becomes motionless, rises to the surface, floats on one side, and is then drawn out on the strong ice, when, the noose being loosened, respiration recommences, and the horse is on his feet carrioling away again in a few minutes as briskly as ever. This singular operation has been known to be performed two or three times a day on the same horse. The traveller on the frozen rivers, but more especially on the frozen lakes, also incurs great danger from the large rifts or openings which run from one side of the lake to the other, from one to six feet broad, causing, at some distance from the crack, a shelving up of the ice to the height of several feet, in proportion to the breadth of the fissure. The sleigh drivers, when they see no other mode of passing, or of escape, make the horses endeavour to leap the chink at full gallop, with the sleigh behind them, at the imminent risk of being engulfed in the lake.

A snow-storm is another source of danger to the American traveller; and indeed a snow-storm on land is as terrific as a hurricane at sea, while this peculiar disadvantage attends the traveller on *terra firma*, that he has no land-marks, to supply the place of the mariner's compass, and guide him in his trackless path; the excited intellect becomes rapidly bewildered, memory fails, and a road often travelled, and in calmer moments well known, is utterly lost in the remembrance of the unfortunate traveller. The heavily-falling snow is accompanied by a violent gale of wind, which drifts the lighter particles along with great velocity, forming in its progress innumerable eddies according to the inequalities of the surface, and raising as it were light clouds from the earth, which obscure and confuse every thing. This drift, which the Canadians call *La Poudre*, consists of minute but intensely frozen particles of snow, which, whirled by the impetuosity of the hurricane, force their way through the smallest window or door chink, leaving large heaps of snow on the floor in a few hours, as we sometimes experience on a much smaller scale in England.

The horses in the sleighs or carriages have small bells hung on the harness, the sound of which is cheering to the animal as well as to his master: in a frosty night, sound is

rapidly and extensively conveyed to an anxious and listening ear, and the tinkle of the distant sleigh bell may well be thought musical.

Below Quebec the St. Lawrence is not frozen over, but the navigation is impeded by the large masses of ice which are floated down the river from the upper districts, and kept in motion by the combined action of the current at the narrows opposite Quebec, and the diurnal influence of the ocean tides.

Crossing the river at these times, though a dangerous enterprise, is one constantly undertaken. The period chosen is high water, when the large masses of ice are almost stationary; the canoe is then launched, the people being provided with ropes, boat-hooks and paddles; a sheet of ice being reached the passengers jump on it, drawing the canoe after them, until they come to another opening, when they again launch their fragile conveyance, which is pushed towards another sheet of ice, and so on, the greatest dexterity being necessary to avoid being crushed to pieces, canoe and all, between huge masses of ice.

At distant intervals, about once in ten years, the St. Lawrence is completely frozen across at Quebec, when a grand rejoicing or jubilee takes place; booths are erected; sleigh-racing, skating, driving, &c., are performed on a smooth sheet of ice, which for eight miles appears like a mirror, and the *pont* (as it is termed) enables the country people from the opposite side to bring their provisions, &c., to market in carriages without the difficulty and danger of crossing the half-frozen river in their slight canoes.

As soon as the winter sets in, the farmer is obliged to house all his cattle, sheep, and poultry; those destined for winter use are killed before they lose any of the fat acquired during the summer and autumn. No salt is necessary to preserve them; they are exposed to the frost for a short time, when they become as hard as ice, and in this state, after being packed in casks or boxes with snow, are preserved from the external air. At the end of four or five months they are perfectly good, and are thawed when required for use with *cold* water—*warm* water would render the provisions quite useless. Fish is also preserved in a similar manner, and, it is stated, may be restored to life four or five days after, if immediately frozen when taken out of the water.

During the month of April, the influence of the sun on the ice and snow begins to be

felt; in the middle of April spring commences at Montreal; and three weeks after, the snow has all disappeared in the neighbourhood of Quebec; and the ice which had been accumulating in the great lakes and rivers connected with the St. Lawrence, rushes down in vast masses towards the ocean, which again dashes it inland with the impetuosity of the gulf tides, presenting an extraordinary scene: sometimes the St. Lawrence is choked up from bank to bank with masses of ice from 4 to 500 yards in diameter; the sea-tide and land-current forces these on one another, and break them into small pieces, forming fantastic groups of figures, high above the surface of the river. The navigation of the river is not said to be completely open until the second week in May, when the ice-masses have all disappeared; vessels attempting to get out of, or to enter the St. Lawrence while the ice is forming or disappearing, are frequently lost, by being embayed, and crushed to pieces during a severe storm, when the running rigging, and even the rudder become immovable. It is worthy of notice, that so large a river as the St. Lawrence, in lat. 47° N., should be shut up with ice as early, and remain as long closed (5 months) as the comparatively small river Neva, in lat. 60° N.

A singular meteorological phenomenon occurs in the midst of a Canadian winter, when the mercury is far below the freezing point; suddenly, in the course of a single day, (in January generally), it ascends 2° or 3° above the point of congelation, the weather instantly changing from the greatest degree of cold to a complete thaw. The streets are inundated with the melted snow, the roads become soft, and carting on the river dangerous; the thaw sometimes lasts for 10 days, when intense frost again commences, producing a beautiful effect on the trees, by an incrustation of ice, which extends from the trunk to the smallest branch.

The severest winters are generally accompanied by N.E. winds, which convey from Labrador and the icy Pole increase of snow and frost; but the prevailing winds throughout the year are westerly; in the winter, cold, sharp, and dry airs blow from the N. and N.W., and in the summer genial breezes come from the W. and S.W. The E. wind blows for a few days in each month, and in the spring, during April and May, for a longer period. The aurora borealis, or northern lights, are extremely brilliant, and

assume various forms—at one time like gorgeous floating standards, at another as vast crescents, changing into magnificent columns or pillars of resplendent light, which move in majestic grandeur from the horizon towards the zenith, until the whole firmament becomes splendidly irradiated—these suddenly vanishing, and as suddenly reappearing under new forms and colours, and with varied brilliancy, until they entirely disappear. It is said by some, that a rustling like that of silk is heard during a fine aurora.

Summer commences about the middle of May, and is usually ushered in by moderate rains and a rapid rise in the meridian heat, though the nights are still cool; but in June, July, and August, the heat becomes great, and for a few days oppressive, the thermometer ranging from 80° to 95° in the shade; but the average heat during the summer seldom exceeds 75° .

A good idea of the spring of the year may be formed from the following Agricultural Report for Eastern Canada in April and May, by Mr. W. Evans of St. Paul:—"Early in April well-prepared soils are in good order to receive the seed, and about the 10th or 12th wheat sowing very generally commences. The pastures should now be good, and will soon improve the condition of the cattle. Dairy produce abundant in the market, and the prices moderate. Notwithstanding the shortness of the seasons that farmers have here to work in the fields, Canada is by no means unfavourable for farming, and in ordinary seasons, with the seed got in early, on soils well prepared, a good crop of all kinds of grain, wheat particularly, may generally be obtained. With command of labour, which continued emigration will give, the farmer has only to employ double the number of hands for the working season, while the days are long and fine, that he would have required in England for the whole year, and he may get all his work done, perhaps at not a greater expense, and the labourer will have his summer's earnings to take to the woods (if he has a family), to commence farming on his own account, which should be the ultimate aim of all the labouring class of emigrants, if they expect to secure future independence for themselves and their families. At this period the country is charming; after a long and gloomy winter, the earth is again renovated—new life restored to plants—the trees dressed in leaves and blossoms—the fields in beautiful green, and all nature appears to rejoice."

That the climate of Canada has undergone a change is shown by the mean height of the thermometer at 8 A.M., for the month of July in the following years:—1799, 66.87; 1802, 68.35; 1806, 65.96; 1809, 60.60; 1812, 62.16; 1814, 60.45; 1816, 58.65; 1818, 64.00. Since 1818 the change is stated to be considerable, partly owing to the motion of the magnetic poles, and the forest-clearing necessary for the cultivation of the country; the effect is mainly observable in the lengthened duration of summer, and consequent shortening of winter. A wide discrepancy marks the temperature of corresponding latitudes in Europe and America; the inhabited parts of the two Canadas lie between 42° and 48° of N. lat., and should therefore enjoy the temperature of central and southern Europe, if influenced merely by their distance from the equator and pole; but it is far otherwise; yet when we remember that the Tiber was formerly frozen annually—that snow was usual at Rome—that the Euxine sea, the Rhône and Rhine were almost every year covered with a strong sheet of ice, we may look forward to modifications of the climate of Canada.

Among the meteoric phenomena observed in Canada, I may here record that singular one, termed the "*dark days*," which occurred in October, 1785, and in July, 1814. These appearances (as described in the transactions of the Quebec Literary and Horticultural Society), consisted of a dismal pitchy darkness at *noon-day*, continuing about ten minutes at a time, and frequently repeated at twelve, two, three, and four o'clock, the intervals being partially relieved by vast masses of clouds streaked with yellow, driving athwart the darkened sky, accompanied by sudden gusts of wind with much thunder, lightning, and rain, the latter extremely black, and in 1814, mixed with ashes and black powder. On the last occasion, when the sun could be seen, it appeared of a bright red colour. The Indians account for this phenomenon by ascribing it to a volcano in Labrador; and Mr. Gagnon has placed on record that he witnessed at St. Paul's Bay, in the Saguenay country, in 1791, the flames of a vast volcano, during the month of December, accompanied by violent shocks: flames mixed with dark smoke were thrown to a great height, causing the whole atmosphere to appear one mass of fire,—which was in strange contrast with the surrounding snow.

During the summer months there is a

great deal of electric fluid in the atmosphere, and the vividness of the lightning and loudness of the thunder are sometimes appalling in the extreme. As a general rule, it may be observed that the prevailing winds (viz. N.E., N.W., and S.W.) have considerable influence on the temperature of the atmosphere and state of the weather. The S.W. (the most prevalent) is generally moderate, and accompanied by clear skies; the N.E. and E. bring continued rain in summer, and snow in winter; the N.W. is dry, cold, and elastic, owing to the ice-bound region from which it springs. Winds from due N., S., or W., are not frequent, and the direction of the tide, which is felt for nearly 60 miles above Quebec, often causes a change in the atmospheric current.

As Canada becomes cleared, and its swamps drained, its climate will probably become milder, and its inhabitants enjoy as salubrious an atmosphere as we do in England; the heat of summer is now less relaxing, and the cold of winter more bracing than those of New York, or indeed any part of the United States. As regards agriculture, the lengthened winter of Lower Canada is certainly not on the whole unfavourable. The effect of snow covering the earth for a long period, is well known to be beneficial, and the fall of deep snow in a country where frost prevails from 5 to 6 months, is one instance among many, of the merciful dispensations of Providence; had it been otherwise, the continued action of cold on the earth would have so greatly deprived it of its natural caloric, that the heat of even the hottest summer would be insufficient to restore the warmth necessary to the germination of plants, and the ascension of the sap in vegetables. The natural heat of the earth is about 42° Fah., but water, when cooled down to 32° Fah., is converted into snow and ice; by this means, the rivers and the land, with their myriads of fish and insects, are protected by a dense crust of ice, which, being a non-conductor, preserves them from the influence of the immense volume of cold atmosphere, which is continually pressing from the polar regions towards the equator. Thus, that very coating of snow, which seems so chilling, is in fact a warm garment for the earth; and when the sun returns to gladden it, and the north winds are driven back to their icy region, the latent caloric of the earth begins to be developed, and the snow melts, and percolates with rapidity the stiffest soils, rendering them

COMPARATIVE TEMPERATURE OF E. AND W. CANADA.

peculiarly friable, and adapted to the immediate labours of the husbandman,—it is a singular fact, that for a month or six weeks before the apparent termination of the Canadian winter, vegetation is in active process even on the surface of the earth, beneath a covering of snow several feet thick.

At Chicoutimi, N. of Ha-Ha Bay, on the Saguenay, the river closes about Christmas, and the ice breaks up about the middle of April. Potatoes have been planted early in May, and though their tops were frost killed in the middle of September, yet when taken up in the latter end of October, they yielded 30 bushels for one. Indian corn, oats, barley, all the common garden vegetables, and even melons, ripen on the Saguenay in the open ground.

Western Canada.—In an extent of country, lying between 42° and 50° of N. lat., the climate is necessarily various; in the settled townships it is generally delightful, neither so cold in winter as in Eastern Canada, nor so hot in summer as at New York; in the Newcastle district, between 44° and 45°, a man may work in the woods, the whole winter, with his coat off, as in England; and the summer heat is tempered by a cool breeze, which sets in from the S.W. about 10 a.m., and lasts generally to 3 or 4 p.m. In summer, the wind blows two-thirds of the season from the S.W., *i. e.* along the great lakes.

In spring and autumn, this wind brings a good deal of moisture with it. The N.W., which is the most frequent in winter, is dry, cold, and elastic; the S.E. soft, thawy, and rainy; the wind seldom blows from W. or S., more rarely still from the N. Of course, changes of wind are accompanied by corresponding alterations of weather; the most sudden are to the N.W., followed by weather clear and cold for the season—almost every thunder shower clears up with this wind: the longest storms of rain, and the deepest falls of snow, are usually accompanied by easterly winds. It may be generally remarked, that the human frame, in all climates, is more sensibly affected by the quarter whence the wind blows, than by the mere height of the thermometer,—humidity with cold or heat rendering the extremes of each less endurable. The annexed table affords a comparative view of the climate of Western and Eastern Canada, throughout the year. Western Canada, lat. 42°—Eastern Canada, lat. 45°. The great lakes moderate the cold of Eastern Canada.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE CLIMATES OF WESTERN AND EASTERN CANADA.

THERMOMETER—FAHRENHEIT.

Months.	W. CANADA.			E. CANADA.		
	Max.	Min.	Mean.	Max.	Min.	Mean.
January . . .	48	-20	18-17	33	-23	11-14
February . . .	50	8	23-87	40	-29	10-69
March . . .	52	0	26-94	47	-26	12-13
April . . .	83	40	59-70	81	9	48-91
May . . .	92	40	67-82	92	30	67-84
June . . .	97	57	77-81	95	55	78-94
July . . .	103	60	81-87	103	62	82-23
August . . .	99	55	73-24	100	58	74-7
September . . .	92	33	64-45	90	30	59-16
October . . .	74	28	48	55	9	32-24
November . . .	54	10	34-53	40	-13	17-44
December . . .	41	-2	26-43	43	-21	11-94
For the year . . .	73-8	25-72	48-37	63-25	11-75	42-1
For the months June, July, & August . . .	96-66	57-33	77-37	89-33	58-33	77-54
Winter months . . .	46-33	-4-67	22-49	38-60	-24-33	11-25

WEATHER.

Months.	W. CANADA.			E. CANADA.		
	Clear.	Rain or Snow.	Cloudy.	Clear.	Rain or Snow.	Cloudy.
	days.	days.	days.	days.	days.	days.
January . . .	13	8	9	23	4	4
February . . .	11	10	7	21	3	5
March . . .	21	8	2	25	3	3
April . . .	23	3	4	23	3	3
May . . .	22	5	4	23	4	4
June . . .	22	8	4	26	2	2
July . . .	25	3	3	26	3	2
August . . .	21	5	5	16	12	2
September . . .	21	5	4	14	8	5
October . . .	13	8	9	16	5	8
November . . .	11	14	7	14	7	10
December . . .	11	12	8	23	2	5
Total . . .	214	89	62	256	56	53

Note.—There were, during the year, in Western Canada, 34 days snow and 55 rain; and in Eastern Canada, 21 snow and 35 rain.

The climate of Toronto, Western Canada, may be judged of from the following facts—the result of a series of observations made for several years on the shore of Lake Ontario, in 43° 39' N. 79° 36' W. The writer describes the climate on the shores of Lake Ontario as being in many respects genial. The temperature, proceeding westward, is sensibly much milder, and this effect is still further increased by the presence of so vast a body of water, mitigating both the heats of summer and the cold of winter. Even a very short distance inland the difference in both respects is plainly perceptible to the most superficial observer. The early frosts which occasionally do so much damage, are here comparatively harmless. What is a storm of rain on the shore of the lake is frequently snow but a few miles further

back from it. The snow likewise disappears much sooner in the spring, and the average depth is considerably less. In short, it may fairly be said, that to an emigrant from the British Isles to Western Canada, the change is no less surprising than agreeable. There is a clearness, a dryness, a brilliancy in the atmosphere truly delightful after the raw drizzling rains, the fogs and moisture of Europe, while the extremes of temperature are never of long duration, tempered by the fresh gales sweeping the surface of the magnificent Ontario. And if it be admitted that the weather of spring is occasionally variable and unpleasant, this is more than compensated for by the brightness and beauty of the summer and autumn, often extending far into November. There is no doubt but that spring commences at least a month or six weeks earlier than in Quebec and Montreal; that the extremes, and likewise the sudden variations of temperature, are of far less intensity. Winters in Upper Canada sometimes occur with scarcely any snow at all, and a very moderate degree of cold—a fact never noticed in the Lower province—and the further westward we proceed, the more favourable is this difference.

The mean annual temperature for several years has been—

1831 ... 40-68	1836 ... 40-03	1842 ... 44-10
1832 ... 42-20	1837 ... 40-08	1843 ... 42-84
1833 ... 42-40	1838 ... 42-50	1844 ... 44-60
1834 ... 43-30	1840 ... 43-70	1845 ... 44-30
1835 ... 42-0	1841 ... 44-07	

A very inadequate idea, however, of a climate like that of the Canadas is to be formed from the annual or monthly means alone. In these results we lose sight, in a great measure, of the most striking feature, viz.: the sudden and great fluctuations of temperature to which it is subject; for it is evident that the same mean may be produced under very different circumstances—a moderate uniformity of temperature or high extremes balancing one another. Dr. Kelly observes, that, "perhaps there is no part of the globe where the range of the thermometer is greater than in Canada. In the instance given above, the fall in the course of 36 hours was 59 degrees. In winter, changes of a still greater extent, in the course of a day, are not unfrequent. It has been known at Quebec to be from 36° to 40°, with rain during the day, and to fall during the succeeding night many degrees below zero." These variations are no doubt

less severe as we proceed westward, but still sufficiently rigorous, and certainly constitute the most disagreeable part of the climate. A change of 30 degrees in 24 hours, or less, is very common; and the variation has amounted to 43 degrees. The greatest recorded is that of December, 1834. On the noon of the 13th, the weather was fair, with a fresh southerly breeze. In the evening the wind went to N.W., and at 8 A.M. on the 14th, the mercury was at zero, it having been 43 degrees on the previous noon.

The most evident changes occur generally in the early months of winter, and they become less as the summer advances.

The annual range of the thermometer was in the years—

	Range		Range
1831 ... 16 to 84	100°	1838 ... 4 to 89	93
1832 ... 20 " 84	104	1840 ... 11 " 84	95
1833 ... 10 " 86	96	1841 ... 2 " 92	92
1834 ... 2 " 90	92	1842 ... 5 " 87	82
1835 ... 15 " 84	99	1843 ... 6 " 92	98
1836 ... 20 " 85	105	1844 ... 8 " 85	93
1837 ... 9 " 82	91	1845 ... 2 " 94	96

Hence, mean annual range, between the hours of 8 A.M., and 12 = 95°.

	Mean Monthly Range.	Mean Daily Range.		Mean Monthly Range.	Mean Daily Range.
January ... 51	... 29		July ... 31	... 21	
February ... 50	... 31		August ... 30	... 20	
March ... 47	... 27		September ... 29	... 24	
April ... 45	... 26		October ... 38	... 23	
May ... 40	... 23		November ... 41	... 22	
June ... 31	... 21		December ... 41	... 27	

The above exhibits the mean variation monthly and daily. The month of February is the coldest in the year, July the hottest; the former likewise subject to the greatest extremes. Mean of October approximates nearly to the annual mean. Taking the number of days in the several years up to the freezing-point, we have as follows:—

1831 ... 113	1836 ... 140	1842 ... 98
1832 ... 112	1837 ... 124	1843 ... 126
1833 ... 115	1840 ... 101	1844 ... 102
1834 ... 110	1841 ... 104	1845 ... 105
1835 ... 100		

The mean of which is 112, being the average number of days of frost at 8 A.M. during the year.

The mean annual temperature of the central parts of England, from October to March, is usually 42°. In December, January, and February, it is generally below 40°. In July and August the range is from 62° to 65°. The mean annual temperature, noon and night, of the central part of England is about 50°.

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DAYS OF RAIN AND SNOW IN WESTERN CANADA.

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Days of Rain and Snow in Western Canada.

Months.	Average for the year 1845.			
	Tem- pera- ture.	Days of Rain.	Depth of Rain.	Days of Snow
January	23.8	3	0.27	8
February	24.6	2	0.12	4
March	33.7	3	0.37	6
April	42.7	11	1.94	3
May	51.4	6	1.33	—
June	62.4	9	2.51	—
July	67.2	5	1.00	—
August	67.0	8	1.74	—
September	68.0	15	4.38	—
October	46.5	11	0.55	1
November	35.0	6	0.00	5
December	19.6	1	0.00	9

Observations for nine years' record—

in	No. of days of Rain.	Depth. Inches.
1834	96	22.96
1835, for 11 months	70	19.79
1836, for 12 months	71	19.69
1837 " "	82	25.51
1841 " "	75	21.94
1842 " "	89	26.49
1843 " "	74	24.08
1844 " "	92	19.27
1845 " "	79	16.56

The mean annual depth of the above is 22.02 inches, which agrees with several places in England (London, 20; York, 22; Aberdeen, 23); but the manner in which the same quantity is distributed varies materially. In Canada it falls heavily, and for a short time, the reverse of which is the case in the British Isles, for it is stated by an eminent meteorologist, that it has been found, from a long series of observations, to rain every other day in the latitude of London. The rainy season, moreover, in Canada (although rain falls sometimes more or less during the winter) may be considered as confined to the period between the middle of April and the end of November, four or five months of winter being nearly without it altogether.

The winter of Western Canada, although not even at present severe, is becoming milder every year, as cultivation extends and drainage increases. It is a great error to suppose that the great lakes, Ontario, &c., are frozen over at any time: they are always open in the centre, frequently exhibiting a beautiful and striking phenomenon during the inclement season. By reason of the water being warmer than the circumambient atmosphere, an evaporation resembling steam may be observed ascending in every variety of shape, in clouds, columns, and pyramids, from the vast surfaces of Lakes Ontario,

Erie, Huron, and Superior, as if from so many boiling cauldrons.

The chain of shallow lakes which run in an E. and S.E. direction from Lake Simcoe towards the midland district, are seldom frozen more than an inch thick until about Christmas, and are thawed again before April.

The earth in Upper Canada is not generally frozen at a greater depth than from 12 to 18 inches, and the snow rarely acquires a greater thickness than from 18 inches to 2 feet, unless when drifted. It is very seldom that the roads are permanently fit for the use of the *sleigh*, or *carriole*, before the second week in January, and they are again broken up by the end of March: this shows the duration of sharp frosts and snow: in fact, a labouring man may, if he chooses, work at all times out of doors: whereas in Eastern Canada, at the more northerly stations, it would be impossible so to do.

There are several remarkable phenomena in the climate of Western Canada, hitherto unaccounted for—one of these is termed—

The *Indian Summer*, which almost uniformly commences and terminates in the month of November, when the weather is delightfully mild and serene, with a misty hazy atmosphere, though the haze is dry and soft, appearing to rest chiefly on the horizon. In the evenings of the *Indian Summer*, the sun generally goes down with a crimson flush on the western heavens: the temperature is exceedingly grateful; and the feathered tribes, who instinctively seek a southern region on the approach of the rigorous winter of the north, avail themselves of this delightful season to prosecute their journey. Accordingly, at this time, the rivers and lakes of Western Canada may be seen covered with innumerable flocks of wild fowl.

Another very extraordinary meteorological phenomenon is that which may be denominated the *tertian intervals*. The greatest intensity of frost is always *remittent* at the end of the *third day*, when several days of mild weather succeed; thus the extreme severity of the winter is never felt more than two or three days at a time.

Owing perhaps to the distance from the sea, and the absence of saline particles in the atmosphere, the climate is so dry, that metals rust but slightly by exposure, even on board vessels navigating lakes. Hence iron bolts are used in ship building, instead of copper.

The people think, and the observation of meteorologists appears to justify the popular opinion, that when the lake-waters rise to a great height, the season is unhealthy. In 1815, the waters of Lake Ontario, which had been annually rising, attained a greater elevation than they had done for 30 years, and the weather was unusually trying.

On the whole, the climate of Eastern and Western Canada is favourable to health and longevity. In the Niagara, and other districts of Eastern Canada, peaches arrive at great perfection in the open air. The energy of the inhabitants is one indication among many of the salubrity of the atmosphere.

CHAPTER IV.

POPULATION OF E. AND W. CANADA, CLASSIFICATION, CHARACTER, DIVISION OF RACES, GOVERNMENT, LAWS, RELIGION, EDUCATION, THE PRESS, CRIME, &c.

CANADA, like other portions of the American continent, was densely peopled by a copper-coloured race, to whom the term Indians was given by the discoverers of the "New World." The establishment of European Colonies, and the wars waged between the early English and French settlers in Canada, led to the rapid destruction of the aborigines, who being neither agricultural or nomadic, and living solely by the produce of the chase and fishing, were driven into the back settlements as civilization extended. The Abenagua, Algonquin, Iroquois, Missisagua, and Huron Indians, occupied the districts from below Quebec to the country around lakes Erie and Huron.

We have no means of ascertaining the numbers of the Indians then inhabiting Canada. Charlevoix, in 1721, estimated the number of some of the Algonquin tribes at 6,000 souls; but they were then diminishing daily under the baneful effects of intoxicating liquors, and by diseases introduced from Europe. Some of the Iroquois tribes with whom the French waged several disastrous wars, were estimated by Charlevoix, in his *History of New France*, vol. iii. p. 203, at 60,000 souls.

The Indian population remaining in 1828 was estimated by Mr. M'Taggart (*Three Years in Canada*) at 43,000, viz., 15,000 in Eastern Canada, and 28,000 in Western Canada.

The British Government, in fulfilment of previous engagements, distributes annually certain articles among a portion of the aboriginal population in Canada; and the following is an official statement of the presents required for the year 1849:—

Full equipment—chiefs, 46; warriors, 50; women, 77. Common equipment—chiefs, 190; warriors, 3,356; women, 3,977; boys, 1,024; girls, 1,021; total, 12,818. The equipments, include blue and grey clothes, cottons, linen, about 12,000 blankets, brass kettles, muskets, powder, ball, tobacco, needles (22,428), combs (5,607), awls (5,607), knives (5,607).

The character of the Indians and their different tribes, will be given under the description of the Hudson's Bay territories.

In 1692, Quebec contained only 50 Europeans, including both sexes. In 1706, M. M. Randot stated the population of Canada at 20,000. In 1714, M. De Ponchartrain, in a letter to M. De Vaudreuil, stated, that Canada contained 4,484 men capable of bearing arms, *i.e.*, from 14 to 60 years of age, which multiplied by 6, gives 26,904.

In 1720, the city of Quebec contained 7,000, and Montreal 3,000 inhabitants.

The following details are chiefly derived from the documents laid before the Canadian Parliament in 1849. The population of Eastern Canada is stated to have increased as follows:—

Year.	Pop.	Year.	Pop.
1676	8,415	1825	423,630
1688	11,249	1827	471,676
1700	15,000	1831	511,922
1706	20,000	1836	572,827
1759	65,000	1844	690,782
1784	113,000	1848	768,334

The census of 1825 showed, on a population of 423,630, male adults to the number of 105,571, or a per centage of 24.90. In 1844 on a population of 690,782, as compared with 511,920 in 1825, the increased

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POPULATION OF EASTERN CANADA BY COUNTIES.

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per centage of males was 34.94. In 1844-45 there were, of white inhabitants—males, 344,855; females, 346,077; coloured—males, 140; females, 141.

There was no census taken in Eastern Canada for 1848; but by careful estimates and per centages on the previous rates of annual increase, an approximate calculation has been made; and the following table shows the area in square miles of each county in Eastern Canada, and the population in 1844 and 1848:—

Districts.	Land, Square Miles.	Population.	
		1844.	1848.
GASPE:—			
Gaspe	4,033	7,146	7,771
Bonaventure	4,560	8,246	8,786
QUEBEC:—			
Saguenay	75,700	13,475	19,364
Montmorenci	7,465	8,434	8,988
Quebec	16,040	45,676	65,805
Portneuf	10,440	15,922	17,777
Rimouski	8,200	17,630	19,683
Kamouraska	1,050	17,465	18,992
L'Islet	1,220	17,013	18,520
Bellechasse	1,083	14,649	16,823
Lotbiniere	735	13,697	15,292
Dorchester	2,050	34,817	38,877
Megantic	1,465	6,449	7,535
THREE RIVERS:—			
Champlain	6,200	10,404	11,312
St. Maurice	7,300	20,833	17,931
Drummond	1,644	9,374	10,407
Yamaska	283	11,050	13,000
Nicolet	487	16,310	17,735
ST. FRANCIS:—			
Sherbrooke	2,785	13,485	15,055
Stanstead	632	11,964	13,000
MONTREAL:—			
Berthier	9,590	26,850	29,988
Leinster	5,090	25,533	28,507
Terrebonne	545	20,846	23,052
Two Mountains	1,404	25,835	29,932
Ottawa	35,100	12,434	17,870
Montreal	197	64,306	71,039
Vaudreuil	330	17,063	18,554
Beauharnois	717	28,746	32,095
Huntingdon	488	36,204	39,371
Chambly	211	17,155	18,610
Verchères	198	13,167	14,929
Richelieu	373	20,888	22,255
St. Hyacinthe	477	21,937	23,894
Rouville	429	22,898	24,900
Shedden	749	10,105	11,282
Missisquoi	360	10,865	11,815
Total	209,290	690,782	768,334

This statement shows how thinly Eastern Canada is peopled: there being not more than *three mouths and a half* to each square mile.

The census of 1844 in Eastern Canada was accurate, and it shows that out of 690,782 inhabitants, there were under 15 years of age, males, 160,535; females, 158,731 = 319,266.

The proportion in 1844 of married men to the whole, was 60.55 per cent.; and of

unmarried, 39.45. Married women above 14 years of age, 61.18 per cent.; and single, 38.82 per cent.

	Males.	Married.	Single.	Total.
15 and under 21	2,038	39,599	41,627	
21 " 30	22,974	20,176	43,150	
30 " 40	33,684	5,909	39,593	
40 " 50	25,797	31,119	28,916	
50 " 60	15,148	2,089	17,237	
60 and upwards.	13,393	2,780	16,173	
Total in 1844 . .	173,034	73,662	186,696	
" 1831 . .	83,153	60,690	143,843	
" 1825 . .	69,938	36,935	106,873	

In England it is assumed that the births are about 1 to 33 of the whole population, and the deaths 1 in 54. In Eastern Canada, according to the census of 1844, there were—

Districts.	1844.		
	Births.	Deaths.	Marriages.
Quebec	1 in 20	1 in 41	1 in 109
Montreal	" 20	" 51	" 111
Three Rivers	" 21	" 60	" 106
Gaspé	" 29	" 126	" 136
St. Francis	" 101	" 348	" 230
In the whole	" 21	" 53	" 113
Total numbers	32,279	12,928	6,118

Note.—The returns for St. Francis district are imperfect, and fractions omitted.

Districts.	1847.		
	Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
Montreal	18,772	381	9,435
Quebec	11,715	2,065	10,221
Three Rivers	3,612	672	1,238
St. Francis	514	161	120
Gaspé	594	104	128
Total	35,207	6,283	21,142

Increase of Births over Deaths, 14,165.

The census of 1844 shows, in Eastern Canada, the following interesting particulars:—

Deaf and Dumb in 1844.

Districts.	Males.	Fems.	Totals.	Average.
Montreal	254	167	421	1 in 875
St. Francis	14	17	31	" 1,046
Three Rivers	39	31	70	" 983
Quebec	73	58	151	" 1,360
Gaspé	7	3	10	" 1,539
Total	407	276	683	1,011

108 BLIND, DEAF, DUMB, AND IDIOTS IN EASTERN CANADA.

Blind in 1844.

Districts.	Males.	Fems.	Total.	Average.
Montreal . . .	160	140	300	1 in 1,212
St. Francis . .	0	0	0	" 2,449
Three Rivers . .	45	44	89	" 774
Quebec	60	60	120	" 1,863
Gaspé	2	2	4	" 3,818
Total . . .	273	247	520	1,328

Idiots in 1844.

Districts.	Males.	Fems.	Total.	Average.
Montreal . . .	220	237	457	1 in 769
St. Francis . .	11	0	11	" 1,022
Three Rivers . .	71	04	75	" 310
Quebec	172	159	331	" 638
Gaspé	2	7	9	" 1,710
Total . . .	482	407	889	728

Lunatics in 1844.

Districts.	Males.	Fems.	Total.	Average.
Montreal . . .	85	82	167	1 in 2,261
St. Francis . .	2	0	2	" 4,054
Three Rivers . .	34	29	63	" 1,003
Quebec	40	32	72	" 2,853
Gaspé	2	1	3	" 5,133
Total . . .	169	160	329	2,203

In 1831 there were returned as living upon alms in Lower Canada, 1282 persons, or one in every 800 of the population. In 1844 the number was 4552, or one in every 151 of the population. It appears there was an increase of pauperism between 1831 and 1844, (probably owing to the rebellion of 1837-38) as shown in the following table:

Districts.	1831.	1844.	Per cent. Increase.
Montreal . . .	1 in 575	1 in 282	150-32
St. Francis . .	—	" 1,801	—
Three Rivers . .	" 710	" 303	121-52
Quebec	" 221	" 08	337-30
Gaspé	" 1,931	" 570	170-00

Proportionate Occupations of the People.

Occupations.	1831.	1844.
Proprietors of real estate	1 in 0	1 in 0
Non-Proprietors	" 20	" 18
Families subsisting by agriculture	" 50,834	No return.
" " " " " " " " " " " "	" 2,501	1 in 3,651
Male farm-servants . . .	" 7,002	" 6,100
Domestic servants, Male	No return.	" 5,411
" " Female	—	" 11,525
Children attending school under 14 years of age	1 in 4	" 3

In the five years ending 1833, there

arrived in the colony immigrants to the number of 167,697; ditto, 1833, 96,351; ditto, 1843, 123,860; ditto, 1846, 78,271. In the year 1847, 89,440. Total, 505,619.

Comparative Statement of Immigrants at Quebec.

	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
England	12,493	6,946	7,701	8,883	9,163	28,442
Ireland	35,470	9,823	9,773	14,208	21,049	50,270
Scotland	6,887	4,178	4,551	2,174	1,645	3,315
Lower Ports	524	430	217	160	896	7,437
Total	40,374	21,187	22,142	25,375	32,763	89,440

Note.—In 1845, 150; and in 1846, 896, given as from "Lower Ports," were from Germany.

Most of these immigrants proceed to Western Canada, but many cross the frontier into the territories of the United States. It is not possible to ascertain the numbers who thus leave the colony, nor in what district the immigrants who remain settle.

The year 1847 was one of large emigration from the United Kingdom to Canada, owing to the famine in Ireland and in Scotland, and the distress in England. Of 98,088 passengers who embarked, 8,648 died at sea or in quarantine in Canada. To Western Canada, 76,380 immigrants passed during 1847—of these 15,228 were admitted into the hospitals at the various stations, and 3,805 died. About 17,000 passed into the United States.

The number of ships that arrived at Quebec with immigrants in 1847, was—from England 133—Ireland 224—Scotland, Germany 36—total 431—landed in the colony 83,873—of whom 695 were cabin passengers—32,817 male, and 25,654 female adults—13,101 male and 13,301 female children, and 4,872 infants under one year old, of whom 172 were born at sea. The male adults were—mechanics 1185—farmers 11,096—labourers 23,239—servants 6.

Immigration from the U. Kingdom to N. America.

Years.	Nh. Am. Colonies.	U. States.	Years.	Nh. Am. Colonies.	U. States.
1825	8,741	5,551	1837	333,215	283,489
1826	12,818	7,063	1838	29,884	36,770
1827	12,848	14,526	1839	4,577	14,332
1828	12,064	12,817	1840	12,556	33,536
1829	13,307	15,978	1841	32,293	40,642
1830	30,574	24,547	1842	38,194	45,017
1831	58,007	23,418	1843	64,123	63,852
1832	28,808	29,109	1844	23,518	28,335
1833	68,339	32,872	1845	22,024	43,660
1834	28,808	29,109	1846	31,803	68,538
1835	40,060	33,074	1846	43,430	52,229
1836	15,373	25,720	1847	109,680	142,154
1836	34,226	37,774	1848	31,065	188,233
Total	333,215	263,489	Total	767,373	1,040,797

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The French colonists did not advance far into Western Canada, probably owing to their wars with the Indians. Previous to 1770, the only white settlers in Western Canada were a few Frenchmen in the vicinities of Kingston and Detroit. When the United Colonies (now the United States) threw off their allegiance to England, and the war commenced between them and the parent state, many desirous of remaining under the crown of England, fled from the revolting provinces, and fixed their residences at the frontier townships in Western Canada. Their numbers were gradually increased by emigrants from Britain. The progressive augmentation since 1811 has been as follows:—

Population in Western Canada.

1811	77,000	1835	336,469
1824	151,097	1838	385,824
1825	158,027	1839	407,515
1826	163,702	1840	427,441
1827	170,059	1841	465,357
1828	201,000	1842	486,065
1832	261,069	1848	732,292
1834	320,693	1849	750,000

The average annual increase from 1824 to 1828 was 9,261; from 1828 to 1832 it was 18,661; from 1832 to 1834 the yearly augmentation was 22,212; from 1834 to 1836 18,712.

Taking the ratio of increase during the periods from 1824 to 1833, and from 1828 to 1836, the population of Upper Canada would double itself in less than 10 years.

The increase of males and females in Western Canada since 1821 has been—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Years.	Males.	Females.
1821	65,792	56,767	1832	130,003	117,039
1823	79,238	70,931	1836	189,271	168,910
1827	95,903	85,842	1842	259,014	226,141
1828	90,405	80,093	1848	387,631	338,248
1829	103,285	92,880			

In 1842 and 1848 the females were to the males as 100 to 88. In 1848 the total female adults were 179,468, of whom 111,034, or 62.04 per cent., were married.

Population of Upper Canada, and its increase at several periods between the years 1824 and 1849, according to the divisions into Municipal Districts.

Districts.	1824.	1825.	1830.	1832.	1834.	1836.	1839.	1841.	1842.	1848.
Bathurst	10,121	10,300	16,015	19,030	22,079	24,127	24,632	27,635	21,655	29,448
Brook								16,621	17,286	20,219
Colborne									13,706	21,379
Dalhousie									16,193	25,620
Eastern	14,879	10,524	19,755	21,735	25,105	28,911	28,827	30,279	32,003	38,853
Gore	13,167	14,215	20,943	27,224	34,618	43,920	51,627	42,577	45,069	67,871
Home	10,609	17,940	28,565	36,633	65,608	53,214	59,209	67,074	83,301	106,985
Huron									7,190	20,450
Johnstown	14,741	15,266	19,277	24,209	28,061	29,237	32,669	35,952	32,445	43,436
London	17,539	17,351	22,803	28,041	37,162	47,096	43,882	32,257	30,276	46,547
Midland	27,605	27,116	34,190	37,467	32,509	24,818	26,179	32,208	34,448	45,299
Newcastle	9,292	9,900	14,850	21,019	27,404	32,936	36,914	41,951	31,015	47,433
Niagara	17,552	18,090	20,916	24,181	27,347	30,447	29,953	34,577	36,642	43,095
Ottawa	2,560	2,680	2,833	5,293	11,823	7,487	8,483	9,324	7,369	10,364
Prince Edward's						12,343	13,999	14,661	14,945	18,021
Simcoe				3,085	—	10,216	10,743	11,576	—	23,050
Talbot							9,066	9,626	10,455	19,274
Victoria							10,687	12,085	13,161	13,198
Wellington								13,851	14,478	38,865
Western	6,932	7,764	9,288	10,027	12,752	17,065	19,267	23,026	24,390	27,440
Totals	151,097	158,027	210,437	261,000	320,693	372,602	407,516	465,357	486,055	723,292
Increase:—										
1825		6,930	52,410	50,523	59,633	51,809	35,013	57,842	20,698	237,237
1830			50,340	110,250	111,442	86,822	86,822	92,855	78,540	258,635
1832				109,993	162,066	162,066	146,455	144,664	113,553	313,777
1834					169,506	197,078	204,297	165,362	165,362	350,790
1836						221,405	249,488	254,920	224,995	402,599
1839							256,418	307,330	275,818	462,232
1841								314,260	328,026	512,855
1842									334,958	565,265
1848										572,195

Note.—In the detail, the number for 1848 is 723,332, showing a difference of 40. The returns for Simcoe in 1834 and 1842, are included in the Home district.

The progressive increase of both sexes, according to ages, is thus shown in Western Canada:—

	Under 16 years of age.		Over 16 years of age.		Total.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1824 . . .	87,940	85,806	41,393	36,762	161,007
1832 . . .	87,119	82,734	79,427	60,730	261,930
1834 . . .	81,561	76,541	85,182	74,109	320,693
1842 . . .	137,664	122,232	108,634	117,605	486,055

According to the census of 1848, there were—

Years.	Males.	Fem.	Males.		Females.	
			Mar.	Single	Mar.	Single
Under 5 . . .	70,834	60,516	—	—	—	—
5 and under 14 . . .	90,430	89,264	—	—	—	—
14 " 18 . . .	—	—	1,950	31,588	—	—
18 " 21 . . .	—	—	1,551	20,516	—	—
21 " 30 . . .	—	—	25,207	30,698	—	—
30 " 45 . . .	—	—	—	—	87,906	60,064
45 and upwards . . .	—	—	—	—	23,398	7,500
60 " . . .	—	—	11,988	3,128	—	—

Note.—The Number of Children between 5 and 16 years of age was 19,082.

Census of Western Canada by Electoral Divisions, as divided by Act 8 Vic. c. 7.

Districts.	Area in Acres.	Population.	
		1842.	1848.
Dathurst . . .	1,200,800	21,655	20,448
Hrock . . .	584,320	17,288	29,219
Colborne . . .	617,040	13,708	21,379
Dalhousie . . .	418,000	10,193	25,520
Eastern . . .	770,520	32,008	38,653
Gore . . .	741,760	45,059	67,671
Home . . .	1,361,000	83,301	106,995
Huron . . .	1,104,000	7,190	20,450
Johnstown . . .	1,021,000	32,445	43,438
London . . .	960,040	30,276	46,547
Midland . . .	1,198,720	34,448	45,299
Newcastle . . .	1,344,640	31,015	47,433
Niagara . . .	763,360	36,642	43,095
Ottawa . . .	532,960	7,369	10,364
Prince Edward . . .	220,000	14,045	18,021
Simcoe . . .	1,448,800	in home	23,050
Talbot . . .	384,000	10,455	19,274
Victoria . . .	842,000	13,196	23,133
Wollington . . .	1,007,000	14,476	36,865
Western . . .	1,910,640	24,390	27,440
Total . . .	18,368,800	486,055	723,292

The contents of each district are given according to Bouchette, making a total of 258,684 square miles. This includes only the surveyed and settled portion of Western Canada, which contains, according to the same authority, a superficial area of 141,000 square statute miles. The number of indi-

viduals to each square mile in the settled districts above named is 25, and to each square mile of area in Western Canada there are 5 inhabitants. The area of the Indian territory in the vicinity of Lake Huron is 1,883,200. New districts and townships are progressively added to the settled parts of the province. The average area of each township is about 60,000 acres. The fine country N. of the Midland, Victoria, and Colborne districts, S. of the parallel of 47° N., and situated between Georgian Bay and the Ottawa, 150 miles long by 150 broad, is as yet unoccupied, and would contain an immense population.

Population of Cities and incorporated Towns in 1848.—Cities: Toronto, 23,503; Hamilton, 9,889; Kingston, 8,369. Towns: Bytown, 6,275; Cornwall, 1,454; Brockville, 2,449; Prescott, 1,775; Picton, 1,599; Belleville, 2,939; Cobourg, 3,513; Port Hope, 2,025; Niagara, 3,100; St. Catharines, 3,416; London, 4,584; Peterboro, 1,906; Brantford, 2,250; Dundas, 1,912. The number of inhabitants to each house is 6½, and the average of persons in each family is 6.

Table of Distances of Principal Towns.

Montreal.											
82	Cornwall										
131	49	Prescott									
143	61	12	Brockville.								
109	117	68	60	Kingston.							
258	170	127	115	69	Belleville.						
304	222	173	161	105	40	Cobourg.					
390	308	259	247	191	132	86	Toronto.				
475	393	344	332	276	217	171	85	Niagara.			
482	400	351	339	283	224	178	92	7	Queenston.		
508	426	377	365	309	250	204	118	33	26	Fort Erie	

In 1848 the births were 27,688; or 1 to every 26. Deaths, 11,518; or 1 to 63. Difference, 16,170; or 1 to 37. The general average of births and deaths in England is of the former 1 in 33, and of the latter 1 in 54. This shows the superior salubrity of Canada, where twin and triplet births are frequent. The Colonial Magazine of 1845 thus announces an instance:—"At Buckingham, near Bytown, Canada, on July 10, Mrs. O'Callaghan of two boys and a girl. Mrs. O'Callaghan has been the mother of five children within the space of two years."

—According to the United States' census in 1840, children under 5 years constitute about 15 per cent. of the population; in Canada nearly 20 per cent.; in England the proportion is much less. For every 100 males born, about 42 die, and for every 100 females, 41 die. In Western Canada there were—

In 1848.	Males.	Females.
Births . . .	16,317	—
Deaths . . .	6,429	—
Lunatics and Idiots	457	1 in 848
Deaf and Dumb . . .	234	" 1,650
Blind . . .	162	" 1,550

The census of the United States does not classify the sexes, as regards lunatics, deaf, dumb, and blind. The proportions of both sexes in the U. States, according to census in 1840, were—blind, 6,916, or 1 in every 2,842 inhabitants; deaf and dumb, 7,659, or 1 in every 2,228; lunatics and idiots, 17,434, or 1 in every 979. The total number afflicted as above stated were—in Canada, 1,548, or 1 in every 472 inhabitants. In the United States, 32,009, or 1 in every 533 inhabitants.

In 1842 the census for Western Canada showed a total afflicted as above:—males, 798, or 1 in every 326; females, 886, or 1 in every 255; total, 1,684, or 1 in every 286. This indicates a considerable improvement in the number of sane and sound birth. In the census of 1842 the idiots are properly distinguished from the lunatics, thus:—

Idiots.	
Males . . .	221, or 1 in 1,176
Females . . .	178 " 1,271
399 " 1,818	
Lunatics.	
Males . . .	241, or 1 in 1,078
Females . . .	487 " 464
728 " 667	

The increase of farm servants in Western Canada shows an increase in the number of those able to employ assistance. In 1842 the number of *resident* farm servants was 3,184; and in 1848, 7,514—more than double. In the same period the domestic female servants increased from 5,181 to 10,701. In 1848 there were, according to sex—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Domestic Servants . . .	4,409	10,701	15,110
Coloured Persons . . .	3,016	2,453	5,469
Persons attending Schools or Colleges . . .	46,371	34,080	80,461

According to the census of 1848, the population of 723,332 inhabited 112,595 houses; or nearly 7 to each house. The average of persons in each family was about 6. The number of heads of families 119,061. Proprietors of real estate, 60,559; non-proprietors, 49,321.

Where the returns were perfect, in 616,514 persons there were 100,405 heads of families. Employed in professions, 1,877; trade, commerce, and handicrafts, 19,713; agriculture, 68,417; labourers, 11,135; in factories, 3,866. In the whole province about 80 per cent. of the population derived their subsistence directly from agriculture. The non-producing classes do not amount to 8,000.

Population of Canada, according to origin.

Countries.	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	
	1844.	1842.	1848.
English . . .	12,136	43,009	64,560
Irish . . .	44,512	82,728	140,073
Scotch . . .	13,591	42,003	67,604
Canadian-French . . .	520,215	14,767	20,490
" British . . .	86,075	261,822	383,084
From Continental Europe, &c. . . .	2,471	6,957	18,847
" United States . . .	12,193	34,739	32,579
Total . . .	691,193	486,055	717,837

There was no census of Eastern Canada in 1848, although conjoined by law; it is therefore impossible to state the number of French Canadians now in Eastern and Western Canada; they are certainly not less than six hundred thousand. In Western Canada the proportions of races and increase per cent. in 7 years were:—

Countries.	1842.	1848.	Increase per cent. in 7 years.
England . . .	8-85	8-99	60-10
Ireland . . .	17-02	19-60	70-04
Scotland . . .	8-65	8-03	37-04
Canadian-French . . .	3-05	2-85	38-75
" British . . .	53-96	63-36	46-31
Continental Europe . . .	1-43	2-63	170-90 decrease.
United States . . .	7-14	4-54	6-63
Total . . .	100-00	100-00	Increase
On the whole Pop., according to origin			47-68
According to census, by ages, in 1848 . . .			51-40

It is evident that no influx of natives of the United States takes place. The equable

rate of increase of the different nations is remarkable.

Population of Canada according to Religious Census.

Denominations	Eastern Canada.		Western Canada.	
	1844.	1842.	1842.	1848.
Church of England . . .	42,274	107,791	171,757	
Church of Scotland . . .	28,725	77,889	87,900	
Church of Rome . . .	57,174	65,203	123,707	
British Wesleyans . . .	10,814	23,342	90,363	
Canadian Wesleyans . . .	3,010	32,313		
Episcopal Methodists . . .	711	20,125	36,893	
Other Methodists . . .	1,318	7,141	14,977	
Presbyterians, not Church of Scotland . . .	5,231	18,220	65,101	
Congregationalists and Independents . . .	3,890	4,253	6,126	
Baptists and Anabaptists . . .	4,067	16,411	28,965	
Lutherans . . .	95	4,524	7,420	
Quakers . . .	144	5,200	8,148	
Jews . . .	154	1,105	134	
Other denominations, or not accounted for . . .	20,145	101,538	83,847	

Note.—"Other denominations" in Western Canada in 1848, include 62,128 of no creed or denomination; 4,767 menonists; 2,269 universalists; 700 unitarians; and 13,983 of all other denominations. The presbyterians of Western Canada in 1848, include 64,729 of the "free presbyterian church of Canada," and 20,372 of other presbyterians. The census of 1848 of Western Canada, shows a deficiency of 22,790, compared with the census by ages, which have been divided among the several denominations in proportion to the numbers returned. Sectarian jealousies prevail so strongly that perfect accuracy in the religious census cannot be expected.

The character of the inhabitants of Canada partakes of the source whence they spring— if of French descent, levity and obsequiousness give place to ease, or rather gentleness of manner, combined with manly, yet respectful freedom of deportment: the descendants of the English lose the rusticity and boorishness peculiar to the lower class of their ancestors; and with abundance of the necessities of life, and leisure for the improvement of their minds, the natural saturnine character of the British is relieved by a pleasing buoyancy of spirit and enthusiasm of action.

The offspring of the original French inhabitants, forming about one-half of the population, deserve a few special remarks as to their habits and manners. Most of the people are proprietors to a greater or less extent, of land; and the equal division of property, on the demise of a parent, contributes to spread a large mass of industry and capital over the country. Possessed of the means of a comfortable existence, and freed from the dread of future want, the Canadian spends his life in cheerful toil, and evinces

by his light-hearted, hospitable, and social habits, the blessings derived from the enjoyment, on no harsh terms, of the few and simple necessities of life.

The true Canadian, although fond of pleasure and social happiness, is yet rather a sedentary being, and of a staid, often sombre deportment; peculiarly attached to the locality which gave him birth; devoted to the religion in which he was educated, sincere in his respect for those whom he considers his superiors, and remarkable for his faithful fulfilment of every social duty. Although unlettered himself in the European sense of the term, he is ever ready to pay his tribute of respect to those possessed of mental endowments—the more so if literary attainments be accompanied by moral worth; with a mind deeply imbued with early prejudices as to religion, country, and institutions, yet charitable to a considerable extent towards the feelings and even the failings of others; polite, without affectation; generous, without parade; slow to offend; quick to resent an insult, yet ready to forgive. Many governors have borne testimony to the favourable traits which distinguish the French Canadians. Lord Durham said—"they are mild and kindly, frugal, industrious, and honest; very sociable, cheerful, and hospitable, and distinguished for a courtesy and real politeness, which pervades every class of society."

The French Canadian women are when young, handsome brunettes, fond of finery, but good wives and mothers; their wit is sparkling, and in constant exercise, more playful than sarcastic, delighting rather than wounding, but withal remarkable for a kind of good-natured maliciousness. All who have visited the Canadas agree that society there is extremely agreeable—freed from unnecessary forms, giving to life an air of delightful ease, and to private intercourse a charming tone and colouring.

As in all Roman catholic countries, the enjoyments of the people are connected with their religious ceremonies; on the Sabbath morn, the parish, or village chapel, is thronged with both sexes, clad in their best habiliments; but, the service over, and that part of their duty to the Creator fulfilled, the remainder of the day is devoted to festivity; the enjoyment of social happiness being considered an essential part of the weekly festival. Sunday afternoon is, in fact, a season of gaiety; the parish church collects together an assemblage of relatives and

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friends intent on enjoyment; the old meet to converse on the state of the weather—the crops—the politics of the day; the young to make love to their sweethearts—the chevalier, on his best pacer, or driving his finest carriage—the lady, adorned in the most becoming style, palpitating with the hopes and fears of an approaching bridal day—the evening in cheerful feasts, to which dancing is frequently superadded. The *habilians* (French Canadians) of the poorer classes are generally tall and thin, with small, dark, lively eyes, aquiline noses, and thin lips. Those who are much exposed to the air are as dark as the Indian race.

The dress of the *habitan* is peculiar, as well as his manners; it consists of a grey cloth *capot*, or large coat reaching to the knee, bound round the middle with a sash of scarlet, or exhibiting various bright colours, and close-buttoned to the neck: the *bonnet bleu*, or a light straw hat is worn in the heat of summer, a fur cap in winter; moccasins of sole leather complete the male peasant's usual dress. The female peasant's costume is similar to that worn in the south of France—the *mantelet*, a jacket of dark, or different coloured cloth, with a stuff petticoat, moccasins, and a head dress *à la Française*: on Sunday, of course, the habiliments are of more varied character, and where the English girl wears one colour, the Canadian will exhibit half a dozen of the brightest hues. The people are frugal in their habits; their diet consists chiefly of soups, vegetables, and fish, and their farms furnish almost every thing they require.

Of the houses it may be sufficient to observe that there is a great similarity between those of the farmers and peasantry in Normandy, and the people of a similar grade in Canada; they are generally of one story, built of wood, whitewashed, extremely clean within, and having the chimney in the centre of the building; there is a partition between the kitchen and large apartment, where the inmates dwell; the sleeping-rooms are at either end of the house, which is well furnished with beds, home-made linen of excellent texture; strong, convenient, and often handsome furniture, and a large variety of culinary utensils.

The adjacent garden, though laid out with little regard to the rules of art, abounds in fruit and vegetables, the rearing of which devolves on the women of the family, whose taste is often displayed in small patches of flowers, which appear to grow wild, but are

really raised with care, to afford that exquisite enjoyment which the rudest and least sophisticated seem to feel in viewing and scenting "the lilies of the fields." The farm lies around the house; and at a greater or less distance, the river or lake offers an ample supply of the finny tribe for a *cuisine*, always abundant, sometimes luxurious: while the rich maple yields a large store of sugar, for the preservation of the luscious summer fruits, through a long and dreary winter.

Lord Durham, in his able report, has drawn an excellent picture of the French Canadian; he traces from its commencement the deep-rooted hatred of race which exercises so injurious an influence upon the internal peace and prosperity of Canada, and renders its legislation so difficult at the present moment. At the period of the early colonization of Canada, the institutions of France were, perhaps more than those of any other European nation, calculated to repress the intelligence and freedom of the great mass of the people. The same ill-organised and repressive despotism followed the Canadian colonist across the Atlantic. He was allowed no voice in the government of his province or the choice of his rulers, and not even permitted to associate with his neighbours for the regulation of municipal affairs. He obtained his land on a tenure singularly calculated to promote his immediate comfort, but which placed him at once in a life of constant labour and of feudal dependence. Ecclesiastical authority continued to exercise its influence over him—education was neglected both by the government and by the people, and congregated together in rural communities, occupying portions of the unappropriated soil, with abundance of the mere necessaries of life, retained in a course of labour, varied only by the social enjoyments to which the French are so much attached, the colonists remained for years the same uneducated, inactive, and unprogressive people. No towns were established; a series of continuous villages along the banks of the St. Lawrence gave the seignories the appearance of a never-ending street; and the farms owed their productiveness to the fertility of the soil, rather than to the skill employed for its cultivation. Their energy was manifested chiefly in the fur trade, and in hunting, and commerce was scarcely deemed deserving of attention. With the tenacity peculiar to the Gothic or Celtic race, the people clung to

ancient prejudices, customs, and laws; and the habits and manners which gradually passed away from European society were preserved in all their pristine character in the new world. At the time of the British conquest of Canada, the people were in an old and stationary state of society—in the vicinity of an active and progressive Anglo-Saxon race. A few families possessed seigniorial rights, large, though not valuable, properties, and much influence over the bulk of the people, of whom few depended on wages for their support—the mass being in the condition of a hard-working yeomanry.

The piety of the early founders of Canada, and the foresight of the Jesuits, provided seminaries and means for public instruction, which was little attended to until density of population pressed on the means of existence, and made the cadets of families seek in a profession the subsistence heretofore derived from the land. Two or three hundred young men thus annually became by education superior to the community whence they sprang, and as the military and naval professions were resources not available to the colonists, the church, the law, and medicine soon became overthronged with village priests, advocates, and mediciners, who, possessed of superior knowledge, wielded an extraordinary influence over an uneducated population, with whom they lived on terms of social equality, and from whom they were separated by no barriers of manners, of pride, or distinct interests. Unfortunately the British government took no steps to conciliate or to employ this class, who naturally fell into the position of demagogues, and were moved as one mass by the leading members of the House of Assembly, during the struggle for constitutional rights, which has been detailed in the first chapter.

“Among the people,” says Lord Durham—

“The progress of emigration has of late years introduced an English population, exhibiting the characteristics with which we are familiar, as those of the most enterprising of every class of our countrymen. The circumstances of the early colonial administration excluded the native Canadian from power, and vested all offices of trust and emolument in the hands of strangers of English origin. The highest posts in the law were confided to the same class of persons. The functionaries of the civil government, together with the officers of the army, composed a kind of privileged class, occupying the first place in the community, and excluding the higher class of the natives from society, as well as from the government of their own country. It was not till within a very few years, as was testified by persons who had seen much of the country, that this society of civil and military

functionaries ceased to exhibit towards the higher order of Canadians an exclusiveness of demeanour which was more revolting to a sensitive and polite people than the monopoly of power and profit; nor was this national favouritism discontinued until after repeated complaints and an angry contest, which had excited passions that concessions could not allay. The races had become enemies ere a tardy justice was extorted; and even then the government discovered a mode of distributing its patronage among the Canadians, which was quite as offensive to that people as their previous exclusion.”

The English capitalist, merchant, trader, and farmer became formidable competitors with an inert race; they rapidly acquired about half of the more valuable seigniorial rights in the townships, and considerable irritation arose by the transfer of large properties from burthened seignors to active British agriculturists and settlers, whose superior energy, skill, and capital, not only threw into their hands the entire wholesale, and a large proportion of the retail trade of the province, but also vested in their hands the most profitable and flourishing farms. It will afford an idea of the influence and power possessed by the British minority previous to the legislative union of Eastern and Western Canada, by examining the relative investments of the two races in the public institutions of the province:—

Public Companies.	Capital.	Shares.	British.	French.
ENGLISH-CANADIAN:	£.		£.	£.
Stock of Montreal Bank .	250,000	5,000	217,400	2,600
Ditto of City Bank .	200,000	8,000	192,800	7,200
Ditto of Champlain, and St. Lawrence Railway Company .	50,000	1,000	49,150	850
Ditto Montreal Water Works .	70,000	80	70,000	—
Ditto of St. Lawrence Steam-boat Company .	65,000	48	61,015	3,985
Ditto Montreal Steam Tow Boat Company .	40,200	710	38,713	1,682
Ditto Ottawa and Rideau Forwarding Company .	33,100	1,172	32,482	608
Ditto St. Lawrence Steam-boat and Mail Coach Company .	25,000	1,000	25,000	—
Ditto Montreal Gas Works	20,000	1,000	19,500	500
Ditto St. Ann Market .	15,500	—	13,575	1,925
Ditto of other Steam-boats and capital invested in the Forwarding establishments on the St. Lawrence, above and below Montreal .	50,000	—	50,000	—
	818,800	—	800,040	18,830
FRENCH-CANADIAN:				
Stock of Mutual Insurance Company .	40,000	—	16,281	23,719
Ditto Banque du Peuple	80,000	—	30,000	50,000
People's Bank .	—	—	—	—
	120,000	—	46,281	73,719
	938,800	—	846,321	92,569

Previous to the rebellion of 1837, the

antagonism of race had risen to a great height. It would not be possible to convey in few words an adequate idea of the deep-rooted feelings of estrangement and almost aversion with which the French and English Canadians regarded each other, and by which the tranquillity of the province was so seriously injured. The language of Lord Durham is so clear upon this point, and the facts he states so elucidatory of the mischievous consequences of playing off the prejudices of two races against each other, that I cannot resist giving the following portion of the Report laid by his lordship before the queen:—

“I do not believe that the animosity which exists between the working classes of the two origins is the necessary result of a collision of interests, or of a jealousy of the superior success of English labour. But national prejudices naturally exercise the greatest influence over the most uneducated; the difference of language is less easily overcome; the differences of manners and customs less easily appreciated. The labourers, whom the emigration introduced, contained a number of very ignorant, turbulent, and demoralized persons, whose conduct and manners alike revolted the well-ordered and courteous natives of the same class. The working-men naturally ranged themselves on the side of the educated and wealthy of their own countrymen. When once engaged in the conflict, their passions were less restrained by education and prudence: and the national hostility now rages most fiercely between those whose interests in reality bring them the least in collision.

“The two races thus distinct have been brought into the same community, under circumstances which rendered their contact inevitably productive of collision. The difference of language from the first kept them asunder. It is not anywhere a virtue of the English race to look with complacency on any manners, customs, or laws, which appear strange to them; accustomed to form a high estimate of their own superiority they take no pains to conceal from others their contempt and intolerance of their usages. They found the French Canadian filled with an equal amount of national pride; a sensitive, but inactive pride, which disposes that people not to resent insult, but rather to keep aloof from those who would keep them under. The French could not but feel the superiority of English enterprise; they could not shut their eyes to their success in every undertaking in which they came into contact, and to the constant superiority which they were acquiring. They looked upon their rivals with alarm, with jealousy, and, finally, with hatred. The English repaid them with a scorn, which soon also assumed the same form of hatred. The French complained of the arrogance and injustice of the English; the English accused the French of the vices of a weak and conquered people, and charged them with meanness and perfidy. The entire mistrust which the two races have thus learned to conceive of each other's intentions, induces them to put the worst construction on the most innocent conduct; to judge every word, every act, and every intention unfairly; to attribute the most odious designs, and reject every overture of

kindness or fairness, as covering secret designs of treachery and malignity.

“Religion formed no bond of intercourse and union. It is, indeed, an admirable feature of Canadian society, that it is entirely devoid of any religious dissensions. Sectarian intolerance is not merely not avowed, but it hardly seems to influence men's feelings. But though the prudence and liberality of both parties has prevented this fruitful source of animosity from embittering their quarrels, the difference of religion has in fact tended to keep them asunder. Their priests have been distinct; they have not met even in the same church.

“No common education has served to remove and soften the difference of origin and language. The associations of youth, the sports of childhood, and the studies by which the character of manhood is modified, are distinct and totally different. In Montreal and Quebec there are English schools and French schools; the children in these are accustomed to fight nation against nation, and the quarrels that arise among boys in the streets usually exhibit a division into English on one side, and French on the other.

As they are taught apart, so are their studies different. The literature with which each is the most conversant, is that of the peculiar language of each; and all the ideas which men derive from books, come to each of them from perfectly different sources. The difference of language in this respect produces effects quite apart from those which it has on the mere intercourse of the two races. Those who have reflected on the powerful influence of language on thought, will perceive in how different a manner people who speak in different languages are apt to think; and those who are familiar with the literature of France, know that the same opinion will be expressed by an English and French writer of the present day, not merely in different words, but in a style so different as to mark utterly different habits of thought. This difference is very striking in Lower Canada; it exists not merely in the books of most influence and repute, which are of course those of the great writers of France and England, and by which the minds of the respective races are formed, but it is observable in the writings which new issue from the colonial press. The articles in the newspapers of each race, are written in a style as widely different as those of France and England at present; and the arguments which convince the one, are calculated to appear utterly unintelligible to the other.

“The difference of language produces misconceptions yet more fatal even than those which it occasions with respect to opinions; it aggravates the national animosities, by representing all the events of the day in utterly different lights. The political misrepresentation of facts is one of the incidents of a free press in every free country; but in nations in which all speak the same language, those who receive a misrepresentation from one side, have generally some means of learning the truth from the other. In Lower Canada, however, where the French and English papers represent adverse opinions, and where no large portion of the community can read both languages with ease, those who receive the misrepresentations are rarely able to avail themselves of the means of correction. It is difficult to conceive the perversity with which misrepresentations are habitually made, and the gross delusions which find currency among the people: they thus live in a world of misconceptions, in which each party is set against

h. French	£
	2,000
	7,200
	850
	—
	3,385
	1,682
	608
	600
	1,925
	—
	18,850
	—
	23,710
	50,000
	92,569

the other, not only by diversity of feelings and opinions, but by an actual belief in an utterly different set of facts.

The differences thus early occasioned by education and language, are in nowise softened by the intercourse of after-life; their business and occupations do not bring the two races into friendly contact and co-operation, but only present them to each other in occasional rivalry. They rarely meet at the inns in the cities; the principal hotels are almost exclusively filled with English and with foreign travellers; and the French are, for the most part, received at each other's houses, or in boarding-houses, in which they meet with few English.

Nor do their amusements bring them more in contact. Social intercourse never existed between the two races in any but the higher classes, and it is now almost destroyed. I heard of but one house in Quebec in which both races met on pretty equal and amicable terms, and this was mentioned as a singular instance of good sense on the part of the gentleman to whom it belongs. At the commencement of Lord Aylmer's administration, an entertainment was given to his lordship by Mr. Papineau, the Speaker of the House of Assembly. It was generally understood to be intended as a mark of confidence and good-will towards the governor, and of a conciliatory disposition. It was given on a very large scale, a very great number of persons were present; and of that number, I was informed by a gentleman who was present, that he and one other were the only English except the governor and his suite. Indeed the difference of manners in the two races renders a general social intercourse almost impossible.

"A singular instance of national incompatibility was brought before my notice, in an attempt which I made to promote an undertaking, in which the French are said to take a great deal of interest. I accepted the office of President of the Agricultural Association of the district of Quebec, and attended the show previous to the distribution of the prizes. I then found that the French farmers would not compete even on this neutral ground with the English; distinct prizes were given, in almost every department to the two races; and the national ploughing matches were carried on in separate and even distant fields.

"While such is their social intercourse, it is not to be expected that the animosities of the two races can frequently be softened by the formation of domestic connections. During the first period of the possession of the colony by the English, intermarriages of the two races were by no means uncommon; but they are now very rare.

"I could mention various slight features in the state of society, which show the all-pervading and marked division of the races; but nothing (though it will sound paradoxical) really proves their entire separation so much as the rarity, nay almost total absence, of personal encounters between the two races. Disputes of this kind are almost confined to the ruder order of people, and seldom proceed to acts of violence. As respects the other classes, social intercourse between the two races is so limited, that the more prominent or exclusive antagonists never meet in the same room. It came to my knowledge that a gentleman, who was for some years a most active and determined leader amongst the English population, had never once been under a private roof with French Canadians of his own rank in life, until he met some at table on the invitation of persons

attached to my mission, who were in the habit of associating indifferently with French and English. There are, therefore, no political personal controversies. The ordinary occasions of collision never occur, and men must quarrel so publicly, or so deliberately, that prudence restrains them from commencing individually, what would probably end in a general and bloody conflict of numbers. Their mutual fears restrain personal disputes and riots, even among the lower orders; the French know and dread the superior physical strength of the English in the cities; and the English in those places refrain from exhibiting their power, from the fear of the revenge that might be taken on their countrymen, who are scattered over the rural parishes.

"This feeling of mutual forbearance extends so far as to produce an apparent calm with respect to public matters, which is calculated to perplex a stranger who has heard much of the animosities of the province. No trace of them appears in public meetings; and these take place in every direction, in the most excited periods, and go off without disturbance, and almost without dissent. The fact is, that both parties have come to a tacit understanding, not in any way to interfere with each other on these occasions; each party knowing that it would always be in the power of the other to prevent its meetings. The British party consequently have their meetings; the French theirs; and neither disturb the other. The complimentary addresses which I received on various occasions, marked the same entire separation, even in a matter in which it might be supposed that party feeling would not be felt, or would from mere prudence and propriety be concealed. I had from the same places, French and English addresses, and I never found the two races uniting, except in a few cases where I met with the names of two or three isolated members of one origin, who happened to dwell in a community almost entirely composed of the other. The two parties combine for no public object; they cannot harmonize even in associations of charity. The only public occasion on which they ever meet, is in the jury-box; and they meet there only to the utter obstruction of justice."

With these grave obstacles her majesty's government have, at the present moment, to contend. It is well known to be the anxious desire of the Queen, that justice should be administered with entire impartiality to all classes of her majesty's subjects; that a faithful discharge of public duties, and exemplary conduct in private life, are the only means by which the honours and favours of the crown can be obtained, and the support of the British government secured. The old system of "*Divide et Impera*" has passed away, alike at home, and in the colonies; but a system which was founded in fear, and perpetuated by injustice, has necessarily entailed evils which render good government for all classes a matter of great difficulty. There has been no disposition on the part of the British nation to retain Canada in leading-strings; the feelings of nationality always so strong in English hearts, has prevented the growth

of petty jealousies, and taught them to look with affectionate solicitude on the proceedings of a province which they have long considered an important and integral part of the British Empire. The queen and the Imperial Legislature, therefore, freely bestowed on Canada a more independent constitution than was ever before given by any parent state to its colony, and the Canadians now possess perfect freedom in the management of their local affairs. Instead of seeking to maintain a superiority in the Colonial Legislature, the Anglo-Saxon would do well to recollect the evils which resulted after the Norman conquest of England from the dominance of a race, and the indulgence of strong prejudices and cherished antipathies. Ireland, too, offers another illustration of the injurious consequences attendant on political or social subjugation, and a proof that the continuance of such a state of things is, in the long run, alike injurious to the dominant and to the subjugated race, and is, evidently, incompatible with national liberty or progress.

The present is a most critical period for Canada: everything, under Providence, now depends on tranquillity being not merely temporarily restored, but established on a satisfactory basis. Thus only can the extraordinary resources of the province be developed—the English capitalist induced to invest monies in projected railways and canals—and the respectable, intelligent, and order-loving class of emigrants to select Canada for the scene of present labour, the home of their families, and the country of their adoption. Great forbearance on all sides is absolutely essential, whether among political parties in England, or between those of Anglo-Saxon or of Norman descent—all are, in truth, citizens of the same state, with interests, which, to a great extent, are necessarily identical—their individual prosperity being closely allied with that of their common country, whose welfare must inevitably be impeded by their dissensions, and would be materially promoted by their cordial union. Many circumstances, but, above all, the growing influence of Christianity, and the extension of education founded on its principles, justify the hope that the Canadians, who have long been respected for their tried loyalty and exemplary conduct in a domestic sphere, may, ere long, prove their appreciation of the relative duties of public life—and to the high character they have long borne of faithful subjects, good

husbands, and affectionate fathers, add that of peaceable and united citizens. This seems to be the only requisite now wanting to the welfare of their highly-favoured country; and may heaven grant to all concerned in it, the self-denial, forbearance, and Christian charity necessary to its attainment.

GOVERNMENT.—When Canada was in the possession of the French, the form of government was a pure despotism. In 1774 the first British Act of Parliament was passed, fixing the boundaries of Canada—making provision for the better government of this part of his majesty's dominions, and vesting the authority in a governor, aided by a Council of not fewer than 17, and not more than 23 persons, who had power to frame ordinances, but not to levy taxes, except for making public roads, and erecting a few local structures. By this act the English criminal law was preserved; but it was enacted, that "in all matters of controversy, relative to property and civil rights, resort should be had to the rule and decision of the laws of Canada"—excepting, however, from this concession to French law, "lands which had been or should be granted in free and common socage." The Roman Catholic religion, with all its immunities and rights, was secured to those of the Canadians who professed that faith.

After an interval of 17 years, this act was followed by Mr. Pitt's, or rather Lord Grenville's Act, styled the Constitution of 1791, under the provisions of which, Canada was divided into Upper and Lower provinces.

Eastern or Lower Canada received by this act a constitution, consisting of a Governor and Executive Council of 11 members, appointed by the crown (similar to the Privy Council in England)—a Legislative Council appointed by mandamus from the king, forming the second estate, and at that time consisting of 15 members, but subsequently increased to 34, and a Representative Assembly, or third estate, composed of 50 members, and consisting of 4 citizens from each of the cities of Quebec and Montreal, —3 burgesses, viz., 2 for the town of Three Rivers, and 1 for William Henry, and the remaining number divided over the province as knights of the shire, representing 20 counties, into which Lower Canada was divided. Population was partly made the basis for regulating the division: thus a small and thickly-peopled territory on the banks of the St. Lawrence was found sufficient to form a county, and in the more

distant parts, large areas were included in one county, in order to obtain the amount of population necessary to a representative election. The unsatisfactory manner in which this division into 21 counties operated, from its having regard to population and not to area, was felt after a few years; and it was set aside by the provincial act of 9 Geo. IV., which subdivided Eastern Canada into 40 counties. The constitution of the Eastern province as then regulated, may be thus summarily stated.

The authority of the sovereign in Canada was limited solely by the laws of Great Britain, and by the capitulations of the province. The supreme legislative authority was vested in the crown and in the two houses of the Imperial Parliament: this authority being limited by the capitulations, and by its own acts; the most remarkable of which is the act 18 Geo. III. cap. 12, confirmed by 31st Geo. III. cap. 13, which declares that "no taxes shall be imposed on the colonies but for the regulation of trade, and that the proceeds of such taxes shall be applied to, and for the use of the province, in such manner as shall be directed by any law or laws which may be made by his majesty, his heirs or successors, by and with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council and Assembly of the province."

The Provincial Legislature consisted of the sovereign, acting by the governor-general of the province; of a Legislative Council of 34 members, appointed by the crown for life; of a House of Assembly, of 88 members, elected for 4 years by British subjects resident within the province, under a 40s. tenure. The constituency of Eastern Canada was very widely diffused—among half a million of people there were at least 80,000 electors, of whom nine-tenths were proprietors of the soil; several counties had from 4 to 5,000 electors, all of whom were landed proprietors. The total number of proprietors of real property in 1831, was 57,891; and of persons holding property not otherwise than real, 25,208.

No religious disabilities existed as to electors; but clergymen or Jews were not eligible as representatives. The Assembly was empowered to make laws for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, such laws not being inconsistent with the Act of 31 Geo. III., cap. 81. The elections were and still are conducted by open voting.

The governor, in the name of the sovereign, assembled, prorogued, and dissolved

the Parliament, which by the law was convened once in every twelve calendar months. All questions arising in either of the two houses, were decided by the open voting of the majority of the members present. The governor gave, withheld, or reserved for the further signification of the pleasure of the sovereign, the royal sanction to bills proposed by the two other branches. Laws assented to by the governor-general, must be disallowed by the crown within two years. The crown could not assent to any act or acts affecting the dues of the clergy of the church of Rome, or the established church of England within the province, or the provisions made for the same, or the enjoyment or exercise of any religious form or mode of worship, or creating penalties, burthens, disabilities, or disqualifications on that account, or granting, or imposing any new dues in favour of any ministers of any former mode of worship, or affecting the prerogative, touching the granting of the waste lands of the crown; until such acts shall have been at least 30 days before both Houses of the British Parliament, without either of the houses having addressed his majesty praying him not to sanction the same.

In Western or Upper Canada, the government had been administered since 1791 by a lieutenant-governor, Executive and Legislative Councils, and a House of Assembly or Representatives, under regulations similar to those in Eastern Canada. The Executive Council consisted of six members chosen by the crown.

When the rebellion broke out in Eastern Canada, in 1837, the Sovereign and Parliament of England, by virtue of its authority, suspended the constitution of the province, (as stated in the history of the colony, p. 30), and the re-union of Eastern and Western Canada having been agreed to by the Parliament of Western Canada, and by the Council of Eastern Canada, Lord Sydenham framed the act of union, which was adopted by the Imperial Legislature. Under the provisions of that act the affairs of the colony are now conducted; and the executive authorities are subject to the regulations laid down by Lord John Russell in October 1839—as stated at pages 39, 40—by which "responsible" or constitutional government has been fully granted to Canada. The act of union (c. xxxv., 3 and 4 Vic., 23rd of July, 1840), recites that for the good government of the provinces for securing the rights and liberties

of all classes of her majesty's subjects, it was necessary to re-unite the two provinces and form one province, for the purpose of executive government and legislation; such union to be declared by proclamation under the advice of her majesty's Privy Council. Various previous acts of Parliament were repealed, and the legislature of the United province was in future to be formed of one Legislative Council and one Assembly. The Legislative Council to consist of not fewer than 20 persons, of 21 years of age, subjects of the crown, and summoned for life by the governor-general, under authority of the sign manual of the sovereign. Such legislative councillor may resign, but if he absent himself from two successive sessions of the legislature of the province, "without the permission of her majesty, or of the governor of the said province, signified by the said governor to the Legislative Council, or shall take any oath or make any declaration or acknowledgment of allegiance, obedience, or adherence to any foreign prince or power, or shall do, concur in, or adopt any act whereby he may become a subject or citizen of any foreign state or power, or whereby he may become entitled to the rights, privileges, or immunities of a subject or citizen of any foreign state or power, or shall become bankrupt, or take the benefit of any law relating to insolvent debtors, or become a public defaulter, or be attainted of treason, or be convicted of felony, or of any infamous crime, his seat in such council shall thereby become vacant."

Any question arising respecting vacancies in the Legislative Council of the province of Canada, occasioned by any of the matters aforesaid, must be referred by the governor to the Legislative Council, to be by the said Legislative Council heard and determined, but the person respecting whose seat such question shall have arisen, or her majesty's attorney-general for the said province on her majesty's behalf, may appeal from the determination of the said Council in such case to her majesty, and the judgment of her majesty given with the advice of her Privy Council thereon shall be final and conclusive to all intents and purposes.

The governor has authority from time to time, by an instrument under the great seal of the said province, to appoint one member of the Legislative Council to be speaker thereof, and to remove him, and appoint another in his stead.

The presence of at least ten members of

the said Legislative Council, including the speaker, is necessary to constitute a meeting for the exercise of its powers; and all questions are decided by a majority of voices of the members present except the speaker; when the voices are equal the speaker has the casting vote.

For the purpose of constituting the Legislative Assembly of the province of Canada, the governor, from time to time, as occasion may require, in her majesty's name, and by an instrument or instruments under the great seal of the said province, has power to summon and call together a Legislative Assembly in and for the said province.

The qualification for voters is property to the yearly value of 40s. in the counties; of £5 in the towns, or paying rent to the amount of £10, annually. In Western Canada 41 electoral districts, containing 723,087 inhabitants, return 42 members to the House of Assembly; the city of Toronto sends two members; the cities of Hamilton and Kingston, each one, and the towns of London, Cornwall, Bytown, Niagara, and Brockville, each one member. The North, South, East, and West Ridings of York return each one member; each of the other counties of the province are represented by one member. In Eastern Canada, 768,334 inhabitants return 42 members to the House of Assembly, from 40 electoral districts. Montreal and Quebec return each two members, the towns of Three Rivers and Sherbrooke, each one, and every county one member.

The property qualification of a representative is the possession for his own use of £500, in lands or tenements, over and above all rents, charges, mortgages, and incumbrances. The Assembly is convened for a term of 4 years, and must be called together once in each year; 20 members constitute a quorum, and the Assembly chooses its own speaker, who has a casting vote. By the act of union it is declared "that within the province of Canada, her majesty shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the said Legislative Council and Assembly, to make laws for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province of Canada, such laws not being repugnant to this act, or to such parts of the said act passed in the thirty-first year of the reign of his said late Majesty as are not hereby repealed, or to any act of Parliament made or to be made, and not hereby repealed, which does or shall, by express enact-

ment or by necessary intendment, extend to the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, or to either of them, or to the province of Canada; and that all such laws being passed by the said Legislative Council and Assembly, and assented to by her majesty, or assented to in her majesty's name by the governor of the province of Canada, shall be valid and binding to all intents and purposes within the province of Canada."

The members of the House of Assembly, are allowed by grants of the legislature, an indemnity of 10s. currency per diem, and 4s. per league as travelling expenses from their places of residence, to where the sittings of the legislature are held. The session of Parliament generally lasts three months, seldom more than four, and is held during the winter. The salary of the speaker of the House of Assembly is £900, voted annually by the Provisional Legislature.

The Legislative Council at present consists of about 45 members, of whom 12 were added by Lord Elgin, 6 by Lord Metcalfe, 5 by Sir C. Bagot, and the others nominated by Lord Sydenham. The crown has an unlimited power of nomination. Nearly half the Legislative Council consists of gentlemen of French origin. The Executive Council comprises 11 ministerial officers—including two secretaries, and two attorneys and solicitors-general for Eastern and for Western Canada—a receiver-general, inspector-general, president of committees, and commissioner of crown lands, and speaker, all appointed by the governor, but who must be possessed of seats in the House of Assembly in order to make them responsible to the people, and produce harmony between the executive and the legislature. The governor of Canada is governor-general of all the British possessions in North America, and commander-in-chief of all the forces there, but in the latter capacity he only acts ministerially.

Governors of Canada.

- 1663. Sieur de Mézy.
- 1665. Sieur de Courcelles.
- 1672. Sieur de Frontenac.
- 1682. Sieur de la Barre.
- 1683. Marquis de Denonville.
- 1689. Sieur de Frontenac.
- 1699. Chevalier de Callières.
- 1703. Marquis de Vaudreuil.
- 1724. Marquis de Beauharnois.
- 1747. Comte de la Galissonnière.
- 1749. Sieur de la Jonquière.
- 1762. Marquis du Quebec de Menneville.
- 1763. Sieur de Vaudreuil de Cavagnal.
- 1764. James Murray.

- 1766. Paulus Emilius Irving (President)
- General Guy Carleton.
- 1770. Hector T. Cramahé (President).
- 1774. General Guy Carleton.
- 1778. Frederick Haldimand.
- 1774. Henry Hamilton (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1775. Henry Hope (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1776. Lord Dorchester (Sir Guy Carleton).
- 1791. Colonel Clarke (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1793. Lord Dorchester
- 1796. Robert Prescott
- 1799. Sir R. S. Milnes, Bart. (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1805. Hon. Thomas Dunn (President).
- 1807. Sir J. H. Craig, K.B.
- 1811. Hon. Thomas Dunn (President).
- Sir George Prevost.
- 1815. Sir G. Drummond, G.C.B. (Administrator).
- 1816. John Wilson (Administrator).
- Sir J. C. Sherbrooke.
- 1818. Duke of Richmond.
- 1819. Hon. James Monk (President).
- 1820. Sir Peregrine Maitland.
- Earl Dalhousie, G.C.B.
- 1824. Sir F. N. Burton (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1825. Earl Dalhousie.
- 1828. Sir James Kempt, G.C.B. (Administrator).
- 1830. Lord Alymer, G.C.B. (Administrator).
- 1835. Earl of Gosford.
- 1838. Major-General Sir John Colborne (Administrator).
- Earl of Durham (six months).
- Major-General Sir John Colborne (Administrator).
- 1839. Right Hon. P. Thomson (afterwards Lord Sydenham).

Provinces United.

- 1841. Lord Sydenham.
- Major-General Sir R. Jackson (Administrator).
- 1842. Sir Charles Bagot.
- 1843. Sir Charles (afterwards Baron) Metcalfe.
- 1845. Earl Cathcart.
- 1847. Earl of Elgin and Kincardine.

Lieutenant-Governors of Upper or Western Canada.

- 1792. Colonel Simcoe.
- 1796. Hon. Peter Russell (President).
- 1799. Lieut.-Gen. Peter Hunter.
- 1805. Hon. A. Grant (President).
- 1806. Francis Gore.
- 1811. Major-Gen. Sir Isaac Brock (President).
- 1812. Major-Gen. Sir R. H. Sheaffe, Bart. (President).
- 1813. Maj.-Gen. F. Baron de Rottenberg (President).
- Lieut.-Gen. Sir Gordon Drummond, K.C.B.
- 1815. Lieut.-Gen. Sir George Murray, Bart.
- Major-Gen. Sir F. P. Robinson, K.C.B.
- Francis Gore.
- 1817. Hon. Samuel Smith (Administrator).
- 1818. Major-Gen. Sir Peregrine Maitland.
- 1820. Hon. Samuel Smith (Administrator).
- Major-Gen. Sir Peregrine Maitland.
- 1828. Major-Gen. Sir John Colborne.
- 1836. Sir F. B. Head.
- 1838. Major-Gen. Sir G. Arthur.

THE LAWS now in force in Eastern or Lower Canada are:—1st. The acts of the British Parliament which extend to the colonies: 2nd. Capitulations and treaties: 3rd. The laws and customs of Canada,

founded principally on the jurisprudence of the Parliament of Paris, as it stood in 1663, the edicts of the French kings, and their colonial authorities, and the Roman civil law: 4th. The criminal law of England, as it stood in 1774, and as explained by subsequent statutes: 5th. The ordinances of the governor and council, established by the act of the above year: 6th. The acts of the Provincial Legislature since 1792. These laws are executed in her majesty's name, and in virtue of her commission and instructions, by the governor, or person administering the government, through the agency of several inferior officers, all of whom are appointed during pleasure. The governor besides possesses all other powers and prerogatives generally, which her majesty may legally enjoy, and may delegate to him. The *judiciary* consists of a High Court of Appeal, a Court of Queen's Bench in Eastern and Western Canada, presided over by a chief justice in each province, and several puisné justices. There are provincial courts for trials of causes above £10.

There are also a Court of Vice-Admiralty, Quarter Sessions, and other minor tribunals for civil matters. The Court of Appeal, the highest legal tribunal in the province, consists of the governor, president *ex officio*, the chief justices of the province, all the members of the Executive Council, five of whom, including the president, are a competent quorum to hear and determine appeals from judgment pronounced in the Court of Queen's Bench in civil matters. Should the matter in dispute exceed £500 in value, an appeal lies to the queen and Privy Council; if below that sum, the decision of the Canadian High Court of Appeal is final.

The Canadian Court of Queen's Bench combines a jurisdiction similar to those of the Queen's Bench and Common Pleas at Westminster; it has distinct civil and criminal terms, and an appellate as well as an original jurisdiction; appeals lying, in certain cases, from the decisions of the provincial judges, or inferior courts, over each of which a puisné judge presides.

The duties of the Vice-Admiralty Court devolve, by commission, on a Judge Surrogate, who is also a judge of the Court of Queen's Bench.

The Court of Escheats was created by the 10th sec. 6 Geo. II. c. 59; it consists of Commissioners appointed by the governor to inquire, on information being filed by the

attorney-general, into the liability of lands to be escheated, by reason of the non-performance of the conditions on which they were granted. The decision is given by a verdict of a jury composed of twelve men, summoned in the usual way; and the lands forfeited become re-vested in the Crown.

The other courts being similarly constituted to those of the same name in England, require no explanation. The police of the country is supervised by unpaid justices of the peace (the members of the Executive and Legislative Councils, the judges, &c., are everywhere justices of the peace *ex officio*). Trial by jury is universal in all criminal cases; but in civil matters the appeal to this mode of trial in Eastern Canada is confined by statute to certain cases, viz., the demand must exceed £10, the parties being merchants or traders, and the subject matter grounded on debts, promises, contracts, and agreements, of a mercantile nature only; or else the action must arise from personal wrongs, to be compensated in damages; in all other causes the Bench are judges both upon the law and the fact; a very small portion of these cases are tried by jury.

The criminal law of Canada is in general conformity to that of England, with some provincial statutes not repugnant thereto. The admiralty and commercial laws are also English. In the civil law the proceedings are carried on both in the French and English languages, and it is not unusual to have half the jury French and the other half English.

Litigation is frequent; there are about 200 lawyers in Eastern Canada on the rolls of the Court of Queen's Bench, who are solicitors and proctors as well as barristers; the notaries are conveyancers in Eastern Canada, and form a distinct class; they are about 300 in number. In the Quebec district alone there are 45 barristers, 43 solicitors, and 138 notaries. In Montreal district—26 barristers, 60 solicitors, and 16 notaries. In Three Rivers district—72; making a total of 338 lawyers.

In Western Canada the laws are wholly English, and administered by a Court of Queen's Bench, presided over by a chief and 6 puisné judges. The Courts of Quarter Session and Requests are held as in England. There are about 500 unpaid magistrates.

The *judicial establishment* consists, in Eastern Canada, of a Chief Justice of a Court of Queen's Bench at Quebec, and 3

Puisné Judges; a Resident Judge at Three Rivers; a Provincial Judge at St. Francis; and 2 District Judges at Gaspé. There is also a Vice-Admiralty Court, with a Judge and Registrar. In Western Canada the judicial establishment consists of a Chief Justice and 4 Puisné of a Court of Queen's Bench; a Vice-Chancellor and Registrar of a Court of Chancery; and a Court of Probate. There are Circuit Courts in Eastern Canada, and District Courts in Western Canada. In Western Canada there are 4 Commissioners of Bankrupts, independent of the District Judges; in Eastern Canada the Judges appoint Bankrupt Commissioners from barristers of five years' standing, or the District Judges fulfil the duty of Commissioners.

Municipal Institutions of Canada.—It has been truly remarked, that "a more complete municipal system than that in operation in this province, has never been established. The powers conferred on each district are very great, but have been always exercised with discretion. The system was established by Lord Sydenham, to remove from the imperial and the provincial governments the odium which frequently attached to them, in consequence of the legislation and appropriations which affected particular localities. The corporations are composed of members from each township, so many townships forming a district. These form a council, presided over by a warden appointed by the crown. They meet quarterly in the respective court-houses of each district, and determine on all local improvements, roads, harbours, bridges, schools, paving, lighting, cleansing, &c. The vote for township councillor is every householder, and the qualification of a councillor is real estate value £500. The improvements in the respective districts that have been effected since their establishment are quite surprising. Their powers are great, but in no one instance have they been abused. It is in miniature the operation of the government of the respective States of North America, forming the general government of the United States of America."

The Canadians enjoy in its fullest extent the blessing of a constitutional government; they have entire control over their own revenue, and may enact whatever laws are required for their country, provided only that such laws be not injurious to other parts of the empire. Let then the people of Western as well as of Eastern Canada

avoid all measures and proceedings calculated to diminish the authority and government that has sprung from themselves, and abstain from forming associations, whether under the title of "convention," "league," or any other name, whose tendency is to control the provincial legislature. They would do well to remember and act on the advice of a truly great man, George Washington, who, in his parting address to his countrymen, on the 17th of September, 1796, when declining to be again elected president of the United States republic, adverted to the obedience owed by every individual to the established government, which they had contributed to form, thus emphatically warned the Americans against "conventions," and stated their results as testified in the history of all nations:—

"All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations AND ASSOCIATIONS, under whatever plausible character, with the real character to DIRECT, CONTROL, COUNTERACT OR ANNIHILATE THE REGULAR DELIBERATION AND ACTION OF THE CONSTITUTED AUTHORITIES, ARE DESTRUCTIVE OF THIS FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLE, AND OF FATAL TENDENCY. They serve to organise faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force; to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small, but ARTFUL and ENTERPRISING MINORITY OF THE COMMUNITY; and, according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans, digested by common councils, and modified by mutual interests.

"However combinations and associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely, in the course of time and things, to become potent engines, BY WHICH CUNNING, AMBITIOUS AND UNPRINCIPLED MEN WILL BE ENABLED TO SUBVERT THE POWER OF THE PEOPLE, AND TO USURP FOR THEMSELVES THE REINS OF GOVERNMENT; destroying afterwards the very engines which have lifted them to unjust dominion."

Laws of the Feudal Tenures.—When Canada was first settled by the French, the feudal tenure was in full vigour on the continent of Europe, and was naturally transplanted by the colonizers to the new world. The king of France, as feudal lord, granted to nobles and respectable families, or to officers of the army, large tracts of land, termed seignories, the proprietors of which were and still are termed seignors; these possessions are held immediately from the Sovereign, *en fief*, or *en roture*, on condition of the proprietor rendering fealty and homage, on accession to seignorial property; and in the event of a transfer, by sale, or gift, or otherwise (except in hereditary succession), the seignory is subject to the pay-

ment of a *quint*, or fifth part of the whole purchase-money, which, if paid by the purchaser immediately, entitles him to the *rabat*, or a reduction of two-thirds of the *quint*.

Quints are a fifth part of the purchase-money of an estate held *en fief*, which must be paid by the purchaser to the feudal lord, that is, the sovereign. If the feudal lord believes the *fief* to be sold under value, he can take the estate to himself, by paying the purchaser the price he gave for it, together with all reasonable expenses. The committee of the House of Commons in their Report on the affairs of Canada, in 1828, recommended the crown to relinquish the *quints*. *Relief* is the rent or revenue of one year for mutation fine, when an estate is inherited only by collateral descent. *Lods et ventes* are fines of alienation of one-twelfth part of the purchase-money paid to the seigneur by the purchaser on the transfer of property, in the same manner as *quints* are paid to the sovereign on the mutation of *fief*; and are held *en roture*, which is an estate to which heirs succeed equally. *Franc alleu noble* is a *fief*, or freehold estate, held subject to no seigniorial rights or duties, and acknowledging no lord but the sovereign. The succession to *fiefs* is different from that of property held *en roture* or by *villainage*. The eldest son, by right, takes the chateau, and the yard adjoining it; an *arpent* of the garden which joins the manor-house, and the mills, ovens, or presses, within the seignory, belong to him; but the profit arising from these is to be divided among the other heirs. Females have no precedence of right, and when there are only daughters, the *fief* is equally divided among them. When there are only two sons, the eldest takes two-thirds of the lands, besides the chateau, mill, &c., and the younger one-third. When there are several sons, the elder claims half the lands, and the rest have the other half divided among them. *Censive* is an estate held in the feudal manner, subject to the seigniorial fines or dues. All the Canadian *habitans*, small farmers, are *censitaires*. Property, according to the laws of Canada, is either *propre*, that is held by descent, or *acquits*, which expresses being acquired by industry or other means. *Communauté du bien* is partnership in property by marriage; for the wife, by this law, becomes an equal partner in whatever the husband possessed before, and acquires after marriage, and the husband is placed in the same position in respect to the wife's dowry.

This law might operate as well as most general laws do, if both *mari* and *femme* died on the same day; but as that is seldom the case very unhappy consequences have arisen from it. For instance, when the wife dies before the husband, the children may claim half of the father's property, as heirs to the mother; and the mother's relations have often persuaded, and sometimes compelled them so to do.

The *dot* or dowry, is the property which the wife puts into the *communauté du bien*: movable or immovable property, falling to her by descent, is a *propre*, and does not merge in the *communauté*. Dower in Canada is either customary or stipulate. The first consists of half the property which the husband was possessed of at the time of marriage, and half of all the property which he may inherit or acquire—of this the wife has the use for life, and the children may claim it at her death. If they be not of age, the wife's relations, as guardians of the children, can take it out of the father's hands, and may compel him to sell his property to make a division. Stipulated dower is a portion which the husband gives instead of the customary dower.

The Canadian farms are remarkable for the small breadth of the farm on the bank of the river, and its great depth inland; the latter being often in proportion to the former as 60 to 1, namely, half an arpent broad in front of the St. Lawrence, or other river, and 30 arpents in depth.

Those farmers who hold land from the seigneur *en route*, and who are termed *tenanciers* or *censitaires*, are subject to certain conditions, viz., a small annual rent, from 2s. 6d. to 5s. (or perhaps more of late years) for each arpent in front; to this are added some articles of provision annually—such as a pig or goose, or a few fowls, or a bushel of wheat, according to the means of the farmer, who is also bound to grind his corn at the *moulin banal*, or the seigneur's mill, where one-fourteenth is taken for the lord's use, as *mouture* or payment for grinding. The *lods et ventes* form another part of the seigneur's revenue: it consists of a right to one-twelfth part of the purchase-money of every estate within his seignory, that changes its owner by sale, or other means equivalent to sale: this twelfth to be paid by the purchaser is exclusive of the sum agreed on between him and the seller, and if promptly paid, a reduction of one-fourth is usually made, in the same manner as

two-thirds of the *quints* due to the crown are deducted on prompt payment. On such an occasion a privilege remains with the seigneur, but is seldom exercised, called the *droit de retrait*, which confers the right of pre-emption at the highest price offered, within 40 days after the sale has taken place.

All the fisheries within the seignories contribute also to the lord's income, as he receives a share of the fish caught, or an equivalent in money: the seigneur is also privileged to fell timber any where within his seignory, for the purpose of erecting mills, constructing new or repairing old roads, or for other works of public and general utility. In addition to the foregoing burdens on the farmer, he is, if a Roman Catholic, bound to pay to his curate one twenty-sixth part of all grain produced, and to have occasional assessments levied on him for building and repairing churches, parsonage houses, &c.

The duties of the seigneur to his tenants are also strictly defined—he is bound in some instances to open roads to the remote parts of his fief, and to provide mills for the grinding of the feudal tenants' corn—he cannot dispose by sale of forest lands, but is bound to concede them; and upon his refusal to do so, the applicant may obtain from the crown the concession he requires, under the usual seignorial stipulations, in which case the rents and dues appertain to the sovereign.

According to the *Contume de Paris*, the "Franc aleu roturier est terre sans justice ou seigneurie pour laquelle le detenteur ne doit cens, rentes, lods et ventes, ni autres redevances;" and the soccage tenure, like *franc aleu roturier*, leaves the farmer or landholder wholly unshackled by any conditions whatsoever, as to rents, corvees, mutation fines, *banale* (corn grinding obligation), without in fact any other obligation than allegiance to the sovereign, and obedience to the laws. The quantity of land thus granted in Eastern Canada amounts to upwards of 7,000,000 acres—while under the seignorial grants nearly 11,000,000 acres are held by a large number of small proprietors.

The British government have long been desirous of converting the seignorial into soccage tenures, but nothing compulsory has been attempted. In 1825 an act was passed (6 Geo. IV. c. lix.) for the gradual extinction of the feudal rights, and enabling seigneurs to release themselves from the

feudal burthens (*quints*, &c.) due to the crown, and for granting their lands in free and common soccage to tenants, who were also to be released from their feudal burthens; which act, while it provided for the voluntary surrender by the seigneur of his rights, also gave the tenant in fief a power to claim exemption of burthens from the seigneur; who, on refusal, was subject to be impleaded in a court of law, and bound, on a commutation fixed and given, to grant his lands on soccage tenures. But this act has, with two exceptions, been of no effect; the Canadians are peculiarly attached to ancient customs—they contend that a conversion of tenure is equivalent to a conversion of law, as the descent by inheritance would be altered, and with it the whole body of the law applicable to real property. It is, therefore, probable that the old tenures, *en roture*, will remain, and those in soccage are not likely to be converted into the former, at least, by the present generation.

The Position and Extent of the Seignorial Grants are stated to be:—

Territorial Division.	Number of Seignories.	Extent of Seignorial Grants.		Almost unit for cultivation in the Seignories and Fiefs.
		Arpents.	Acres.	
Quebec, including Anticosti and other Isles	79	5,639,319	5,656,099	2,600,000
Montreal and Islands	63	3,269,966	2,786,011	500,000
Three Rivers and St. Francis, &c.	25	1,229,008	1,039,707	400,000
Gaspe and Isles	1	1,547,388	1,318,117	600,000
Total	168	11,676,679	10,800,934	4,100,000

RELIGION.—The prevailing form of Religion in Eastern Canada is that of the Romish church, whose clergy are educated in Canada, and have no civil or secular connexion with the pope; they are not paid by government, but have for their support the twenty-sixth part of all the grain raised on the lands of the catholics. Hay and potatoes are exempted from the charge, and if a catholic turn protestant, or sell his lands to a protestant, the estate is no longer subject to this moderate burden. The church is governed by a bishop (a Canadian born and educated), who receives, in addition to the rent of some lands of little value, a stipend of £1000 per annum, from Great Britain. The incomes of the *curés* average £300 per annum, by which

they are enabled to live respectably, and even hospitably; and so long as they confine themselves to their religious duties, they invariably meet with the respect which piety and philanthropy everywhere deserve. Great attention is paid to the observances of religion by people of every persuasion, in both Eastern and Western Canada.

The revenues of the Romish Church in Eastern Canada are considerable.

Mr. Adam Thom, in the letters written under the signature of "Camillus," in 1839, stated their seigniorial rights to extend over:

	Sq. Miles.
1. The island and city of Montreal	200
2. The Lake of Two Mountains and augmentation	140
3. St. Sulpice	110
[Belong to Seminary of Montreal.]	
4. Chateaugay (Grey Sisters)	54
5. Isle-Jesus	50
6. Cote de Beaupré (Seminary of Quebec.)	900
7. Isle aux Coudres	10
8. St. Jean (Ursal of Three Rivers)	20
9. St. Augustin (Religieuses de Phép. of Quebec)	34
10. D'Orsanville (Religieuses)	4
	1522

Besides the above-mentioned rights, extending over nearly a million of acres, these and other ecclesiastical institutions possess property of great value in Quebec and Montreal, and elsewhere.

Several religious communities exist, viz.: the *Hotel Dieu de Montreal*, founded in 1664; the *Congregation de Notre Dame de Montreal*; the *Hopital-general de Montreal*; the *Hotel Dieu de Quebec*; the *Ursulines de Quebec*, and the *Hopital-general de Quebec*; all these establishments have novices and postulants, and it is but justice to add, that the nunneries of Eastern Canada are exemplary in their management, and remarkable for the piety and charity of their inmates. There are several missions, protestant and Roman catholic, among the Indians at their different stations, especially in Western Canada. There is no dominant church in Canada.

The number and designation of the ministers of the Christian religion in Canada, are stated in the official returns made to government, to have been as follows in 1847:—

Church of England in Eastern Canada.—A lord bishop of Montreal, and an archdeacon of Quebec. Of parochial and other clergy in Quebec district, about 15; ditto of Three Rivers, 4; ditto of Montreal, 42; ditto of St. Francis, 10; ditto of Gaspé, 3; the congregations are, in number 180, and the ministers

officiating, whose names and stations are furnished in the returns, 75. There are other clergymen, who, though they have not any distinct charge, yet officiate in several places within the province. One is a French protestant missionary.

In the interesting works issued by the truly Christian "Society for the propagation of the Gospel," it is stated, that the province of Canada was first formed into a diocese in the year 1793, under the episcopal superintendence of Dr. Jacob Mountain. In 1826 the Hon. Charles Stewart, the devoted missionary of St. Armand, succeeded to the bishopric of Quebec—and when he was compelled by illness, brought on by his many apostolic labours and journeyings, to return to England in 1836, Dr. G. J. Mountain was consecrated for the administration of the diocese, under the title of bishop of *Montreal*—which title he still retains—though the diocese is properly called the diocese of *Quebec*. This enormous see was divided in the year 1839, when archdeacon Strachan was raised to the bishopric of *Toronto*, comprising the province of *Upper Canada*, or, as it is now called, *Western Canada*.

The diocese of Quebec runs along a narrow strip of land of 600 miles in length, on both banks of the St. Lawrence, and contains an area of 200,000 square miles. The population is estimated at 650,000, about two-thirds of whom are French Roman catholics. The number of English clergy is between 70 and 80.

Church of England in Western Canada.—A lord bishop of Toronto, 2 archdeacons, and 116 parochial clergy, with an equal number of congregations scattered throughout the different districts; of the 116 parochial ministers, 51 are regularly inducted rectors. In addition to the regular station services, almost every clergyman has two or three out services; some being several miles from the chief station. Parsonage houses are increasing by means of private endowments, and by the aid of the Church Diocesan Society; the glebes average about 400 acres (of wild land chiefly) attached to each rectory.

The churches in large towns are spacious; in the districts they contain generally from 300 to 600, and are well attended. Some of the clergy receive allowances from government; others from the "Society for the propagation of the gospel in Foreign Parts," and others are supported by the voluntary contributions of the parishioners.

The Roman Catholic Church in Eastern

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Canada consists of three divisions; there are about 300 churches to a population of 600,000.—Montreal district, 2 bishops, 7 vicars-general, and 191 priests. Quebec district, an archbishop, a bishop, 6 vicars-general, and 145 priests. Three Rivers district, 44 priests. Gaspé district, 16. Total, 1 archbishop, 3 bishops, 13 vicars-general, and 379 priests, exclusive of teachers at various colleges.

The Roman Catholic Church in Western Canada consists of 2 bishops, a coadjutor-bishop, 1 archdeacon, 1 rural dean, and 56 priests.

The government allows £1000 a year for the bishop of Quebec, and a sum of about £1,666 is paid by government, to the Roman catholic priests in Western Canada annually.

The Presbyterian Church of Canada, in connexion with the church of Scotland, has 6 presbyteries, and 57 ministers.

The Free Presbyterian Church of Canada—Seven presbyteries, and 51 ministers.

The United Presbyterian Church of Canada.—Five presbyteries, and 33 ministers. Total, 141 ministers in East and West Canada.

The Wesleyan Methodist Churches in Canada, are divided into 6 districts, and have 179 ministers. The same persuasion of the *New Connection*, have 37 ministers; the *Congregational Association*, 34; the *Baptists*, 108 ministers.

The relative numbers of each religious persuasion are given in the section on population.

The variety of religious sects in Western Canada, will be seen by the following general numerical return of the several religious bodies in Upper Canada, for the year 1839:

Church of England, 61,788. Methodists, British connexion, 15,795; episcopal, 7,146; Canadian Wesleyan, 2,210; primitive, 106; under the general term of methodists, without distinction, 19,740. Presbyterians, Church of Scotland, 31,448; seceders from the Church of Scotland, 1,507; independents, 777; congregationalists, 701; nonconformists, 18; under the general term of presbyterians, without reference to sects, 31,308. Roman catholics, 29,562. Baptists, returned under the general term of baptists, without reference to distinction, 4,626; open communion, 1,088; close communion, 3,579; free-will, 621. Lutherans, 2,283; Dutch reformed church, 44; menonists, 2,674; tinkers, 925; Moravians, 7; quakers, 4,166; society of peace, 14; universalists, 416;

restorationists, 18; unitarians, 59; latitudinarians, 6; deists, 4; free-thinkers, 75; Irvingites, 188; reformers, 13; christians, 1,291; bible christians, 270; disciples, 336; mormons, 240; other denominations, 6,243; no profession, 27,301.

The payments for ministers of religion out of the public funds, are as follows:—

The Church of England in Western Canada receives £6,668 (from the clergy reserves); this sum provides £100 to £170 a year, for 36 clergymen. Eleven presbyterian ministers, in connexion with the Church of Scotland, receive £641. Nine ministers of late synod of Western Canada, £572. The Roman catholic clergy in Western Canada, £1,500. Eight presbyterian ministers in Eastern Canada, receive £285, and the Roman catholic bishop of Quebec, £1000. The Church of England in Eastern Canada receives £3,020. The total charge for the ecclesiastical establishment of Canada for 1847, was £13,725; of this sum, £3,620 for the bishop and ministers of the Church of England in Eastern Canada, is paid from the military chest, and ceases with the lives of the present parties. The stipend of £1000 a year to the Roman catholic bishop of Quebec, and £100 a year to the presbyterian minister at Argenteuil, are paid from the military chest.

EDUCATION.—Laudable and energetic efforts are now making in Canada, for the education of the people, in Western Canada especially. A new school act was brought into operation in 1847, and the returns under it are yet imperfect for 1847, but the following details are taken from the report of Mr. E. Rycerson, the chief superintendent of schools:—

School Sections, are the smallest municipal school divisions provided for by law, each consisting of such a section of the country as is considered suitable for a school. In each section three persons are elected trustees by the householders, and constitute a corporation for the management of the common school affairs of such section. One of the members of the school corporation retires from office each year, so that each trustee is elected for three years. Or such schools in Western Canada, there are 2727; from 327 sections, no returns received; number of qualified teachers, 2812; number of teachers without certificates, 216. Of 3028 teachers, 2356 were males, and 663 females. Average yearly salaries of teachers, £37; number of pupils in the section

schools 124,820, of whom 65,575 were boys, and 55,254 girls. Upwards of 295 *different authors*, or text books are in use in these schools, viz., in spelling 13; reading 107; arithmetic 35; geography 20; history 21; grammar 16; natural philosophy 7; chemistry 5; geometry 2; mental philosophy 3; rhetoric 3; book-keeping 5; botany 2; algebra 2; natural history 1; physiology 2; composition 1; penmanship 4; moral philosophy 2; surveying 3; mensuration 2; declamation 2; dictionaries 4; &c.

Book-keeping is taught in 52; mensuration in 294; algebra in 10; elements of natural philosophy in 10; Latin and Greek in 41; and French in 60. Of 41,686 pupils study arithmetic; 10,563 English grammar; 10,563 geography; 45,467 writing. The bible and testament are used in 1782 schools,—nearly two-thirds of the common-schools in Upper Canada. Of 2572 school-houses, 49 are brick, 84 stone, 1028 frame, and 1399 log; 1403 schools are freehold, 697 leased, and 171 rented: 699 are in good repair, 817 in ordinary, 347 in a bad condition: 1705 have only one room, 98 more than one room: 1125 are suitably furnished with desks, seats, &c. The total amount of council assessment for 1847, was £22,955; collected by trustees' rate-bills £30,543; legislative grant £21,000. The total amount of money derived from all sources, and expended for the payment of salaries of common school teachers, for 1847, was £77,599. This does not include the moneys expended for the erection, repairs, furnishing, and warming of school-houses, &c. Upper Canada expends of the public moneys, for the common school education of little more than half a million of people, as much as is spent in Ireland for eight million of people.

In Western Canada there are 48 colleges, academics, and high schools. The "Blue Book" for 1847 states the number of school sections for that year, in Western Canada, at 2925; schools reported 2589; children between 5 and 16 taught, 101,912. Legislative school grant £20,851; amount assessed by municipal council £21,871. Paid teachers from school fund £38,521; from rate-bill £29,385; total £67,906.

In Eastern Canada the number of schools under the control of the commissioners for six months, in 1847, was 1611, and there were 21 dissentient; number of children educated 60,885. The allowances for six months were £14,500. The schools are dis-

tributed over 36 counties in Eastern Canada. There are 65 colleges, academics, and high schools.

The votes and grants for education, in 1847, were, in Eastern Canada, £38,888, of which the Jesuit estates yielded £4567. The amount of £32,978 was voted by the legislature for common schools, and £1352 for different colleges in Eastern Canada. The educational votes for 1847, by the Canadian legislature, for Western Canada, amounted to £28,845, of which £23,270 was for common schools.

The lands granted to the Jesuits by the British government, and which lapsed to the British crown on the demise of the last of the Jesuits, in 1800, have been granted for purposes of Education. Under a very bad system of management, these lands did not yield from 1800 to 1831, more than £50,000.

According to a return of the institutions for the instruction of youth in Eastern Canada, it appears that there are the following school foundations:—

"PROTESTANT.—1. Royal Grammar School, Quebec; 2004 a year, and 904 a year school-house rent, from Jesuits' estates. Twenty free scholars, 11 pay for their tuition; all day-scholars. Terms: under 10, £8; above 12 and under 13, £10 per an.; above 13, £12 per an. French and English taught; course of instruction as in the grammar schools in the United Kingdom.

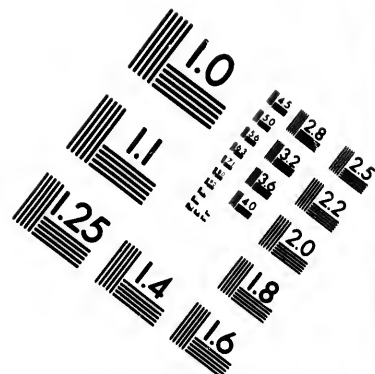
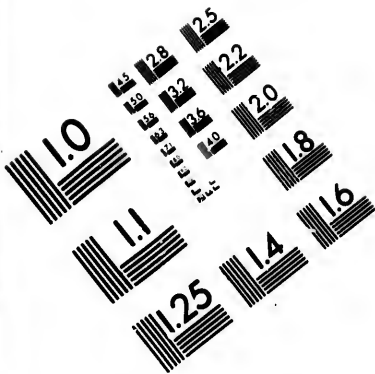
"2. Royal Grammar School, Montreal; £200 a year, and £54 a year school-house rent, from Jesuits' estates. Twenty free scholars admitted, 15 scholars pay for their education: all day scholars. Terms: highest £10; lowest £8 per an.; instruction as in grammar-school at Quebec; and this school is in possession of an extensive apparatus for experiments in natural philosophy.

"3. Seminary at Chambly; contributions of students; a private institution lately established under the patronage of the Lord Bishop of Quebec. Board and tuition according to age of student, £40, £50, and £75 per an.; day-scholars £15 and £20 per an. There are 17 boarders and 9 day-scholars. Those who pay £75 per an. are young men studying for holy orders, and others finishing their education.

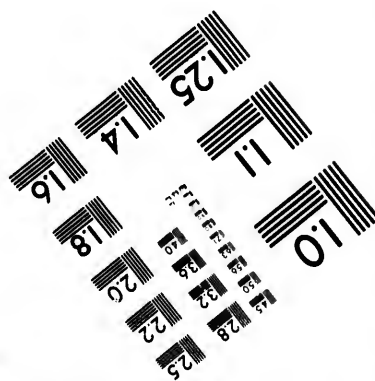
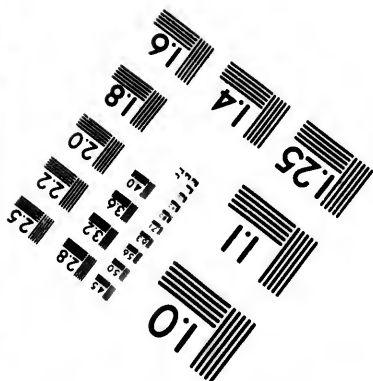
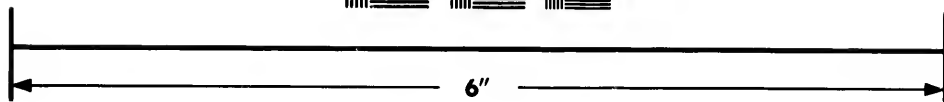
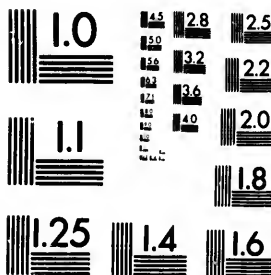
"CATHOLIC.—1. Seminary of Quebec; no revenues specifically appropriated to the purposes of education, but possessed of several estates. Value, made many years ago, computed at £1,249 a year, besides large contributions in grain, and the *lots et ventes* on mutations of property, which amount to a considerable sum. Attended by 188 students; the terms for tuition and board £17:10s. per an.; for tuition only, £1 per an. Poor children instructed gratis. The Seminary of Quebec was erected by letters patent of the French crown, dated in April, 1663.

"2. Seminary at Montreal; in possession of estates valued many years ago at about £2,000 a year, besides large contributions in grain, and *lots et ventes* on mutations of property, which in the seignory of





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Montreal, comprehending the whole of the town, must amount to a large sum. Attended by 200 students; terms for board and tuition, per an. £21, for tuition only, £1 15s. Instruction as at the Seminary of Quebec. The ecclesiastics of St. Sulpice, at Paris, were authorized to establish a seminary at Montreal, and allowed to hold the island of Montreal in mortmain, by letters patent of the French crown, dated in May, 1677.

"Seminary at Nicolet; supported principally by private contributions. The number of students, or the price paid for tuition not known.

"Seminaries at St. Hyacinthe, at Chambly, and at College of St. Ann, which receive legislative grants."

In several of the colleges there are professors of divinity, medicine, anatomy, philosophy, mathematics, &c., and the chairs are ably filled.

There is a Quebec literary and historical society, and a museum of natural history at Montreal; a medico-chirurgical society, an agricultural association, a mechanic's institute, &c.

THE PRESS.—This powerful adjunct of civilization, and protector of individual as well as of national liberty, is making rapid progress in Canada; where the journals are unstamped, the paper without an excisable duty, and the advertisements exempt from tax. I have no separate return of the increase of the press in each province, but in both together, the number of newspapers was, in 1827, 17; in 1828, 20; in 1829, 27; in 1830, 30; and in 1831, 37. I think I may add that the present number is about 50; namely 20 for Eastern and 30 for Western Canada. There are several daily papers; some of the journals in Eastern Canada are entirely in the French language. Both the English and French papers are conducted with ability, but, as may be expected, evince strong party feelings. They are well supplied with advertisements, and, independent of their value as political engines, are considered good commercial speculations.

CRIME.—The absence of extreme poverty, the certain reward of industry, and the extension of Christian education, are sure preventives of crime. From 1828 to 1838, the number of prisoners in the goals of Eastern Canada, for all offences throughout the year, did not average 300 persons annually. The returns to the Board of Registration and Statistics for Eastern and Western Canada, in 1849, shows the state of crime from 1841, to 1847, inclusive. The returns are not very complete, but they show a limited amount of crime in a population of one and a half million.

Commitments.	1841	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	1847
Offences against the Person	4	8	29	13	11	14	12
Murder	1	1	8	1	0	3	4
Manslaughter	2	0	4	3	2	2	2
Rape	2	2	2	4	3	2	2
Offences against Property	53	64	101	132	140	119	93
Larceny	40	37	65	81	92	68	52
Forgery	1	0	1	6	3	2	4
Horse stealing	4	3	11	5	12	14	12
Felony	4	9	6	11	6	4	7
Burglary	2	2	3	3	8	4	5
Unclassed Crimes.	2	1	5	4	6	2	2
From Eastern Canada	59	116	30	31	62	17	38
Western Canada	56	105	119	105	68	69	69
Grand Total	59	71	135	149	167	135	107

These returns are exclusive of military; the total commitments for seven years, ending 1st of October, 1847, were 813, of whom 57 or 7 per cent. were women. The average convictions, for crimes against the person, were 10.58 per cent; not classed, 2.62; for larceny, 54.23; for other crimes, 32.52. The total number of inquests was 1021, viz., males, 823, females, 191. The number of accidents, on which inquests were held, was 132; lunatics, 20; apoplexy, 23; drowned, 329; burned, 29; intemperance, 81; suicide, 32; exposure, 15; exhaustion, 9; found dead, 37; visitation of God, 196; murder, 22; child-murder, 5; manslaughter, 5; poisoned, 1; suffocation, 12; strangulation, 2; shot by accident, 4; sudden death, 9; by lightning, 2. The trials before the magistrates, in quarter sessions, in 1847, for petty larcenies, assaults, and trespasses were—

Districts.	Quarter Sessions.			Under Tresp. Act.	
	Tried.	Convicted.	Acquitted.	No.	Fines.
Eastern Canada	366	244	123	265	£396
Western Canada	375	195	180	2,526	2,316
Total	741	439	303	2,791	£2,712

An excellent penitentiary has been established for the whole province.

Mr. Sheriff Thomas, of the Gore district, who has paid considerable attention to crime in Canada, in a letter of the 9th of March, 1849, says, "I am warranted in laying it down as an incontrovertible fact that crime in this portion of the globe is almost entirely expended by dissolute habits." Drunkenness appears in all young communities to be a prevailing crime, and there is no prospect of success in our colonies for any class of immigrants, unless they abstain from the abuse of intoxicating liquors.

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MILITARY DEFENCE.—There is an effective militia in Eastern and Western Canada to the number of about 260,389 men.

By the militia Act, every able-bodied male inhabitant, from 18 to 60 years of age, after six months' residence, is liable to serve in the militia, unless specially exempted by law; the exceptions embrace the clergy, civil and military officers of his majesty's government, physicians, surgeons, schoolmasters, stewards of religious communities, students in colleges and seminaries, notaries, land-surveyors, ferrymen, millers, &c., and persons who had served as officers of militia previous to the act. The officers are appointed by the government; the qualification for those above the rank of captain being a *bona fide* possession of an estate yielding £50 currency per annum; half the sum qualifies for a captain's or subaltern's commission. There is an annual muster by companies (29th June) throughout Eastern Canada.

The militia abstract of Eastern Canada for 1847, shows, according to the returns, 86 regiments, consisting of 173 battalions, and 137,769 men.

In Western Canada there are 34 regiments of militia, comprising 166 battalions and 122,620 men; to this force is attached 1 company of cavalry, 11 of artillery, and 1 of rifles. The whole force of Eastern and Western Canada is 260,389 men.

The commissions issued since the reorganization of the force, have been:—

Officers.	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	Total.
Lieut.-Colonels	175	157	334
Majors	237	122	359
Captains	1,431	1,002	2,433
Lieutenants	1,590	935	2,525
Ensigns	1,346	921	2,267
Staff	439	277	716

There is an adjutant-general and a deputy-general of militia.

The regular and provincial troops in Canada in 1847, were, royal artillery, officers 35, men 574; royal engineers, 31; 1 battalion H.M. 20th, officers 22, men 601; reserved battalion, officers 15, men 527; H.M. 23rd, officers 19, men 575; H.M. 71st, officers 17, men 561; H.M. 77th, officers 23, men 569; H.M. 93rd, officers 16, men 501; 2 battalions rifle brigade, officers 14, men 305; reserved battalion, officers 6, men 269; royal Canadian rifles, officers 60, men 1,669. There was also a part of the queen's light

dragoons, and the 1st and 2nd troop of the Montreal cavalry. The principal military stations are Quebec, Montreal, St. Helens, Kingston, Toronto, Niagara, London, Isle aux Noix, and Amherstburg.

The Canadian naval force, consisted in 1847, of 1 steamer of 75 tons, on Lake Ontario, and 3 gun-boats, hauled up: on Lake Erie 1 steam vessel 406 tons; and on Lake Superior 1 steam-vessel of 210 tons, all in commission.

Canada possesses ample means within itself for defence against foreign aggression: Quebec has been long deemed impregnable, and is well supplied with military stores; Montreal and Kingston are strongly protected; Toronto is secure against surprise; the forts along the frontier are in good order; the naval and military establishment on the bay of Pentanguishene might speedily be rendered effective; the communication between Eastern and Western Canada, by the Rideau canal, exempts traffic from border annoyances; and a dense population (men with brave hearts and strong arms) along the St. Lawrence river and the great Lakes, combine, with other circumstances, to secure Canada from the danger of invasion. The Canadians have no extensive sea-board to protect; no cities on the Atlantic open to assault or pillage; no slaves within their territory ready to burst their bonds and carry slaughter and desolation throughout the land. The conqueror of Canada must first capture Quebec, and possess a navy paramount on the ocean. It has been admitted that 100,000 troops would not be sufficient for the subjugation of Eastern and Western Canada. No European nation could, therefore, make the attempt; and if the Canadians are true to themselves, and desire to continue an integral portion of the British empire, they need not fear the hostility of the adjacent republic, with whom, however, it is undoubtedly both their duty and their interest to cultivate friendly relations, which it is to be hoped the good feeling of the citizens of the United States, as well as their knowledge of the evils war ever brings with it, especially to a commercial nation, will induce them cordially to reciprocate. By the mutual exercise of a little Christian forbearance both countries may be spared the harassing anxieties and protracted feuds arising from border hostilities and internecine strife, and continue to be distinguished by the rapid progress in civilization which peace only can maintain.

CHAPTER V.

INDUSTRIAL STATE OF EASTERN AND WESTERN CANADA, PRODUCTIONS, PROGRESS OF THE PROVINCE, INTERNAL AND MARITIME COMMERCE.

The industrial state, and progressive accumulation of property in the province, will be seen by an examination of the produce of each district. The returns for Eastern Canada for 1844 and 1848 are very imper-

fect, owing to the absence of any census in these years. In the year 1831 there was a complete return from each county; an abstract of which shows the following leading facts:—

Agricultural Produce, Cattle, Mills, &c., of each District in Eastern Canada in 1831.

Classification.	Quebec.	Montreal.	Three Rivers.	Gaspé.	Grand Total in 1831.
Area in square miles	127,949	54,802	15,822	7,389	205,963
Acres or arpents of land occupied	1,686,047	2,629,854	629,902	136,214	3,981,798
Acres or arpents of improved land	662,768	1,231,300	263,447	16,687	2,066,963
Produce raised during the year 1830:—					
Minots of wheat	911,887	2,098,982	383,544	10,842	3,404,758
Minots of peas	128,821	801,717	65,300	920	996,758
Minots of oats	788,133	1,911,861	426,770	5,520	3,142,274
Minots of barley	92,742	375,651	21,417	4,983	394,795
Minots of rye	36,744	171,962	25,441	818	234,465
Minots of Indian corn	481	313,341	25,654	256	339,633
Minots of potatoes	1,065,853	4,221,802	910,295	529,455	7,867,416
Minots of buck wheat	5,013	68,856	28,943	237	106,050
Neat cattle	104,796	229,745	48,725	5,411	388,678
Horses	26,213	76,057	13,739	677	116,686
Sheep	152,882	310,623	71,458	8,980	543,943
Hogs	74,515	174,447	39,776	6,400	295,137
Taverns or houses of public entertainment	811	640	78	8	1,935
Stores where spirituous liquors are sold	261	483	112	11	857
Grist mills	94	235	60	6	395
Saw mills	348	251	135	8	737
Oil mills	2	9	3	..	14
Falling mills	35	47	15	..	97
Carding mills	29	46	15	..	90
Iron works	43	37	22	1	103
Trip hammers	2	14	3	..	18
Distilleries	4	65	10	..	79
Pot and pearl ash manufactories	5	482	22	..	489
Manufactories of any other sort containi: shinary	..	58	6	..	64

The Reporter of the "Board of Registration and Statistics" in Canada, remarks that the census returns of 1831 bear evidence of having been compiled with the greatest care and attention, but the great lapse between that period and 1844, when the next census was taken, renders it very difficult to arrive at any fixed conclusion as to increase.

The produce of Eastern Canada is thus stated comparatively for 1831 and 1844—

Produce.	Census, 1831.	Census, 1844.
Wheat	Bushels. 3,404,758	Bushels. 942,835
Peas	948,758	1,219,420
Oats	3,142,274	7,238,753
Barley	394,795	1,195,456
Rye	234,529	333,446
Indian Corn	339,633	141,008
Potatoes	7,357,416	9,918,869
Buckwheat	106,050	374,809

This shows a great falling off in the production of wheat. The produce for 1844, without any deduction of seed, would only furnish 188,567 barrels, or only one barrel for every three inhabitants.

The whole produce, in 1844, exclusive of potatoes, was 11,445,727 bushels, and allowing that two-thirds of the cultivated lands were under potatoes and fallow, it would give an average crop of 12½ bushels per acre of all grain for the remainder. In 1831, the same allowance being made, the average crop would be 12½ bushels, while Mr. Bouchette for 1827 makes it 7½ bushels, exclusive of 184,659 bushels of mixed grain. The neat cattle in 1844 were, in number, 469,851; horses 140,432; sheep 602,821; swine 197,935.

In 1844—Of the 76,440 proprietors of real estate, 15,188 held their lands in "free and common socage," and the land so held

MANUFACTURES IN EASTERN CANADA.

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amounted to 1,706,993 acres, of which 540,256 were cultivated. Those held under Indian and other leases comprised 169 persons, occupying 25,598 acres, of which only 5,918 acres were under cultivation.

Houses, Manufactories, &c., in Eastern Canada in 1831 and 1844.

	1831.	1844.	In-crease.	De-crease.
Houses inhabited	82,437	108,794	26,357	—
" building . . .	1,458	1,552	94	—
" vacant . . .	1,542	4,115	2,573	—
No. of hives of bees	no return.	7,988	—	—
Lbs. of maple sugar	—	2,272,457	—	—
No of taverns	1,035	1,052	17	—
Stores where liquors are sold	857	806	—	49
Grist mills . . .	395	422	27	—
Run of stones . . .	not given.	844	—	—
Oatmeal mills . . .	—	108	—	—
Barley . . .	—	45	—	—
Saw . . .	—	911	—	—
Oil . . .	—	14	—	—
Falling . . .	87	153	66	—
Carding . . .	90	169	79	—
Thrashing . . .	not given.	469	—	—
Paper . . .	—	8	—	—
Iron works . . .	103	69	—	34
Trip hammers . . .	15	18	—	—
Nail factories . . .	not given.	6	—	—
Distilleries . . .	70	36	—	34
Breweries . . .	not given.	30	—	—
Tanneries . . .	—	335	—	—
Pot and pearlsh factories . . .	489	540	51	—
Other factories . . .	64	86	22	—

The census of 1831 gives, of land in culture, 2,065,913 acres; and the census of 1844, 2,802,317 acres.

Taking the two last census as being authentic, we find that the increase was 35.6 per cent., while the increase in population was exactly similar, being 35 per cent. The number of landed proprietors in 1831 was 57,891, being on the average about 36 acres to each; while in 1844 the proprietors amounted to 76,440, or about 36½ acres each; this shows that the state of agriculture in Eastern Canada must have been sadly neglected, and that it is only followed far enough to give an actual sustenance to the cultivators.

The fisheries of Eastern Canada are very valuable, but have not yet been turned to much account; the whole amount of fish and oil taken does not exceed in value £100,000 a-year. Gaspé Fishery and Coal Mining Company has been incorporated in London and in Canada; and in February, 1848, actually to the amount of £58,307 had been capital paid up on account of the company, and shares to the value of £17,474 had been accepted by the Vendors of Estates in Gaspé and County of Bonaventure, of the value of £40,698, as part payment, and representing

cash. The company has invested above £30,000 in improving their estates, in building a mill, shops, and stores, in clearing land, in the erection of an extensive "Beach," or fishing establishment, in constructing vessels and boats, &c.

Timber, lumber, and ashes constitute the principal exportable produce. In the neighbourhood of Quebec £1,200,000 has been expended in lumber and saw mills. The iron works are carried on to a great extent at St. Maurice in the district of Three Rivers. Whiskey is largely distilled at Montreal; there are several soap and candle manufactories, a manufactory for cloth, and about 20,000 domestic looms in Eastern Canada. The quantity of fulled cloth produced in Eastern Canada is about 800,000 yards; of linen or cotton cloth, 1,000,000 yards; of flannel or woollen, 700,000 yards; the quantity of sheep wool annually produced, about 1,500,000 lbs. The *etoffe du pays* is a gray homespun cloth, made of mixed wool, and forms the substantial warm long coat usually worn by the *habitant* or Canadian farmer. Worsteds stockings and socks, red caps, coloured saashes, mittens, lined with blanketing or hare skins, carpeting and mats, are made in every household. Excellent leather is prepared throughout the province; soap and candles are manufactured to some extent; the production of linseed oil is rapidly increasing; cordage and paper are of good quality; excellent ale and beer are brewed for domestic use, and for export to the West Indies. The cider, after being concentrated or frozen, separated from the icy or aqueous part, forms an excellent beverage.

In Western Canada the energy of the Anglo-Saxon race is markedly contrasted with the supineness of the French Canadians—who, although in possession of Eastern Canada for more than a century before Western Canada was colonized, are far behind their industrious brethren in the western division of the province—whose progress and prosperity will be best seen by an examination of the following official return:—

In less than a quarter of a century the population was augmented from 153,627 to 723,332, i. e. more than four-fold; the cultivated lands and houses five-fold; the uncultivated assessed land three-fold; horses and cows five-fold; oxen and other cattle four-fold; saw mills four-fold; the number of grist mills has been doubled; and the additional stones increased seven-fold.

Showing the Annual Amount and Value of all Articles Assessed for Local Taxation in Western Canada, under the several Assessment Laws of that Province, computed from the Returns of the Clerks of the Peace, with its Population at various periods.

TABULAR STATEMENT

Years	Population	Lands.		Houses of all kinds, except Shanties.	Grist Mills.		Mer- chandise Shops.	Stores- houses.	Revenue.	Oxen.	Milk Cows.	Yong Cattle.	Saw Mills.	Cas- ing for pleasure.	Amount of Value of Property.	Gross Amount of all Local Taxes.
		Uncultivated Value, £s. per acre.	Cultivated Value, £s. per acre.		Num- ber.	Adult from run of stones.										
1825	158,027	2,500,304	555,212	6,876	71	466	54	22,589	23,900	51,216	23,601	394	587	2,256,574	10,235	
1826	163,702	2,641,725	614,254	9,753	80	487	57	24,095	26,580	61,954	24,806	422	583	2,406,064	9,940	
1827	176,059	2,824,070	682,607	9,889	94	498	61	25,620	29,128	67,349	27,215	460	760	2,452,541	11,809	
1828	261,060	2,877,807	678,618	16,183	274	86	548	68	27,303	80,679	67,945	29,827	518	968	2,570,083	12,833
1829	196,704	3,006,777	717,652	11,291	996	102	604	72	26,388	33,451	76,091	34,444	653	883	2,736,783	12,738
1830	210,437	3,244,411	776,014	12,082	273	121	748	91	30,777	33,770	80,909	33,396	648	966	2,929,268	13,556
1831	284,681	3,470,889	818,432	13,605	291	135	797	95	33,197	36,057	83,619	35,194	533	1,111	3,145,464	16,290
1832	261,060	3,769,014	916,173	14,560	320	152	854	96	36,601	38,941	91,678	35,260	671	1,403	3,416,523	16,800
1833	296,670	4,115,263	981,955	16,446	307	173	1,023	105	40,249	41,870	95,942	36,089	723	1,431	3,786,040	18,397
1834	320,698	4,171,995	1,034,816	16,771	329	182	967	123	41,866	42,445	99,474	36,709	788	1,469	3,915,712	19,506
1835	336,469	4,476,398	1,208,008	18,468	352	189	963	117	47,724	48,068	109,605	39,329	733	1,486	3,860,994	22,464
1836	372,602	4,807,406	1,283,133	20,941	368	227	1,043	133	54,616	48,929	120,684	44,596	802	1,730	4,004,103	23,169
1837	394,721	4,736,236	1,453,566	22,047	368	233	1,198	117	57,170	49,347	123,028	43,596	960	1,627	4,451,093	24,977
1838	385,624	4,555,390	1,206,488	18,513	359	231	917	99	62,782	57,569	136,951	47,624	863	1,768	4,282,944	24,371
1839	407,516	5,118,423	1,587,676	25,049	420	298	1,068	113	66,220	60,317	144,900	46,625	953	1,863	5,007,426	33,210
1840	427,441	5,390,014	1,710,000	25,837	420	294	1,123	130	76,734	69,317	168,663	69,965	980	1,936	5,296,393	35,606
1841	465,337	5,310,103	1,740,664	27,960	443	324	1,211	145	76,747	65,137	173,894	76,648	863	2,168	5,915,541	38,339
1842	496,055	5,648,357	1,916,319	31,638	453	369	1,299	164	83,755	66,137	185,654	84,236	863	2,168	6,296,994	40,906
1843	No census.	5,784,197	1,993,659	33,190	451	375	1,380	154	94,962	63,508	185,298	76,000	1,169	2,648	7,155,524	44,849
1844	"	5,944,935	2,166,101	36,631	465	369	1,431	155	98,063	68,431	184,186	84,236	1,169	3,043	7,894,514	47,336
1845	"	6,072,076	2,311,238	37,214	478	417	1,636	174	98,696	68,127	199,637	73,666	1,472	3,610	8,238,077	48,291
1846	"	6,185,419	2,464,704	38,625	482	426	1,868	180	105,617	68,963	211,655	74,370	1,401	4,510	8,538,077	50,511
1847	"	6,477,398	2,673,820	42,937	527	475	1,946	179	113,812	72,017	218,633	69,835	1,469	4,655	8,967,001	50,006
1848	"	723,232	2,570,938	—	996	—	1,773	—	102,687	60,887	203,927	66,966	—	—	—	—

Note.—For the year 1838 the Assessment Rolls were very imperfectly taken, owing to the disturbed state of the country.—The returns for 1843 are incomplete.

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WEALTH OF EACH DISTRICT IN WESTERN CANADA.

The Assessment Returns of W. Canada for the year 1848 give the following results:—

Districts.	Land in Acres.		Water Power.		Cattle.				Mechanics' Shops and Store-houses at £200 each.	Valuation of Property assessed.
	Unimproved at 4s. per acre.	Cultivated at 20s. per acre.	Grist Mills at £40 to £100 each.	Saw Mills at £100 each.	Horses 3 yrs. old and upwards at £4.	Oxen at £4.	Milch Cows at £2.	Horned Cattle, 3 yrs. & yrs. at £1.		
Eastern	408,489	102,462	35	58	8,608	620	16,051	3,497	124	£436,551
Johnstown	390,906	145,862	62	71	7,163	2,715	15,260	5,161	80	459,789
Bathurst	382,735	110,288	44	60	4,027	2,695	10,168	3,212	79	329,410
Midland	338,212	155,826	36	71	7,069	2,495	12,870	4,500	58	462,583
Prince Edward	117,477	102,397	41	49	4,612	1,020	7,251	1,960	49	294,451
Home	596,273	376,989	223	287	16,262	6,588	28,568	6,879	245	1,105,396
Simcoe	280,513	75,227	23	40	2,650	3,820	6,340	2,668	52	63,477
Niagara	245,381	174,068	92	63	9,989	2,318	14,326	3,678	224	519,536
Wellington	498,911	188,674	68	84	4,535	7,114	12,629	6,442	109	477,613
London	507,598	177,768	61	103	7,124	6,080	16,188	7,719	104	582,891
Huron	345,861	64,599	18	33	1,402	4,168	5,940	3,156	48	211,969
Ottawa	112,798	28,343	20	27	1,834	319	3,484	744	28	111,418
Colborne	262,683	79,663	29	26	2,536	3,324	6,383	2,014	63	332,246
Newcastle	367,584	206,164	85	129	6,881	4,867	13,255	3,830	102	547,241
Gore	363,129	298,019	107	172	10,719	6,371	18,949	6,291	256	no return
Talbot	198,341	96,033	30	87	3,876	2,302	6,889	2,463	52	288,646
Western	460,199	115,708	21	28	6,420	5,063	12,398	5,615	100	227,556
Total	5,858,072	2,570,938	996	1,385	102,697	60,887	203,927	69,669	1,778	6,484,772

Note.—The property valued and assessed, includes houses of wood valued at £20 to £40 each, and brick houses valued at £40 to £70 each, according to the additional fire-places in each. It also includes merchants' shops and storehouses valued at £200 each, and pleasure carriages or waggon, dogs, and distilleries, &c. The rating is at the rate of one penny in the pound for common district purposes; one penny in the pound for common schools; one-eighth of a penny in the pound for lunatic asylum. In some districts there are special assessments for the support of the poor—for the administration of justice—for a town-hall—a bridge—a public building—or other local purposes. The returns from each district are not alike in form; I have, therefore, only given in the above tabular statement such figures as illustrate generally the wealth and social state of each district in Western Canada.

The advantages of this fine country for settlers, may be estimated by the wealth which the above table exhibits. Take for example the following return of mills, foundries, factories, &c., in the Home District, and city of Toronto, showing the estimated value of machinery, &c., connected therewith.

Grist Mills in April, 1844, 75	value	£125,000
Erected since—9 mills, 25 pair stones		23,000
189 Saw Mills		47,250
12 Oatmeal Mills		3,300
4 Iron Foundries, propelled by steam—city		14,000
5 Small ones, not steam		2,000
10 Woollen Factories, not steam		12,150
43 Carding Machines		23,700
1 Edged-tool Factory—city		1,500
3 Starch Factories—1 in city		1,550
23 Distilleries—3 in city		8,825
21 Breweries—5 in city		12,450
1 Pail Factory—city		1,000
4 Soap and Candle Factories—city		3,700
1 Cabinet and Chair Factory, by steam		1,000
3 Cabinet and Piano Manufactories—city		1,200
1 Paper Mill—5 miles from city		1,500
81 Tanneries—2 in city		8,050
1 Snuff manufactory—city		250
1 Soda Establishment		380

£201,805

A man with health and strength, industry and honesty, may soon become independent in Canada, and realise the boast, that it is decidedly the "poor man's land."

It has been alleged that Canada has been standing still while the United States was all activity, bustle, and progress; but such is not the case: it has been well observed, that "within the last 25 years, the Rideau, Welland, and St. Lawrence Canals, some of the most magnificent and important undertakings in the world, have been commenced and completed." In the year 1799, the whole of the Home District contained only 224 inhabitants; in 1848, it had a population of 106,995. Twenty years ago, London, Hamilton, Bytown, and Cobourg, scarcely had an existence; now they are flourishing towns, with handsome houses, and spacious public buildings, and their outskirts studded with elegant villas.

The facts contained in this volume amply attest the good government of Canada, and the benefits which the province has derived from British connexion.

Note.—For the year 1838 the Assessment Rolls were very imperfectly taken, owing to

The average yield of the several crops in the Eastern District, for example, of Western Canada, for the last ten years has been:—wheat, about 25 bushels per acre; corn, 40; oats, 40; barley, 30; peas, 35 bushels per acre.

It will be perceived that agricultural produce is the staple of the colony: various manufactures are now however arising; and the engines of many steam vessels on the lakes, have been made in Canada. About 60 large class steamers have been built and fitted out for the navigation of the lakes, and no accident by explosion has occurred. Woollens, linens, and flannels for domestic use, are made in every district; whiskey distilleries, breweries, foundries, tanneries, pot, pearl-ash, soap, and candle manufactories, are very numerous. The quantity of maple sugar made in Western Canada, in 1848, was 4,140,687 lbs., or nearly 6 lbs. for each individual. Apples, pears, plums, peaches, cherries, raspberries, currants, strawberries, gooseberries, and damsons, flourish when cultivated. On the shores of Lake Erie peaches have been sold at a quarter of a dollar per bushel, and apples are sold on the banks of the river Thames at three-pence-halfpenny per bushel. All culinary vegetables arrive at perfection. Pumpkins and squashes grow in the open fields to an enormous size; 50 to 80 pounds weight is not unusual. The fisheries of the great lakes are now being appreciated; iron and copper ore abound, and are of good quality.

But the main sources of wealth consist of millions of acres of fertile soil, a genial climate, industrious people, and a market such as England, ready to receive 100 times an incalculable quantity of human food, and to furnish in return, abundance of manufactures at the cheapest rate.

The number of proprietors of real estates liable to assessment in Western Canada, in 1848, was 60,000 to 65,000; and the number of acres occupied, 8,613,591 = 133 acres to each proprietor; allowing 1,780,152 acres of land to be arable, and 766,768 pasture = 2,546,920; and considering that the great body of the people are supported by agriculture, there are more than 3 acres to each mouth.

The number of acres returned under tillage was 1,780,152; and under designated crops, as follows:—wheat, 593,695; barley, 29,324; rye, 38,542; oats, 285,571; peas, 82,516; maize, 51,997; buck-wheat, 26,653;

potatos, 56,796 acres = 1,165,004; add for omissions 10 per cent., 116,500. Grand total under designated crops, 1,281,504 acres; which leaves 493,638 unaccounted for, probably appropriated in gardens, town-plots, &c.

The unproductive lands in Western Canada comprise 571,139 acres, or about 6.63 per cent.; but a large portion returned as unfit for cultivation, are swamp lands, which only require drainage.

In England the unprofitable lands are estimated at 10 per cent. of the whole area. The value of the *uncultivated* lands, viz.: 5,849,406 acres, at £1 9s. 2d. per acre, is £3,530,383; of the cultivated, viz.: 2,546,920 acres, at £3 10s. 10d. per acre = £920,341; total, £17,550,725. Western Canada, as a British colony, offers a favourable contrast to the United States as regards agricultural produce. The Statistical Reporter for the province makes the following remarks thereon:—"In 1840 the population of the United States was 17,063,353; and in 1847, 20,746,400. In 1842 the population of Western Canada was 486,055; and in 1848, 723,332."

United States.

Crops.	Gross quantity in 1840.	Gross quantity in 1847.	Quantity to each inhabitant.	
			1840.	1847.
Wheat—bushels	84,823,272	11,245,500	4.96	6.60
Barley "	4,161,504	6,849,950	.25	.28
Oats "	123,071,341	167,867,000	7.21	9.09
Rye "	19,645,567	29,222,700	1.09	1.43
Buckwheat "	7,291,703	11,673,008	0.43	.55
Maize "	377,331,875	588,350,000	22.12	26.01
Potatos "	108,295,108	100,965,000	6.35	4.83
Peas "	Not given	in either returns.		

Canada.

Crops.	Gross quantity in 1842.	Gross quantity in 1847.	Quantity to each inhabitant.	
			1842.	1847.
Wheat—bushels	3,221,991	7,558,773	6.62	10.45
Barley "	1,031,335	616,727	2.12	0.71
Oats "	4,788,167	7,055,730	9.85	9.75
Rye "	292,970	446,293	0.60	0.62
Buckwheat "	305,786	432,773	0.72	0.60
Maize "	691,359	1,137,555	1.42	1.57
Potatos "	8,080,397	4,761,331	16.82	6.67
Peas "	1,193,551	1,763,848	2.45	2.42

From the above table it will be seen that in proportion to the extent and population, Canada is a more agricultural and fertile country than the United States; the surplus of wheat is very great. The usual quantity allowed for the consumption of each inhabi-

Census and other returns
Schools
Merchants' Shops

186 PRICES OF LAND WILD AND CLEARED IN WESTERN CANADA.

tant is generally 5 bushels, which would leave for export one-half the produce of the country. The large quantity of Indian corn grown in the States, enables them, by making it a staple of consumption, to export a large stock of flour. In Canada, on the contrary, little Indian corn is grown, and wheat becomes of necessity the great article of food.

If we take the produce for 1847 at the lowest average prices, we have as the value of the products of Canada:—

Products.	Bushels.	Average prices.	Value.
Wheat	7,566,773	8 0	1,322,795 8 6
Barley	515,727	2 3	66,615 8 9
Oats	7,065,730	1 3	440,963 2 6
Rye	446,293	2 3	50,206 1 9
Maize	1,137,555	2 6	142,194 7 6
Buckwheat	432,373	4 0	86,614 12 0
Peas	1,763,846	3 6	319,250 15 0
Potatoes	4,761,331	1 6	356,329 16 6

"In making the foregoing comparison between the crops of the United States and Canada, a remark has been made which requires some observation. It is stated to be unjust to take the whole of the former country, whereas some portions do not produce wheat, Louisiana and Florida for instance, whose united population is about 600,000; we will take therefore those states which produce the greatest quantity, viz:—

United States.	Population.	Wheat.	
		Bushels.	Average to each inhabitant.
New York	2,880,000	15,500,000	about 5
Pennsylvania	2,220,000	15,200,000	" 7
Virginia	1,295,000	12,250,000	" 10
Ohio	1,980,000	20,000,000	" 10
Indiana	1,000,000	8,500,000	" 8

"With respect to Michigan, it is worth while to examine the returns; in 1840 the population of that State, was 212,267, and its produce in wheat was 2,157,108 bushels. In 1848 the population is rated at 420,000, and the wheat crop at 10,000,000 bushels, and other crops at 22,110,000, making together 32,000,000 bushels. How does that stand with regard to the available labour of the State? According to the ratio of 1841, the whole male population between the ages of 15 and 70 would be about 127,000, of whom, allowing 75 per cent. to be engaged in agriculture we have 92,000 to collect this

enormous harvest of grain, above 350 bushels to each man. The wheat crop being about 24 bushels to each inhabitant."

Cattle increase with great rapidity in Canada, especially in the western part of the province, where the winters are not severe.

Cattle in Western Canada.

Description.	1842.	1848.	Increase.	Per Cent.
Neat Cattle	504,983	565,845	60,862	12
Horses	113,676	161,389	37,714	33
Hogs	394,366	494,241	99,875	25
Sheep	676,730	835,807	159,077	46

Western Canada will become a great sheep country. In 1842 the wool produced was 1,302,510 lbs.; in 1848, 2,339,756 lbs. In the United States the number of sheep in 1840 was 19,311,374 and the wool produced 35,802,114 lbs.

The quantity of lands surveyed and granted in Eastern and Western Canada, will be seen in the following tables; the subject of emigration, in connexion with the waste and unoccupied lands, will be given at the conclusion of the description of the whole of British America, to which the data furnished by official authorities apply generally.

The remarks made in 1846 by the instructive editor of the *Canadian Gazetteer* (Mr. W. H. Smith) respecting the price of land in Western Canada, deserves the notice of emigrants. "All lands in the possession of the crown, with very few exceptions, are sold at 8s. currency per acre, which may be paid for either in cash or scrip. This scrip is usually to be purchased at a discount of 20, 25, and sometimes 30 per cent. If the immigrant gets it at a reduction of 25 per cent., his land will only cost him 6s. currency per acre, which is *three pence* per acre less than the government price of land in the United States. There are about 2,300,000 acres of the crown lands in Western Canada surveyed and ready to be disposed of at this price, exclusive of the clergy reserves." Land may be purchased of private individuals in the different districts of Western Canada at the following rates:—In Victoria's district, near the frontier, 4 to 10 dollars per acre for wild (uncultivated) land, and for cultivated farms, including buildings, 20 to 35 dollars per acre. In the back townships, wild land 1 to 4; cultivated, 8 to 20 dollars per acre. Other districts similar.

LANDS GRANTED AND SOLD IN EASTERN CANADA.
In the Years from 1836 to 1847 inclusive, taken from Returns furnished to the Hon. Secy. of State.

The quantity of land originally surveyed in Western Canada, including that surrendered by the Indian tribes, was about 18,153,219 acres, which have been appropriated as follows:—To the United Emigrant Loyalists, and for various claims, 10,404,663 acres. Of this amount the United Emigrant Loyalists who quitted the United States during the war against England received about 3,200,987 acres; the Canadian Militia about 780,700 acres; Discharged Soldiers and Seamen, 440,400 acres; Magistrates and Barristers, 255,500 acres; Legislative Councillors and their families, 142,960 acres. The Clergy Reserves, consisting of one-seventh of the surveyed cultivable lands, set apart by George III. for the support of the Christian religion, amounted to 2,407,687

acres. There has been allotted for educational purposes to King's College, Toronto, 225,944 acres; to Upper Canada College, 63,642 acres; to Grammar Schools, 258,830 acres. The Canada Company have purchased 2,484,413 acres. The Indian Reservations not disposed of amount to 808,540 acres; the lands remaining on hand, 1,500,000 acres; and the unsurveyed lands are about 13,500,000 acres; of which it is estimated 9,000,000 acres are fit for cultivation. About half the surveyed lands of Western Canada have been purchased from the Indians since 1818, and Mr. W. H. Smith, in his valuable *Canadian Gazetteer*, gives the following statement of the quantity of land bought, and the price paid by the British Government:—

Date of Surrender.	Name of Tribe.	No. of Tribe.	No. of acres sold.	Amount of Annuity in Currency.	Conditions.
20th July, 1820	Mohawks of Quinte Bay .	415	33,280	£450 0	} £2 10s. to each member of the tribe; but not to exceed £450.
31st May, 1819	Misissaugas of Alnwick .	218	2,748,000	642 10	
28th Oct., 1818	Ditto of Credit River .	245	648,000	822 10	} Ditto, but not to exceed £842 10s.
6th Nov., 1819	{Ditto of Rice and Mud Lakes}	845	1,961,000	740 0	
17th Oct., 1818	Chippewas of Lake Huron .	540	1,592,000	1,200 0	} —
26th April, 1820	{Ditto of Chenail, Esorte, and St. Clair}	1,129	2,200,000	1,100 0	
9th May, 1820	Ditto of River Thames .	438	580,000	600 0	} If the tribe decrease one-half, the annuity is to decrease in the same proportion; the original number specified in the deed is 440 souls.
25th Oct., 1820	Moravians of ditto	184	25,000	150 0	
9th Aug., 1836	Saugeen Indians	348	150,000	1,250 0	} £2 10s. to each member of the tribe; but not to exceed £200 yearly.
	Totals,	3,862	9,027,280	6,655 0	

These purchases give the government and people of England the right of those lands in Canada, and in the event of separation or annexation to the United States, the people of England would require indemnification for their property.

£15,000 a-year is still annually voted by the British Parliament for the payment of the several sums due to the Indians, who are located in different parts of the province, and in some instances converted to Christianity; their numbers are, however, fast diminishing, and at no distant time they will probably be extinct. About 1,140 Chippewas reside on Walpole Island in Lake St. Clair. Members of the Chippewas, Munsees, Onondas, Pottawatamies, and Moravian Delawares, are located on the banks of the river Thames, in the townships of Orford, Delaware, and Caradoc. Another Chippewa tribe are established at Sarnia, at the head of Lake St. Clair; Sir J. Colborne endeavoured to civilize this

tribe, and they have made some improvements in agriculture. The Saugeens are resident in two villages situated at the mouth of the Saugeen and at Owen Sound. The principal Indian settlement is at Manitoulin Island, where the British officers and clergymen who are appointed superintendents by her majesty's government reside. The Indians here are becoming more settled, and are being baptized.

Of the "Clergy Reserves" in Western Canada there were sold, from 1829 to 1838, 400,742 acres; and during the same period, of the Crown Lands in Western Canada only 100,317 acres were sold. In Eastern Canada there has been no sale of Clergy Reserves since 1838. Either the land thus appropriated for the support of the different ministers of the Christian religion have been mismanaged, or the price asked for those lands have been too high.

The "Canada Company," which was incorporated by royal charter, 19th August

1826, with a capital of £1,000,000, has purchased of reserved and other lands in Western Canada 2,484,418 acres; of these, 1,800,000 acres are held in dispersed blocks, in sizes of 200 to 2,000, 10,000, 12,000, and 14,000 acres, and the remainder is comprised in the Huron tract, which was granted in lieu of one moiety of the clergy reserves scattered throughout the province. This company has effected great good, its settlements are among the most flourishing in the province, and the people therein strongly attached to the British crown. All the obligations of the company have been faithfully fulfilled; they stipulated to pay for their lands as follows:—On 1st July, 1827, £20,000; three following years, each, £15,000; in 1831, £16,000; in 1832, £17,000; in 1833, £18,000; in 1834, £19,000; in 1835, £20,000; and thereafter the sum of £20,000 annually, until 16 years shall have expired from 1st July, 1826, at which time their payments reached £395,000. From this sum the Company was authorised to deduct £45,000 for the construction of works of public utility within the Huron tract; and to this fund the Company have made large additions. Its affairs are managed by a board of directors, resident in London, and affords an illustration of the beneficial working of corporate bodies in the distant possessions of the crown.

STAPLE PRODUCTS.—Timber now forms the largest item in the exportable products of Canada; the quantity in, and adjacent to the colony is so great that it must, in all human probability, continue to yield wealth to the province for many years. In the "lumber" trade, as it is termed, a large amount of capital is employed; about one million and a half sterling is invested in the neighbourhood of Quebec in erecting saw mills, making log ponds, building craft for the transmission of deals, and forming a secure riding for vessels in the strong tide-way of the St. Lawrence, while the timber is being shipped. In different ways this business offers immediate employment to the poorest class of immigrants, and furnishes them with the means of support through the severity of a long winter, while it enables new settlers more readily to establish themselves. Until the land be cleared, its cultivation is, of course, impossible; the "lumberer" is therefore the pioneer of the agriculturist, and the trees which were an incumbrance, are, by his assistance, converted into money, and the

settler enabled to add to his means of tilling the soil.

The quantity of timber annually supplied by the Canadian forests is enormous; for instance, in 1846 there arrived at Quebec, from the interior—of white pine, 2,705,287 feet; red pine, 5,270,600; pine deals, 1,316,401 pieces; spruce deals, 916,933 pieces; oak, 2,756,754 feet; elm, 3,472,308 feet; ash, 250,432 feet; birch, 241,683 feet; Tamarac, 593,584 feet. The Western and Eastern pine, oak, elm, ash, and birch, are all square timber. In the section on New Brunswick the forest trees of British North America will be described.

The forests on the Ottawa contribute an annually increasing supply. During the three years ending 1840 there passed down the Ottawa—of white pine, 49,783 feet; red pine, 259,103; oak and elm, 7,834; deals, 46,250; and saw logs, 48,272 pieces. The country around the Saguenay also contributes an immense quantity.

In order to facilitate the transit of timber on the Ottawa, and avert the danger attendant on passing the rapids, government have constructed "slides" over several of the principal falls; those over the Chaudière have been recently visited by Mr. Barker, who says—

"They are four in number, three about 100 feet long each, and one 200 feet long; all 26 feet wide (which is the general width of all crib slides), over-covering a fall averaging generally 35 feet. In the first, or upper slide, an ingenious arrangement to regulate the pitch of water on the slides has been introduced, consisting of two large gates (as strong as oak and iron can make them) similar to lock gates, only laid flat, the upper one overlapping the under one, and forming a part of the slide. Now, the water being let in under these gates by the level above, lifts them up by hydraulic pressure; and by means of another wicket to let the water out below, the level is regulated to any required pitch, or shut off altogether by simply turning a wrench, thus showing how easily a tremendous power can be controlled—a volume of water equal to 160 feet area can be let down the slides, or shut off instantly. These slides have been in use three years, and cost upwards of £5,000. The Chute slide is the best on the river; it is 350 feet long, which, with the head gates, over-cover a fall of nearly 40 feet. This slide is built in the form of a reversed curve instead of an inclined plane; the advantages of this shape are, that the timber is prevented running out of the cribs when the timber is of unequal size. To illustrate this more fully—when cribs are passing down a slide, the largest pieces drag upon the bottom or floor of the slide, and the water floats out the smaller pieces, leaving the crib a wreck, which has generally to be pulled to pieces, and caught below and rafted over again, causing much delay and danger to the men. This slide in '46 and '47, passed about 22,000 cribs, at 5s. each, thus more than paying the first cost in two years, which was less than £5,000."

The "lumber" trade on the *Ottawa* and its branches, it is estimated, gives employment to about 10,000 men, who are fast settling that section of the country. The *Trent*, and its tributaries, with the Bay of Quinte, employ also about 10,000 men. No very accurate estimate can be made as to the numbers employed westward. In the population returns the "lumberers" are not

usually given; but the able compiler of the Canadian "Blue Books," thinks that the number engaged in this branch of industry is from 25,000 to 30,000, with a large number of cattle.

The different sections of the province where the "lumber" trade is carried on is thus shown in the official returns for 1846:—

	White Pine.		Red Pine.		Oak.		Elm.	
	Pieces.	Feet.	Pieces.	Feet.	Pieces.	Feet.	Pieces.	Feet.
Quebec and Montreal	22,624	1,163,081	4,264	68,692	65	1,904	691	24,449
St. Lawrence from Montreal to head of Lake Ontario	108,541	7,567,662	8,391	245,578	10,061	320,130	54,688	2,009,848
3. Grand River and Lake Erie	4,508	279,763	5	178	32,212	1,995,358	1,911	77,494
4. Ottawa and tributaries below Bytown	92,827	4,988,337	3,964	120,794	4,163	77,764	21,932	750,823
5. Gatineau	23,284	1,477,357	3,950	133,155	38	1,354	1,489	42,442
6. Rideau	26,527	1,653,851	1,778	67,400	817	21,895	8,046	284,728
7. Ottawa and tributaries below Bytown	125,780	7,532,764	118,131	4,543,649	5,184	128,272	4,487	133,801
8. United States	599	35,453	1,213	53,936	592	16,078	3,940	168,718
Total in 1846	404,890	24,698,268	141,705	5,237,243	53,102	2,539,754	97,204	3,472,303
Do. in 1845	404,246	19,141,982	115,432	4,444,510	38,841	1,834,485	42,847	1,567,108

Fisheries.—None organized. Many hundred barrels of white fish are annually taken, and salmon, trout, shad, pike, pickerel, herring, black and white bass, maskinonge, sturgeon, mullet, chub, and perch, are caught in great numbers. The value cannot be ascertained.

The exports of fish from Quebec, and the coasts of Gaspé, New Carlisle, and the Magdalen Islands, was for 1846,—cod, 91,124 cwt., and 274 barrels (value £56,614); haddocks, 396 tubs and 60 cwt; pickled fish, 926 barrels and 44 half barrels; salmon, 77 barrels and 154 half barrels; cod-sounds, 2 barrels and 75 kegs; fish-oil, 35,781 gallons (value £3,452); blubber, 482 gallons; seal-skins, 9,000. The value of all the above was £62,104.

Shipping.—Built and registered at Quebec, 45 ships and brigs, tonnage 33,725; and 9 schooners, tonnage 610; and at Montreal 9 vessels, tonnage 1,032. From 30 to 45 steamers, ranging from 80 to 500 tons, have been registered at the above ports. The greater number are employed as passage boats, or for towing. There are many small steamers, from 30 to 90 tons, not registered, running from Montreal to Kingston and the intervening ports; they descend by the St. Lawrence, and return by the Rideau canal.

The registered tonnage on the Lake trade, exclusive of steam-boats and iron boats, barges, &c., engaged in the forwarding trade between Kingston and Montreal, is estimated for the year 1846 at 17 or 18,000 tons. A great portion of the trade on the lower lakes (the import trade altogether), and nearly the whole on the upper lakes, is carried on in American bottoms. The steamers, propellers, and other vessels owned on Lake Ontario, and employed on the inland waters of Canada, were, in 1846, 57 steamers (2 of iron), value £350,000; 6 large propellers, value £14,000; 2 ships, 5 brigantines, and 94 schooners of 30 tons, and upwards, value £150,000; barges 300, value £80,000; 7 river-propellers, value £7,000; small craft under 30 tons, value £17,000.

Ashes—(pot and pearl)—are prepared in large quantities by the settlers when clearing their lands, to assist them meanwhile in purchasing provisions. The exports average annually 22,000 barrels of pot, and 12,000 barrels of pearl ashes. The ashes are the residue after the burning of timber or plants growing at a distance from the sea shore. The Canadian ashes contain a greater proportion of real potash, than those of Dantzic or of Russia.

Grain is rapidly becoming a valuable staple product. In 1838 there was no wheat

exported from Canada by sea; in 1847, 628,001 bushels; flour in 1838, 59,204, in 1847, 650,030 barrels; oats in 1838, none, in 1847, 163,805 barrels; oatmeal, 21,999 barrels; barley, increased from 146 to 23,612 bushels; peas, from 1,415 to 119,252 bushels; beef, from 430 to 2,000 barrels; butter, from 80,000 to 1,000,000 lbs. between 1838 and 1847. The annals of few countries record such an increase in the production of food, beyond the supply required for a rapidly increasing population. Every bushel of grain, every pound of meat that Canada can raise and rear, finds an immediate and profitable market in England, and this stimulus is causing a yearly extension of agriculture.

Many districts in Western Canada are well adapted for the growth of maize or Indian corn. The production of this article of food in the United States was in 1840, 377,531,875 bushels; in 1841, 387,380,185 bushels; in 1842, 494,618,306 bushels. It is the great staple of the agricultural produce of the States; each family of 5 persons, consumes on an average 85 bushels per annum; it is used for distillation; sugar is manufactured from the stalk, and it is kiln-dried, ground into meal, and largely exported. A farmer at Ida, in the United States, declares, that on 5 acres of land which had been cleared for 20 years, grown wheat for 18 years, and never manured, he obtained from 2 bushels of corn 972 bushels of ears, each bushel of ears weighing 37 lbs.; expense, 44 dollars; receipts, 223 dollars; net, 179 dollars.

The farmers of Western Canada are now turning their attention to the growth of maize, which, it is considered, would tend greatly to increase their supply of good pork for the markets of Europe.

Horned cattle, sheep, and swine, multiply with extraordinary rapidity, and animal food will, doubtless, ultimately form a large item in the exportable products of Canada.

Maple Sugar is made in large quantities. Eastern Canada in 1844 produced 2,272,457 lbs.; and Western Canada in 1847, 3,764,243 lbs.; total, 6,463,845 lbs. The raw material is obtained from the maple tree (*acer saccharinum*), which is tapped in spring with a gauge, by passing it obliquely upwards an inch or more in the wood; the sap flows with considerable rapidity, is boiled down, and clarified, and the sugar amounts to 5 per cent. of the whole sap. 150 trees of 10 to 15 years old, will yield,

in a fair season, 300 lbs. of sugar, 25 gallons of molasses, and a barrel of vinegar. There are extensive forests of the sugar maple tree in Canada, especially about Lake Huron, and many Indians are now engaged in the manufacture. The maple is a beautiful tree; the wood vies with black walnut and mahogany for durability and beauty; the ashes abound in alkali. The trees which come up after the first clearing, produce a more saccharine sap than the original forest maples. In the United States a very large quantity of maple sugar is prepared.

Manufactures.—There are many domestic looms, particularly in Eastern Canada (about 15,000), and several manufactories have been projected, and some established for spinning cotton. A factory on the Richelieu river, nearly opposite St. John's, produces cotton wadding 12 yards long, by 1 wide—even in its texture, double glazed, and free from lint. A mill is being constructed at Sherbrooke to drive 1,000 spindles, capable of turning out yearly 300,000 yards of cotton cloth.

The quantity of iron smelted in Eastern and Western Canada is considerable, and of excellent quality. Copper is also becoming a valuable article in the provincial products.

Shipbuilding is a profitable branch of trade. In 5 years ending 1832, the shipping built averaged annually about 5,000 tons; in one month of 1845 (February), there were building in the several dockyards at Quebec 28 vessels, whose tonnage was 19,110; and the number of artisans employed in their construction was 2,400. About 60 large class steamers have been built for the navigation of the lakes and rivers, the machinery of which was entirely constructed in Canada. The schooners plying on the lakes range from 20 to 200 tons—all built in Western Canada. The steamers range from 50 to 700 tons.

INTERNAL TRADE.—Inland commerce is very active, especially on the great lakes and adjacent canals. Its increase may be conjectured from the traffic on the Welland canal, which connects Lakes Erie and Ontario, and extends about 38 miles. In 1829 it was rendered partially available; in 1837 the tolls collected amounted to £5,516; and in 1847, to £30,549. The Cornwall Canal recently constructed, yielded in 1845 tolls amounting to £51, and in 1847, £3,336.

The revenue collected at the port of Toronto, on Lake Ontario, was, in 1841, £5,050; in 1847, £32,678. At Kingston,

on Lake Ontario, the customs yielded in 1842, £6,826; in 1847, £17,584. The gross customs collected at different inland ports in Western Canada, was in 1842, £10,723; in 1847, £40,009. At the inland ports in Eastern Canada, the increase was from £2,278 to £9,765.

The exports by land from Canada to the United States, amounted in 1832, to 3,641,385 dollars, and in 1841, to 6,656,564 dollars. The total exports from Canada to the United States by land for the ten years, ending 1841, were in value, 40,645,643; and the total imports into Canada from the United States for the same period, 18,480,234 dollars; showing a balance in favour of Canada of exports over imports, 22,165,409 dollars.

The "slides" on the Ottawa yielded tolls for timber passing in 1845, £946; in 1846, £6,054. The "slides" on the Trent in 1845, £6; in 1847, £1,162. The gross revenue from roads was in 1842, £3,821; and in 1847, £21,763. The revenue from inland harbours increased in the same period from £1,664 to £4,643; on canals generally, from £18,535 to £50,181; on bridges, from £210 to £1,094. The amount of rateable property in Upper or Western Canada in 1825, was £997,025; in 1841, £5,996,609; in 1848, about £9,000,000. All this indicates remarkable progress, especially as 1847-48 was a year of depressed trade in Canada.

Twenty-five years ago there were only two newspapers published in Western Canada, now there are an hundred in the province; then there were but eight post-offices, scattered at great distances along the frontier, and the mail was conveyed by land from Lower (Eastern) to Upper (Western) Canada, once a fortnight by land, and from Toronto, westward, once a month; now there are 280 post-offices in Western Canada, and the frequency of postal communication increases with the rapid transmission of letters. In 1834 the number of post-offices in the Canadas was 234; in 1844 the number was greatly increased. There are about 5,000 miles of post roads.

The onward progress of Canada may be illustrated by the following statement respecting the county of Huron in Western Canada. In 1828 it was an untenanted waste; in 13 years it had 6,000 settlers; of these 514 families went on their land destitute of means, and in 1841 their stock and improvements were valued at £90,486;—61 families had means under

£10 a head, and their property had increased to £10,424; 254 families had means under £50 per head, and their means augmented to £40,526; and the value of property possessed by individuals who commenced with a capital exceeding £50 per head, rose to £100,850. Thus the value of stock and improvements in the county of Huron became in 13 years, £242,286. These are not singular instances; similar cheering results of energy and industry, are to be met with in many districts of Canada.

The increase of houses in Western Canada between 1827 and 1847, was at the rate of about 10 per cent. per annum; in England from 1812 to 1831, it was not 3 per cent. Grist mills in Western Canada increased from—

1830 to 1835 . . . 79	1840 to 1845 . . . 58
1835 to 1840 . . . 68	1845 to 1847 . . . 49

The increase during the last period was, consequently, 5'13 per cent. per annum. The increase of horses from 1825 to 1847, was 9 per cent.; of oxen, 6 per cent.; of milch cows, 8 per cent.; of young cattle from 1840 to 1845, 12 per cent.; between the years 1842 and 1847, neat cattle increased 12 per cent.; horses, 33 per cent.; hogs, 23 per cent.; and sheep, 45 per cent. per annum.

The honourable Mr. F. Hincks, the receiver-general of Canada, has favoured me with the following data, which bear evidence of the improvement of the province:—

Population of Eastern Canada.	Population of Western Canada.
1825 . . . 423,630	1824 . . . 151,097
1827 . . . 471,878	1832 . . . 261,060
1831 . . . 511,820	1834 . . . 320,693
1844 . . . 690,782	1836 . . . 372,592
1848 estimate 776,000	1842 . . . 456,055
	1848 . . . 723,292

80 per cent. of the whole population derive their subsistence directly from agriculture.

Acres of Cultivated Land in Western Canada.	Houses of all kinds.
1825 . . . 535,212	1825 . . . 8,876
1833 . . . 775,014	1830 . . . 12,082
1835 . . . 1,208,508	1831 . . . 18,488
1840 . . . 1,710,000	1840 . . . 25,857
1845 . . . 2,311,238	1845 . . . 37,214
1848 . . . 2,673,820	1848 . . . 42,937

Grist Mills.	Saw Mills.
1825 71	1825 394
1830 273	1830 555
1835 352	1835 753
1840 420	1840 963
1845 478	1845 1,272
1847 492	1847 1,489
1848 527	

Carriages kept for pleasure		Merchants' Shops.	
1825	587	1825	456
1830	986	1830	748
1835	1,495	1835	982
1840	1,863	1840	1,123
1845	3,800	1845	1,636
1847	4,685	1848	1,945

Value of Assessed Property		Local direct Taxes.	
1825	£2,256,874	1825	£10,235
1830	2,929,269	1830	13,335
1835	3,880,994	1835	22,484
1840	5,607,426	1840	37,465
1845	7,778,917	1845	76,291
1847	8,567,001	1848	86,068

Sheep	1842	Head.	575,730
	1848		633,907
Hogs	1842		394,366
	1848		448,241

No comparative Returns of the following:—

	1848.	lbs.
Flax		41,590
Butter		3,380,406
Cheese		668,357

Owing to causes which I need not explain, the last census was not taken for Eastern Canada. The statistics given, therefore, are for Western Canada alone.

MARITIME COMMERCE.—Quebec and Montreal are the seaports of Canada. In 1800 the arrivals at Quebec consisted of 64 vessels, with a burthen of 14,293 tons; in 1842, 864 vessels, of 307,687 tons; and in 1845, 1,475 vessels, of 559,712 tons.

In the appendix to the minutes of evidence before the select committee of the House of Lords in 1848, the *declared* value of British and Irish produce exported from the United Kingdom to Canada, is stated for 1845 at £2,212,339, and the *official* value of the same at £4,511,699. The shipping which entered the ports of the United Kingdom from Canada during the same year was, 1,580 vessels, of 629,824 tons.

The value of the import and export trade has increased in nearly the same ratio as the shipping. The subjoined tables show the amount of the sea commerce for the 8 years following the re-union of Eastern and Western Canada in 1840:—

Value of Imports at the Ports of Quebec and Montreal since the re-union of the Provinces.

Years.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Other Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
QUEBEC:	£	£	£	£	£	£	
1841	74,457	775	57,922	—	282,610	17,343	
1842	75,701	1,016	28,745	—	16,275	56,363	
1843	234,449	1,039	42,390	72	27,997	24,647	
1844	396,196	994	48,310	123	59,640	33,798	
1845	488,047	5,321	26,982	64	52,970	16,145	
1846	496,099	—	38,361	1,481	52,448	28,854	
1847	473,417	624	42,078	813	109,062	28,985	
1848	381,925	1,555	54,056	3,020	50,803	23,302	
1849	—	—	—	—	—	—	
MONTREAL:							
1841	1,632,480	—	38,615	—	10,763	17,078	
1842	1,614,961	1,072	32,686	—	558	12,570	
1843	911,828	1,265	54,576	—	58,509	33,761	
1844	1,803,226	387	55,378	—	143,219	30,922	
1845	1,990,664	8,329	33,376	—	190,114	20,446	
1846	1,734,760	31	37,111	—	90,513	31,205	
1847	1,491,877	270	49,487	—	128,557	27,785	
1848	1,062,948	—	29,522	—	107,873	17,138	
1849	—	—	—	—	—	—	

144 ARTICLES OF EXPORT AND IMPORT AT QUEBEC AND MONTREAL.

Value of Exports from Quebec and Montreal.

Years.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Other Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
QUEBEC:							
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1841	1,102,542	31,337	78,946	191,952	417	14,853	1,420,049
1842	592,107	24,187	56,578	127,593	—	14,446	814,922
1843	1,068,288	11,133	33,706	—	—	10,968	1,124,097
1844	1,178,328	3,381	84,899	1,025	467	3,968	1,222,067
1845	1,649,702	1,450	33,728	—	750	4,871	1,690,582
1846	1,478,673	989	54,394	—	—	118	1,534,074
1847	1,413,699	—	88,551	1,859	921	329	1,505,259
1848	1,034,121	—	79,456	—	1,618	415	1,115,819
1849	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
MONTREAL:							
1841	526,064	11,782	35,543	2,028	—	—	575,400
1842	565,681	5,137	28,137	—	—	—	598,955
1843	285,876	5,720	27,470	—	—	—	319,067
1844	597,278	3,444	18,786	—	—	450	617,918
1845	571,096	—	21,339	—	—	—	592,436
1846	506,697	—	18,784	—	5,298	—	541,100
1847	616,663	—	32,878	—	22,567	400	697,794
1848	283,104	—	27,474	—	11,124	358	322,061
1849	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

The variety of articles exported from the United Kingdom to the British North American Colonies is shown in a return laid before parliament, 22nd August, 1848, which states the declared value of some of the principal exports to British North America to be as follows, in the year 1847:—Cotton manufactures, £606,614; woollen manufactures, £586,151; iron and steel, £342,166; apparel, slops, and haberdashery, £356,006; linen manufactures, £147,670; hardware and cutlery, £166,994; cordage, £102,807; silk manufactures, £117,425; leather, saddlery, and harness, £73,754; brass and copper manufactures, £32,515; earthenware, £52,869; hats, £35,984; soap and candles, £46,671; stationery, £54,157; glass, £33,890; tin wares, £19,809; umbrellas and parasols, £8,372; apothecary wares, £16,377; musical instruments, 5,129; painters' colours, £24,403; plate, watches, &c., £17,020; books, £19,013; cabinet wares, £7,548; fishing tackle of all sorts, £39,496; lead and shot, £9,126; and various other articles—the whole amounting to £3,231,480 declared value, which is far less than the real value.

The principal articles imported into the United Kingdom from the British North American Colonies in 1847, consisted of timber not sawn or split, 590,557 loads; deals, battens, or other timber sawn or split, 494,084 loads; staves, 32,308; ashes

(pearl and pot), 99,713 cwts.; wheat, 87,199; quarters; wheat and flour, 1,079,940 cwts.; beef salted, 1,272 cwts.; pork do. 8,004 cwts.; fish, 83,486 cwts.; oil (train and spermaceti), 10,324 tuns; skins and furs undressed, viz., bear, 5,870; beaver, 23,132; fox, 27,102; lynx, 32,299; marten, 150,048; mink, 42,850; musquash, 260,982; otter, 8,021; seal, 443,438; wolf, 10,730. The following statement shews the—

Exports from Canada by Sea (exclusive of Timber), for the years 1838 to 1847 inclusive.

Years.	Ashes.	Butter.	Beef.	Barley.	Flour.
	barrels.	lbs.	barrels.	bushels.	barrels.
1838	29,454	60,536	439	146	69,294
1839	25,490	72,248	2,310	130	43,427
1840	24,438	403,730	3,685	60	315,612
1841	22,012	211,497	2,968	4,504	356,210
1842	27,641	542,511	9,608	867	294,799
1843	34,918	374,207	7,196	6,940	209,967
1844	35,743	490,800	5,568	63,755	416,467
1845	30,918	312,475	2,140	27,626	442,228
1846	26,011	786,701	2,826	4,287	555,602
1847	19,243	1,086,555	1,890	23,012	651,030

Years.	Oatmeal.	Poss.	Pork.	Wheat.	Oats.
	barrels.	bushels.	barrels.	bushels.	bushels
1838	522	1,415	8,868	None.	None.
1839	60	2,855	6,479	3,836	—
1840	6,008	69,878	11,230	142,059	—
1841	4,667	123,574	14,795	562,862	—
1842	6,764	78,965	40,288	204,107	5,066
1843	5,327	88,218	10,684	144,233	3,651
1844	6,725	130,355	11,184	282,183	24,574
1845	1,570	220,912	3,493	396,232	68,530
1846	5,330	210,339	5,598	634,747	45,020
1847	21,969	119,252	4,674	628,001	166,806

CHAPTER VI.

REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, AND FINANCIAL STATE OF CANADA; BANKS, COINS, CIRCULATING MEDIUM; PRICES OF PROVISIONS, WAGES OF LABOUR, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES; PROPERTY, MOVABLE AND IMMOVABLE; SUMMARY ADVICE ON "SEPARATION" OR "ANNEXATION," &c.

REVENUE.—At the period of the British conquest of Canada the public income was very trifling; in 1806, it amounted to £29,116, and the expenditure was £35,134. The revenue of Eastern and Western Canada stood thus in the undermentioned years:—

Year.	Revenue Receipts.			Expenditure.		
	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	Total.	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824	83,309	61,666	144,875	83,763	43,553	127,316
1839	147,264	167,627	304,881	165,991	196,310	362,330
1842	United		349,483	—	—	476,304
1847			596,826	—	—	458,021
1849	Estimated		574,640	—	—	665,403

The annual revenue of the province is derived from *Custom* duties, about £450,000, of which one-third is yielded by the inland ports on the lakes, and United States frontier; the remainder consists of sea Customs. The *Excise* yields £30,000 a year, which is obtained from the licensing of shops, inns, stills, ale and beer houses, auctioneers, steam-boats, hawkers and pedlars, and billiard-tables, and from a duty on auction sales. The *Tolls* from public works are estimated for 1849, at £50,000; in 1847 the gross receipts were £83,333; viz.: from canals, £50,131; harbours, £4,643; bridges, £1,094; locks and slides on the Ottawa and Trent rivers, £5,702; roads, £21,763. The territorial revenue is from £20,000 to £25,000 a year; of this sum the crown lands yielded in 1847, £22,330.

Tariff or Custom Duties.—Under the authority of an act of the Imperial Parliament, passed in the 9th and 10th years of her majesty's reign, c. 94, entitled, "an act to enable the legislatures of certain British possessions to repeal or reduce certain Custom duties," the Canadian legislature passed an act, No. one, 10 and 11 Vic., c. 31, on 28th July, 1847, repealing certain imperial acts, 9 and 10 Vic., c. 94, and 8 and 9 Vic., c. 93, and various provincial acts, and imposing the following duties in lieu of all other duties of Customs inwards:—

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Animals:—	Duty	Currency
	£	s. d.
Cows and Heifers, each	1	2 6
Calves, each	0	5 0
Goats, each	0	2 6
Horses, Mares, Geldings, Colts, Fillies,		
Foals, each	1	15 0
Kids, each	0	2 6
Lambs, each	0	1 0
Oxen, Bulls, Steers, each	1	15 0
Pigs (sucking), each	0	0 6
Swine and Hogs, each	0	5 0
Sheep, each	0	0 2 0
Candles.—Wax or Sperm, the lb.	0	0 3
Tallow, the lb.	0	0 1
All other kinds	0	0 2
Chocolate, the lb.	0	0 2
Cocoa, the lb.	0	0 0 ½
Coffee, Green, the lb.	0	0 1 ½
Roasted, the lb.	0	0 2 ½
Ground, the lb.	0	0 4
Corr. Brooms, the dozen	0	1 3
Fish, Salted or Dried, per 112 lbs.	0	2 6
Pickled, the barrel	0	5 0
Flour, the barrel of 196 lbs.	0	3 0
Fruit, viz.:—Almonds, the lb.	0	0 1 ½
Apples, the bushel	0	0 6
Ditto, dried, the bushel	0	1 0
Currants and Figs, the lb.	0	0 1
Nuts of all kinds, the lb.	0	0 1
Peaches, Pears, and Quinces, the bushel	0	1 0
Prunes, the lb.	0	0 1 ½
Raisins—Muscatel, Bloom, and Bunch, in boxes, the lb.	0	0 1
Ditto, otherwise, the lb.	0	0 1
Glass.—Window and Common German Sheet Glass, per box of 50 feet	0	1 3
Grain, viz.:—Wheat, Barley, Buckwheat, Bere, Bigg, Rye, Beans, and Peas, the quarter	0	3 0
Maize or Indian Corn, the quarter of 480 lbs.	0	3 0
Oats, the quarter	0	2 0
Meal of the above Grains, and of Wheat not bolted, the 196 lbs.	0	2 0
Bran or Shorts, the 112 lbs.	0	0 3
Hops, the lb.	0	0 3
Honey, the lb.	0	0 1
India Rubber Boots and Shoes, the pair	0	0 7 ½
Leather, viz.:—Goat Skins, tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, the dozen	0	5 0
Lamb or Sheep Skins, tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, the dozen	0	2 6
Calf Skins, tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, the lb.	0	0 4
Kip Skins, the lb.	0	0 2
Harness and Upper Leathers, the lb.	0	0 1 ½
Sole Leather, the lb.	0	0 2
Leather cut into shapes, the lb.	0	0 4
Patent or Glazed Leather, the lb.	0	0 4
All Leather not above described	0	0 1 ½

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3,074
5,269
5,619

5,400
8,955
9,067
7,916
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11,100
77,784
22,061

17,199;
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maceti),
d, viz.,
17,102;
mink,
8,021;
following

Timber),

Flour.

barrels.
69,204
48,427
315,612
366,210
294,799
209,957
415,467
442,228
555,602
651,030

Oats.

bushels

None.

—

—

5,906

3,551

24,574

63,530

46,060

165,805

Duty Currency.		Duty Currency	
£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
Leather Manufactures, viz.:			
Women's Boots and Shoes, the dozen	0 6 6	Sugar.—In which are preserves, per cwt.	1 6 6
Girls' Boots and Shoes under 7 inches in length, the dozen, including all kinds	0 2 6	Succades, including Confectionary, 20 per cent. ad valorem, and on the lb.	0 0 2
Children's Boots and Shoes over 3 inches in length, the dozen	0 2 6	Syrups, except Spirits, the gallon	0 1 0
Infant's Shoes under 3 inches in length, the dozen	0 1 6	Tea, the lb.	0 0 2½
Men's Boots, the pair	0 2 0	Tobacco, viz.:—Unmanufactured, the lb.	0 0 1½
Men's Shoes, the pair	0 0 7½	Manufactured, the lb.	0 0 2
Boy's Boots under 8 inches in length, the pair	0 1 0	Snuff, the lb.	0 0 6
Boy's Shoes under 8 inches in length, the pair	0 0 4	Cigars, the lb.	0 3 0
Liquids, not Spirituous, viz.:			
Ala and Beer in Casks, per gallon	0 0 4	Wine—(in addition to 10 per cent. on the value, including cask and bottles)—the old Wine gallon	0 1 0
Ditto in Bottles, per dozen	0 1 3	Wood.—Staves, Standard or Measurement, per mille	1 5 0
Cider and Perry, the gallon	0 0 1½	Punchoon or West India, viz.:	
Vinegar, the gallon	0 0 3	White Oak, per standard mille	0 10 6
Maccaroni and Vermicelli, the lb.	0 0 1½	Red Oak " "	0 7 6
Molasses and Treacle, the cwt.	0 4 0	Ash and Barrel " "	0 4 0
Oils.—Olive in casks, the gallon	0 0 5	Deals, Pine, per Quebec standard 100	0 15 0
Lard in jars or bottles, the gallon	0 1 3	Spruce " "	0 7 6
Lard, the gallon	0 0 5	Handspikes, per dozen	0 0 3
Linseed Oil, the gallon	0 0 2½	Oars, per pair	0 0 3
Sperm Oil, the gallon	0 0 6	Planks, Boards, and all kinds of Sawed Lumber not herein charged with duty, per 1000 superficial feet, inch thick, and so in proportion for any greater thickness	0 7 6
Other Oils from creatures living in the sea	0 0 1	Pine, White, and in proportion for any smaller quantity thereof, per 1000 cubic feet	1 5 0
Paper, &c.—Coarse or Wrapping, the cwt.	0 2 9	Red, per 1000 cubic feet	1 15 0
Printing, the cwt.	0 5 0	Oak, per 1000 cubic feet	2 15 0
Drawing, the cwt.	0 10 0	Birch, per 1000 cubic feet	2 10 0
Drawing, Music, Marbled or Glazed, Tissue, Bristol or Drawing Cards, the lb.	0 0 1½	Ash, Elm, Tamarack or Hacmatac, and other woods not herein charged with duty, per 1000 cubic feet	1 5 0
Pasteboard and Cards, the cwt.	0 4 0	<i>The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of One pound on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:</i>	
Milled or Trunkmakers' Boards, the cwt.	0 3 0	Ashes; Anchors and chain cables; Bark; Burr stones, unwrought; Berries, nuts, vegetables, and woods, used in dyeing; coals, coke, and cinders; Cotton wool and cotton yarn; Copper in bars, pig, sheathing, and sheet; Cocoa nut oil; Drugs used solely for dyeing; Flower roots; Fire wood; Greases and Scraps; Hides; Hardwood for furniture, unmanufactured; Hay; Hemp, flax, and tow, undressed; Indigo; Iron, bar, rod, and nail, boiler plates, pig, railroad bars, scraps, and old for re-melting; Junk or oakum; Lead in pig; Marble in block, unpolished; Oars of all metals; Palm oil; Resin; Saw logs; Straw; Sheet and hoop iron; steel in bar; Stone for building; Soda ash; Tallow; Teasles; Tin, sheet and block; Trees, shrubs, bulbs, and Roots; Type metal, in blocks or pigs; Tar and pitch; Wool; Woollen yarn; Yellow metal.	
Playing Cards, the pack	0 0 3	<i>The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Five pounds on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:</i>	
Potatoes, the bushel	0 0 3	Books, printed, unbound, or in sheets; Drugs, being in a crude or unprepared state, except dye stuffs; Furs, skins and peltries, dressed or undressed; Gums; Rice; Shingles; Tortoise shell; Wire, iron.	
Provisions, viz.—Butter, the cwt.	0 7 6	<i>The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Seven pounds ten shillings on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:</i>	
Cheese, the cwt.	0 5 0	Books, blank, bound, unbound, or in sheets; Burr	
Meats.—Bacon and Hams, ditto salted, ditto pickled, the cwt.	0 6 0		
Bacon and Hams, fresh, the cwt.	0 4 0		
Rum, for every gallon (of old wine measure) proof by Sykes' Hydrometer, all Spirits above that strength to be reduced to equivalent of proof	0 1 3		
Sweetened or Mixed, per gallon	0 3 0		
Salt, from Mines, known as Rock Salt, and Salt made from Sea Water, per ton	0 1 6		
Coarse, made from Salt Springs, per bushel	0 0 2		
Fine or Basket and stoved 5 per cent. ad valorem and per bushel	0 0 2		
Spices, viz.:—Cassia, Cinnamon, and Cloves, the lb.	0 0 2½		
Nutmegs, the lb.	0 0 5		
Pimento, Pepper, Ginger, and Allspice, the lb.	0 0 1		
Mace, the lb.	0 0 4		
Spirits, except Rum, as of Proof, the old Wine gallon	0 2 0		
Sweetened or Mixed, including Bitters, per gallon	0 3 0		
Sugar.—Refined or Candy, per cwt.	1 7 6		
Muscovado, per cwt.	0 15 3		
Clayed Sugar (10 per cent. ad valorem) and per cwt.	0 15 3		
Bastard, per cwt. (and £10 for every £100 value)	0 12 0		

stones, wrought; Chicory; Chains; Cotton, manufactures of; Cordage; Canvass; Camblets and cambletines; Cane work; Casks, empty; Casts in plaster of Paris or composition, unless their material is otherwise charged with a higher duty; Drawings, engravings, maps, globes; Extracts and essences used as medicines; Earthen and stoneware; Furs and skins, manufactures of; Fins and skins, the produce of creatures living in the sea; Feathers; Flowers, artificial, not silk; Goods, whose foundation is wool; Glass manufactures, not otherwise described; Gunpowder; Guns and fire-arms; Gold and silver leaf; Hair, manufactures of; Horns, horn tips and pieces; Hardware, shelf goods, and cutlery; Hats; Hemp, flax or tow in any way dressed; Juice of limes; Lemons or oranges, not mixed with spirits or sweetened, so as to be syrup; Ink, printers; Ivory, bone, and horn, manufactures of; Lead, manufactures of; Lead for paint not ground with oil; Lead ground in oil for paint; Linen and linen manufactures; Mules and asses; Mustard; Medicines; Musical Instruments of wood; Mercury; Marble, polished or cut; Oil or spirits of turpentine; Oil, castor; Oil, all not otherwise enumerated; Oil cloth; Oysters, lobsters, turtles, and all other shell fish, fresh; Paints, unground; Paints, water colours; Paint brushes; Quills; Silk, raw; Silks, manufactures of, not millinery made up; Silk, all goods being in whole or part silk, not otherwise specified; Silks, sewing, cord, and tassels; Spermaceeti, except candles; Spunge; Starch; Straw boards for bookbinders; Sulphur; Tiles and roofing; Toys; Turpentine; Thread, linen; Vetches; Varnish; Whalebone; Worsted, manufactures of; Woollen, manufactures of; Wax; Wax, manufactures of, except candles; Wood, all manufactured articles of, having no part metal; and all goods, wares, and merchandizes, not otherwise charged with duty, and not herein declared to be free of duty.

The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Ten pounds on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:—

Biscuits and crackers; Bastard sugar, together with 12s. per cwt., and clayed sugar, with 15s. 3d. per cwt.; Cork and cork manufactures; Eggs; Fruit, unenumerated; Leather manufactures not described; Machines for agricultural purposes, except threshing machines and fanning mills; Meats prepared otherwise than by salt or pickle; Musical instruments of metal; Oil, animal, except lard—vegetable, not otherwise enumerated—essential, chemical and volatile, perfumed; Paper manufactures not otherwise charged with duty; Plate and pleted ware; Poultry, alive, or dead; Sausages and puddings; Seeds, garden, flower, and vegetable; Soaps of all kinds; Vegetables, fresh; Wine, in addition to 1s. a gallon, old wine measure.

The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Twelve pounds and ten shillings for every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:—

Axes and scythes; Billiard and bagatelle balls of wood and ivory; Balls used at bowls or nine pins; Billiard tables; Bagatelle tables; Camphine oil; Carriages and vehicles; Carriages and vehicles, parts of; Castings; Clocks and watches; Clocks and watches, parts of; Dice; Flowers, artificial, in part or whole silk; Fanning or bark mills; Jewellery, set or unset; Machinery of all kinds and parts thereof; Silk millinery made up; Silk velvet; Threshing machines and fanning and bark mills.

The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Fifteen pounds on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:—

Extracts, essences, and perfumery, not otherwise provided for; Fish, preserved in oil; Fruit, preserved; Ginger, preserved; Pickles and sauces.

The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Twenty pounds on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:—

Roulette tables; Succades and Confectionary made of sugar, either in whole or in part, in addition to 2d. per lb.

TABLE OF EXEMPTIONS.—Anatomical Preparations when imported expressly for the use of any college or school of anatomy or surgery, incorporated by royal charter or act of Parliament, not imported for sale.

Copies of the Holy Scriptures printed in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and not imported for sale.

Books and Maps and Illustrative Drawings, imported for the use of any library to which the public may have free admission, as also for the libraries of either branch of the legislature.

Coin and Bullion.

Donations of Books or Clothing specially imported for the use of, or to be distributed gratuitously by any charitable society in this province.

Fish, fresh, not described.

Horses and Carriages of Travellers, and horses, cattle, and carriages and other vehicles, when employed in carrying merchandize, together with the necessary harness and tackle, so long as the same are bona fide in use for that purpose, except the horses, cattle, carriages, and vehicles, and harness, of persons hawking goods, wares, and merchandizes through the province for the purpose of retail, and the horses, carriages, and harness of any circus or equestrian troop for exhibition. The horses, carriages, caravans, and harness of any menagerie, to be free. Horses and cattle belonging to persons coming into the province for the purpose of actually settling therein.

Hides, Offal, and Tallow of cattle and swine, slaughtered in bond.

Manures of all kinds.

Models of Machinery, and of other inventions and improvements in the arts.

Packages containing dutiable articles.

Philosophical Apparatus, instruments, books, maps, stationery, busts, and casts of marble, bronze, alabaster or plaster of Paris, paintings, drawings, engravings, etchings, specimens of sculptures, cabinets of coins, medals, gems, and all other collections of antiquities, provided the same be specially imported in good faith for the use of any society incorporated or established for philosophical or literary pursuits, or for the encouragement of fine arts, or for the use or by the order of any university, college, academy, school, or seminary of learning within this province.

Philosophical Apparatus, &c., &c., imported for use by any public lecturer for the purpose of gain, and to be re-exported, shall be allowed to be entered under bond of two good and sufficient persons for their exportation within the specified time.

Arms or Clothing which any contractor or contractors, commissary or commissaries, shall import or bring into the province for the use of her majesty's army and navy, or for the use of the Indian Na-

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tions in this province: Provided the duty otherwise payable would be defrayed or borne by the Treasury of the United Kingdom or of this province.

Specimens of Natural History, Mineralogy, or Botany. Seeds of all kinds, farming utensils and implements of husbandry, and animals for the improvement of stock when specially imported in good faith by any society incorporated or established for the encouragement of agriculture.

Wearing Apparel in actual use, and other personal effects not merchandize, implements and tools of trade of handy-craftsmen, in the occupation or employment of persons coming into the province for the purpose of actually settling therein.

[The native produce and manufactures of all or any such of the other British North American colonies as shall admit the native produce and manufactures of Canada free of duty, shall be entitled to exemption from duties under this act, with the exception of spirituous liquors.]

Also Salt, salted or cured meats, flour, bisconits, molasses, cordage, pitch, tar, turpentine, leather, leather-ware, fishermen's clothing, and hosiery, fishing craft, utensils and instruments imported into the district of Gaspé from the United Kingdom or the Channel Islands or neighbouring colonies, for the use of the fisheries carried on therein, subject to such regulations as the principal officer of Customs at the port of Quebec shall make, and which he is hereby empowered to establish for the purpose of ascertaining that such articles are *bona fide* intended to be applied to the use of such fisheries.

The following articles are prohibited to be imported, under a penalty of Fifty pounds, together with the forfeiture of the Parcel or Package of Goods in which the same shall be found:—

Books and Drawings of an immoral or indecent character. Coin, base or counterfeit.

In this tariff Canada levies higher duties on British manufactures than has been hitherto authorised by the Imperial Parliament;—viz.: 7½ per cent.—the previous tariff was at the rate of 5 per cent. There is at present no distinction made between British and foreign goods; it is in fact a free import tariff, except in so far as is necessary for the obtainment of a provincial revenue. England receives no favour whatever on the export of her goods to Canada; the Canadians are at liberty to "buy in the cheapest, and sell in the dearest market;" and the alteration in the navigation laws enables them to employ the shipping of any country, which can carry their goods with the greatest economy. It cannot be said that the "mother country" has sought any advantage from its government of this province of the empire.

The gross amount of revenue from customs at the principal stations in Eastern and Western Canada, was in—

Revenue.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Districts:—							
Quebec	72,923	55,843	77,879	74,425	78,652	70,831	63,325
Montreal	152,403	102,482	223,690	227,765	179,599	171,285	140,499
St. John's	17,759	22,350	36,016	41,165	40,422	45,411	22,341
Hamilton	7,604	12,191	16,989	22,011	20,726	26,768	30,326
Toronto	8,390	17,603	25,105	22,195	33,529	32,678	27,752
Kingston	6,828	9,278	18,527	19,924	19,273	17,594	10,937
Eastern Canada Inland Ports	2,278	3,771	8,368	10,857	11,512	9,765	38,849
Western Canada	10,723	18,052	34,754	36,614	38,602	40,309	
Total	278,908	141,570	441,328	434,956	422,312	414,631	334,029
Provincial Excise Duties received	33,991	30,741	33,846	30,082	18,702	33,056	29,614
Territorial Revenues	51,775	97,862	6,570	25,783	23,906	26,284	51,959
Gross Revenue from Canals	18,535	25,751	38,347	28,957	39,340	50,131	46,493
" Harbours	1,664	4,430	3,822	4,360	4,340	4,643	3,663
" Bridges	210	563	229	1,432	1,334	1,094	1,590
" Locks and Slides	—	618	1,560	2,478	9,300	5,702	4,368
" Roads	3,821	3,260	300	3,816	7,170	21,763	22,499
Total Gross Revenue from Public Works	24,232	34,604	44,259	41,039	61,488	83,335	78,613
Ordinary Expenses of Management	1,282	2,320	3,524	6,339	10,614	9,470	—
Repairs and other Expenditure	6,580	6,207	19,292	7,198	2,391	31,307	51,519
Total Deductions	7,862	8,527	22,816	13,538	13,006	40,778	—
Nett Revenue from Public Works	16,369	26,076	21,443	27,501	48,480	42,557	—

The revenue raised for local purposes in Western Canada is shown in the annexed statement, which exhibits the value of assessed property in Western Canada, as rated under provision of an act of parliament, including duties on shops, distilleries,

billiard-tables, hawkers, pedlars, steam-boats, ale and beer houses, and the taxes for *general local purposes*, and exclusive of the taxes and values in the various cities and incorporated towns, except the general Excise

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PROVINCIAL AND DISTRICT TAXATION IN WESTERN CANADA. 149

Districts in Western Canada.	Assessed Value of Property.	Taxes.		Total.
		Provincial.	District.	
	£	£	£	£
Bathurst	329,410	142	2,607	2,749
Brook	357,166	333	4,320	4,654
Colborne	386,794	242	2,358	2,601
Dalhousie	397,980	384	2,370	2,754
Eastern	436,550	827	3,243	4,071
Gore	846,068	3,031	8,740	11,772
Home	1,105,596	2,803	10,937	13,741
Huron	148,764	261	1,188	1,449
Johnstown	459,789	1,230	4,909	6,160
London	582,981	1,076	8,620	9,696
Midland	402,583	2,226	4,031	6,258
Newcastle	265,271	2,335	6,100	7,435
Niagara	619,536	922	6,969	6,831
Ottawa	114,416	120	1,208	1,328
Prince Edward	316,703	127	2,345	2,473
Simcoe	224,485	333	3,136	3,368
Talbot	288,646	753	2,692	3,446
Victoria	286,171	240	2,135	2,375
Wellington	477,613	1,615	7,066	8,682
Western	434,235	687	4,949	5,636
Total				

value of £60. So also mills and other valuable buildings. Cultivated land is valued at £1 per acre, though its actual value may, on the average, be estimated at £5 per acre. Uncultivated lands are valued at 4s. per acre, though the government sell none for less than twice that price. It would not be unsafe, therefore, to multiply the amount of the assessed value by 5, to arrive at an approximation to the actual value of the property in Upper Canada. Thus, £7,139,901 x 5 = £35,699,555. These calculations take no account also of a large amount of local public property, yielding a considerable annual revenue, such as turn-pike roads, market buildings, &c., belonging to local corporate bodies, and to the several districts.

The local taxes or district rates are collected from each individual, at the rating of one penny in the pound, according to the quantity of land and other property he may possess, agreeably to the assessed value fixed by law, viz. :—

Every acre of arable, pasture, or meadow land, £1; every acre of uncultivated land, 4s.; every town lot, £50. Every house built with timber squared or hewed on two sides, of one story, with not more than two fire-places, £20; ditto for every additional fire-place, £4. Every house built of squared or flatted timber on two sides, of two stories, with not more than two fire-places, £30; ditto for every additional fire-place, £8. Every framed house under two stories in height, with not more than two fire-places, £35; ditto for every additional fire-place, £5. Every brick or stone house of one story, and not more than two fire-places, £40; every additional fire-place, £10. Every framed brick or stone house of two stories, and not more than two fire-places, £60; ditto for every additional fire-place, £10. Every grist mill, wrought by water, with one pair of stones, £150; ditto with every additional pair, £50. Every saw-mill, £100. Every merchant's shop, £200. Every store-house, £200. Every stone house, £199. Every horse of the age of three years and upwards, £3. Oxen of the age of four years and upwards, £4. Milch cows, £3. Horned cattle, from two to four years and upwards, £4. Every close carriage with four wheels, kept for pleasure, £100. Every open carriage, or curricl, ditto, £25. Every other carriage, or gig, with two wheels, ditto, £20. Every waggon kept for pleasure, £15. Every stove erected and used in a room

The tax for schools and school-houses, in 1848, amounted to £29,668; ditto building and supporting lunatic asylums, £4,348. Great portions of the taxes for district purposes are raised for temporary objects, such as repairs of particular works, building goals and lock-up houses, while the school-rate includes a very large sum for building school-houses. The general average of taxation in Western Canada for purely district purposes, is about 3d. on the valuation in the districts; in cities and towns it is differently regulated.

In all new countries the value of the labour in erecting houses is much greater than that of the materials used. In Canada, the dwellings of the earlier settlers are generally termed "shanties." Such dwellings are not liable to any taxes.

The houses taxed in Western Canada since 1827 have been—

	1827.	1832.	1837.	1842.	1847
No. of Houses	9,889	14,550	22,057	21,338	42,737
Additional fire-places	1,592	2,080	2,591	6,823	9,218
Value assesd. £	352,304	614,667	761,883	1,235,189	1,879,496

The assessments, it is stated, are very much below the actual value of the property assessed. They merely indicate the value according to the rate prescribed by the provincial act regulating assessments in Upper Canada. By that act, the highest value at which a house is rated is £60, or if containing more than two fire-places, £10 more for every additional fire-place. Houses, therefore, that have cost from £300 to £3,000 are, in these returns, rated as of the

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34,029

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where there is no fire-place, is considered as a fire-place.

Every person inserted on the assessment roll is, in proportion to the estimate of his property, held liable to work on the highways or roads in every year, as follows:—If his property be rated at £25, 2 days; ditto £25 to £50, 3 days; ditto £50 to £75, 4 days; ditto, £75 to £100, 5 days; ditto £100 to £150, 6 days; ditto £150 to £200, 7 days; ditto £200 to £250, 8 days; ditto, £250 to £300, 9 days; ditto £300 to £350, 10 days; ditto £350 to £400, 11 days; ditto £400 to £500, 12 days.

For every £100 above £500 to £1000, one day; for every £200 above £1000 to £2000, ditto; for every £300 above £2000 to £3000, ditto; for every £500 above £3500, ditto.

Every person possessed of a waggon, cart, or team of horses, oxen, or beasts of burthen or draught used to draw the same, to work on the highways 3 days. Every male inhabitant, from 21 to 50, not rated on the assessment roll, is compelled to work on the highways 3 days. Persons emigrating to this province, intending to become settlers, and not having been resident 6 months, are exempt; and all indigent persons, by reason of sickness, age, or numerous family, are exempt at the discretion of the magistrates.

Any person liable may compound, if he thinks fit, by paying 6s. per day for each cart, &c., and 2s. 6d. for each day's duty; to be paid within 10 days after demand made by an authorised surveyor, or the magistrates can issue their distress for double the amount and costs.

By subsequent resolutions for raising £500,000 for making roads, the Canadians resolved:—

- 1st. That for the purpose of providing the ways and means for payment of the interest on the sum of £500,000, to be expended on the public highways in this province, that the statute labour, now by law required to be performed, be commuted for a certain sum to be paid in lieu thereof.
- 2nd. That the sum at which the commutation be fixed be 2s. 6d. for each day.
- 3rd. That the following additional rates be imposed on the inhabitants of this province, the proceeds whereof to be applied to the payment of the interest of the said sum of £500,000:—Every horse (not being a stallion used for covering mares), gelding, or mare, over three years old, 1s. 3d.; stallion used for covering mares, 2s.; single-horse pleasure waggon, 2s. 6d.; two-horse pleasure waggon, 5s.; two-wheeled carriage used for pleasure, 6s.; four-wheeled open carriage used for pleasure, 10s.; four-wheeled close carriage used for pleasure, 16s.; four-wheeled carriage used for the conveyance of passengers, £2 10s.; a still, £5.

EXPENDITURE.—At the period of the reunion of the provinces in 1840–41, a permanent civil list was agreed to, and became a part of the act of union; viz.: 3 and 4 Vic., c. 35, to which the following schedules were annexed:—

SCHEDULE A.	
Governor	£7,000
Lieutenant-Governor	1,000
<i>Western Canada—</i>	
1 Chief Justice	1,500
4 Puisne Judges, at 900l. each	3,600
1 Vice Chancellor	1,125
<i>Eastern Canada—</i>	
1 Chief Justice, Quebec	1,500
3 Puisne Judges, Quebec, at 900l. each	2,700
1 Chief Justice, Montreal	1,100
3 Puisne Judges, Montreal, at 900l. each	2,700
1 Resident Judge at Three Rivers	900
1 Judge of the Inferior District of St. Francis	500
1 Judge of the Inferior District of Gaspé	500
Pensions to the Judges, Salaries of the Attorneys and Solicitors-General, and Contingent and Miscellaneous Expenses of Administration of Justice throughout the Province of Canada,	20,875
	£46,000
SCHEDULE B.	
Civil Secretaries and their Offices	8,000
Provincial Secretaries and their Offices	3,000
Receiver-General and his Office	3,000
Inspector-General and his Office	2,000
Executive Council	3,000
Board of Works	2,000
Emigrant Agent	700
Pensions	5,000
Contingent Expenses of Public Offices	3,300
	£75,000

In 1847 the payments under schedule A, were: union act, £37,818; provincial act, £8,561 = £46,379; under schedule B, union act, £20,589; provincial act, £9,997 = £30,586. Total, £76,967.

The total military cost of the Canadas in the year 1847, for payment of troops and commissariat expenses was, *Regulares*, officers, 222; non-commissioned officers and men, 5,474; payment, £196,609. *Royal Artillery*, officers, 36; men, 627; payment, £24,721. *Royal Engineers*, officers, 26; no men; payment, £10,918. Commissariat expense of the whole, £37,433. The total payment, commissariat expenses of the Canadas for 5 years, ending 31st of March, 1847, was £1,726,213; of which sum £212,715 was commissariat. The British expenditure for the flotilla of the Royal navy employed on the lakes, was in 1847, £8,724; of which £4,904 consisted of wages to officers and seamen.

EXPENDITURE OF CANADA IN 1848.

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The estimates voted annually in the Imperial Parliament for Canada, consist of two items; the first is £11,578 for the clergy in North America. For this amount the faith of the British government is pledged to several religious bodies, viz.: to the clergy of the Church of England annually, £7,711; to the presbyterians in connexion with the Church of Scotland, £1,582; ditto, in connexion with that of Canada, £700; to the British Wesleyans, £700; and to the Roman catholic bishop and priests of that church, £1,500. Second, between £14,000 and £15,000 a year are voted annually for the North American Indians, in payment of their lands, as stated at page 138.

The expenditure of the whole province for 1848, was:—

Interest on Provincial Debt	£166,014
Ditto on Turnpike Trusts	3,172
Civil Government of Eastern and Western Canada	33,804
Administration of Justice	68,082
Provincial Penitentiary	15,000
Legislature	29,231
Education	64,870
Agricultural Societies	9,376
Hospitals and other Charities	12,709
Public Works, exclusive of works out of guaranteed loan	12,187
Militia	1,847
Light-house maintenance	4,828
Emigration and Quarantine	752
Pensions	10,846
Miscellaneous	22,222
Indian Annuities	6,655
Redemption of Public Debt	15,000
Total	£474,491

The expenditure of £29,231 for the legislature includes, salaries and contingencies, £20,921; printing the laws, £3,127; returning officers, £4,733. The sum of £10,846 for pensions, includes militia, £3,779; legislative, £544; judges, £2,058; schedule B (union act), £4,198. The miscellaneous £20,222 includes, rent and repairs, &c. to public buildings, £10,150; rent of bishop's palace, Quebec, £1,111; assessment on property at Quebec and Montreal, £1740; expense of the provincial penitentiary commission, £1,500, and other items.

The militia pensions include, 26 militiamen of Eastern Canada, at £13 10s. per annum, £351, disabled during the war; 96 militia-men of Western Canada, at £18, £1,728, disbanded during the rebellion; 11 widows of militia-men killed during the late war, £18 each, £198 = 90 widows and children of militia-men who died on service during the late rebellion, £18 each = £1,620.

The civil pensioners of the province in 1846 were in number, 60, and of varying sums from £900 down to £18 a year. The total civil and military pensions for 1846, amounted to £11,461.

FINANCIAL STATE OF CANADA.—It has been stated in the history of the province (see pages 35–36), that previous to the re-union of Western with Eastern Canada, the Upper or Western portion, had contracted a large public debt, in the making of canals, &c. In June, 1841, the total outstanding debt of Western Canada was stated to be £213,671 in currency, and £869,650 in sterling; the debt of Eastern Canada at the same period was £113,975 currency; total currency, £327,646, and sterling, £869,650, together in sterling, £1,335,720. Of these sums the debt in sterling, (£869,650) paid 6 per cent. interest in England; of the currency debt, £5,500 paid 8 per cent interest; £282,206, paid 6 per cent.; £73,940, paid 5 per cent.; and the remainder from 5½ to 5¼ per cent. per annum. At the period of the re-union of the provinces, in 1840–41, the British government guaranteed a loan for Canada of £1,500,000, to be employed in public works. Other loans have since been contracted, and the liabilities of Canada on the 31st of January, 1849, stood as follows in sterling money:—

	£	s.	d.
Imperial Guaranteed Loan	1,500,000	0	0
Debtentures, principal and interest, payable in London	1,018,375	7	7
Ditto, payable in Canada	530,729	10	10
Ditto, in small Debtentures	71,749	6	4
Unfunded Debt	102,985	3	11
Balance at credit of the Consolidated Revenue Fund	170,855	19	9
Redemption of Debt	291,041	10	10
Special Funds managed by the Province	418,021	8	3
Debtentures issued by way of loan on security of specific taxes or mortgage	133,315	10	4
Sinking Fund	44,000	0	0
Total	£4,281,074	6	10

Of this total of £4,281,074 sterling, £3,703,781 have been expended on various public works, which now yield a net revenue of £60,000 to £80,000 a year, and is annually increasing. The debtentures, £133,315, have been loaned on ample security to the commissioners for erecting the Toronto Lunatic Society; to the Law Society at Toronto; and to the sufferers by the Quebec fire,—secured by mortgages on real property. The following is a detailed statement of the cost of these public works,

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which are unequalled for their magnitude and utility, by those of any other possession of the British crown.

	£	s.	d.
St. Lawrence Canal	1,442,314	1	8
Welland Canal	1,394,022	8	8
Chambly Canal	86,409	7	10
Improvement of River Richelieu			
Lake St. Peter	74,500	0	0
Burlington Bay Canal	48,378	13	7
Ottawa Works	81,979	19	6
Harbours and Lighthouses	266,694	17	10
Improvement of the Trent	124,445	2	10
Roads and Bridges, Western Canada	580,384	4	4
" " Eastern Canada	268,326	11	1
Provincial Penitentiary	34,267	15	1
Miscellaneous Works	31,507	11	2
Losses by Public Works and otherwise	112,288	14	7
Hallifax Currency	£4,606,267	9	0
Sterling at 24s. 4d.	£3,703,781	9	4

Explanatory Remarks.

These Canals are the Lachine, Beauharnois, Cornwall, and three smaller ones. "The works have been constructed" says Mr. Hincks, "in the most substantial manner, and they are unequalled on the American continent."

The Chambly Canal connects the St. Lawrence and Richelieu with Lake Champlain. Business is increasing rapidly through it.

This money has been expended in making a new channel through Lake St. Peter. There has been great difference of opinion as to the propriety of deepening the old channel or forming a new one, and the works are at present suspended.

The slides on the Ottawa have been of immense advantage to the lumber trade, and yield a fair return for the capital invested.

Tolls are charged on all the Government Harbours sufficient to meet the interest of the expenditures. Such works are of the utmost importance, affording, as they do, facilities for the export of the produce of the country. They are principally on the shores of Lakes Erie and Ontario.

The improvements on the Trent are principally slides to facilitate the operations of the lumberers in the county of Peterboro'.

These are macadamised or plank roads on which tolls are exacted, and toll bridges. They have been of the greatest advantage to the people; and though at first tolls were strongly objected to, the people now pay them most cheerfully, and are anxious for the continuation of such works.

This amount is very far short of the actual cost of the Penitentiary, the remainder having been defrayed out of the current revenue.

This account is charged with various kinds of losses, and is in fact analogous to the profit and loss account of a merchant. It includes the amount lost by the failure of a house in London some years ago, (Thomas Wilson and Co, for £60,040) and losses by exchange and otherwise.

Up to the 1st of July, 1844, there has been expended on the improvements of the St. Lawrence, £325,576; including Beauharnois Canal, £162,281; Lachine Canal, £45,410; Cornwall Canal, to June, 1843, £57,110; Lake St. Peter, £82,893.

Lockage and Canals on the St. Lawrence.

	No. of locks.	Canal Miles.
The Gallopes	2	2
Point Ironquois	1	2½
Rapide Plat	2	4
Parren's Point	1	0½
Cornwall Canal	7	11½
Beauharnois	9	11½
	22	32½

The assets of the province consist of the public works which may fairly be valued at £4,000,000 sterling. The entire revenue from those works, after deducting £20,000 currency per annum, is permanently appropriated as a sinking fund, for the redemption of the debt incurred in their construction. £44,000 is also invested by the Bank of England in 3 per cent. consols, on account of the provincial sinking fund. Out of £170,855 balance at the credit of the consolidated revenue fund, Mr. Hincks states, "it is probable that £100,000 will be transferred to the account, *Redemption of the Debt*, this will make the amount at the credit of that account, about £391,000, to which must be added the sinking fund of £44,000 (in the 3 per cent. consols) showing a saving out of the annual revenue of £435,000 sterling, or upwards of half a million currency, since the union of the provinces." Canada, in fact, has done more than England, for it has provided a sinking fund for the ultimate redemption of its debt; and it has assets to show, and even to sell or mortgage, which would liquidate the debts incurred. Taking the whole debt of Canada at £4,500,000 currency, and the annual revenue at £600,000 currency, the debt of Canada does not exceed seven and a half years of its income. Taking the national debt of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland at £800,000,000, and the annual revenue at £60,000,000, the debt is equal to thirteen and a half years of the public income. Again, taking the debt of Canada at £4,500,000 currency, and the population at 1,500,000, the proportion of public debt due by each individual is *fifty-one shillings*; taking the debt of Great Britain and Ireland at £800,000,000, and the population at 28,000,000, the proportion of public debt due by each individual in the United Kingdom is *five hundred and seventy-one shillings*. And it must be remarked, that while Canada has provided a sinking fund, which at compound interest would in a given period pay off her whole debt, England has no sinking fund, has no assets to

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represent its debt, and has provided no means for the ultimate liquidation of her debt.

The population of Canada is increasing with wonderful rapidity; property is augmenting in value faster than population, for the waste lands of the province are every day being converted from useless areas, into productive fields; and blessed with internal peace, and protected against foreign aggression by its being a part of a great empire interested in its preservation, and zealous for its integrity and honour, Canada may look forward to the fulfilment of all its obligations, and to a high career of prosperity.

The debt and liabilities of Canada are thus stated in the "Blue Book" for 1846:—

In England—bearing interest at 5 per cent. by debentures, exclusive of the guaranteed loan, £1,068,375.

In Canada—viz. in Upper Canada debentures, and debentures of Canada, £328,772.

By "Upper Canada" debentures, are understood those issued before the union of the provinces, in 1840–41, under acts of the Upper Canadian legislature. "Canada debentures" are those issued since the union, under acts of the united legislature.

Provincial Debentures of Lower Canada, vested in Trustees for Works (the interest

only being guaranteed by the province, and all paying except the first two):—Chamby Canal, £53,000; Turnpike Trusts, Quebec, £38,850 = £68,850 at 6 per cent., £4,130; Longueuil and Chamby Trust, £16,000; Montreal Harbour, £90,925; Turnpike Trusts, Montreal, £47,000 = £221,775 interest paid by commissioners.

Redemption of Public Debt—Being balance to meet rise or fall in exchange, £5,275.

New English Loan.—£3,363,000 sterling, interest at 4 per cent., £9,458 16s. 10½d.

The debt in England is all at 5 per cent. per annum; of the £328,772 due by Canada debentures, £144,910 bears interest at 5 per cent.; £175,112 at 6 per cent.; £5,000 at 5½ per cent.; and the remainder at rates varying from 2 to 6 per cent. according to the age of the debt.

Periods of redemption of the English loan (1,068,375): in 1854, £200,000 redeemable; in 1855, £400,000; in 1857, £222,330; in 1858, £45,500; in 1863, £77,535; in 1866, £121,000 = £1,068,375.

The Canadian loan of £328,772 is redeemable at different periods from the year 1847 to 1874, in which last year £47,580 is payable.

BANKING INSTITUTIONS.—The sound state of the monetary institutions of the province will be seen from the following returns:—

Banking Returns, 31st January, 1849, compiled from the Returns laid before the Provincial Parliament.

Liabilities, Assets, &c.	Banque du Peuple.	Bank of Montreal.	Commercial Bank.	Bank of Upper Canada.	Quebec Bank.	City Bank.	Gore Bank.	Bank of B. N. America Canadian Branch.	Totals.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Liabilities:—									
Promissory Notes in circulation not bearing interest	32,144	240,286	167,049	149,610	44,911	116,001	66,368	185,834	1,001,188
Bills and Notes in circulation bearing interest	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Balance due to other Banks	12,255	30,451	12,129	34,357	—	3,914	—	16,203	109,309
Cash Deposits not bearing interest	21,386	154,734	45,892	76,949	35,653	19,943	12,991	161,978	712,068
Cash Deposits bearing interest	23,372	67,880	27,663	11,068	16,900	18,092	18,167	—	—
Total average of Liabilities	89,157	502,351	242,233	271,974	97,364	167,950	97,511	364,016	1,822,565
Assets:—									
Gold and Bullion	10,330	155,049	62,396	27,355	15,904	20,614	13,538	84,294	379,489
Landed and other Property of the Bank	13,126	45,455	23,206	31,935	6,500	12,841	5,025	—	137,588
Government Securities	—	10,200	—	—	12,900	95,750	—	—	117,950
Promissory Notes or Bills of other Banks	3,447	20,581	11,019	13,082	658	13,857	7,945	20,857	91,446
Balances due from Banks and foreign agents	1,486	31,732	34,406	15,932	4,296	10,367	21,955	19,041	139,316
Notes and Bills discounted, or other debts due to the Bank not above included	263,022	1,096,996	556,573	564,489	166,417	304,186	189,093	854,917	3,977,563
Total average of Assets	291,420	1,360,033	679,690	652,783	205,775	457,205	217,546	979,109	4,843,451

Note.—The return under the head "Notes and Bills discounted," for the Gore Bank includes a claim of £40,000 on the estate of Reid, Irving, and Co., of London.—City Bank Bills of Exchange, £3,863.

The circulation per month of the Canadian banks, is about £1,300,000 to £1,500,000. The average circulation of the Bank of Montreal, is £500,000; City bank of Montreal, £230,000; Commercial bank, Midland District, £200,000; Bank of Upper Canada, £200,000; Gore bank, £100,000; Quebec bank, £80,000; Banque du peuple, £85,000; Bank of British North America, branches, £250,000. All the banks issue notes as low as 5s. There is no provincial metallic currency; the amount of British coin in circulation cannot be ascertained; it is small in proportion to the entire circulating medium; the Canadians, like the Scotch, prefer their own bank notes to metal.

There are several Savings' Banks in Canada.

The Montreal Savings' Bank owes to depositors	£84,366
Montreal City and District do. do.	44,560
The Quebec Provident and do. do.	31,772
The Hamilton and Gore do. do.	5,745

Total £166,443

The *British America Fire and Life Assurance Company* has a subscribed capital stock of £100,000, of which £35,000 has been paid on 7,989 shares. The amount of property insured against fire during the year ending 31st of January, 1849, was £800,305. The premium received, £6,737; amount of losses paid during same period, £3,243; losses under adjudgment, 1,363; present liability under 1,170 policies, £727,489; insured against dangers of navigation, £173,466; premium received for the year, £3,326; losses paid, £2,258; losses under adjudgment, £1,000. The *St. Lawrence Inland Marine Assurance Company*, has a subscribed capital of £100,000, of which £15,000 is paid up. Property insured during 1848, £433,407; premium on ditto, £5,996; losses paid during the year, £3,009; losses under adjudgment, £900.

MONIES.—Accounts are kept in Halifax currency, by which a guinea (weighing 5 dwts. and 6 grs.) is equal to 24s. 4d. currency; a sovereign to 23s. 3d.; a Joannes (a gold coin, weighing 18 dwts.) to £1; a moireur (weighing 6 dwts. and 18 grs.) to £2; and an eagle (weighing 11 dwts. and 6 grs.) to 50s. The *gold*, Spanish, and French coins are—a doubloon (17 dwts.) £3 14s. 6d.; Louis-d'or, coined before 1793, (5 dwts. 4 grs.) £1 2s. 8d.; the pistole, ditto, (4 dwts. 4 grs.) 18s. 3d.; the forty-franc piece, coined since 1792, (8 dwts. 6 grs.) £1 16s. 2d.; the twenty-franc piece (4 dwts.

8 grs.) 18s. 4d. In *silver coins* the crown is equal to 5s. 6d.; Spanish and American dollar to 5s.; English shilling, 1s. 1d.; pistareen, 10d.; French crown, coined before 1793, 5s. 6d.; French piece of six francs, 5s. 6d.; five-franc piece, 4s. 8d.; American dollar, 5s.; and so on. The coins in most general circulation are dollars of various denominations.

Accounts kept in *£ s. d.* To change Halifax currency (4 dollars = £1 currency) into British sterling, deduct one-tenth. To change British sterling into Halifax currency, add one-ninth.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—English weights; viz., pound, troy, and avoirdupois. The standard wine gallon is the liquid measure of the province; the Canada minot for all grain, &c., except where specially agreed on to the contrary; the minot is an eighth larger than the Winchester bushel. The Paris foot for all measures of land granted previous to the conquest; the English for all since that era. The arpent is for all other measures English, unless it may be otherwise agreed on. For rough calculations, 100 acres superficial are equal to 100 arpents.

The acts 4 and 5 Vic. c. 88 and 89, passed for the inspection of flour and meal, and beef and pork, make the following provisions, viz:—

Meat.—Barrel of Pork (contents not less than 30, nor more than 31 gallous wine measure) to contain 200 lbs. of meat.

Tierce of ditto (45 to 46 gallons) 300 lbs.

Barrel of Beef (28 or 29 gallons) 200 lbs.

Tierce of ditto (44 or 45 gallons) 300 lbs.

And the barrels and tierces in proportion.

Flour.—A barrel, 196 lbs. net weight; Indian meal, 168; and oatmeal, 200 ditto.

Grain, Pulse, &c., purchased by weight, as follows:—wheat, per bushel, 60; Indian corn and rye, 56; barley, 48; oats, 34; pease, 60; beans, 60; clover and Timothy seeds 60; and grass seeds, 48 lbs.

AVERAGE PRICES OF VARIOUS PRODUCE.—

It is very difficult to give this correctly; the best result attainable is but an approximation, because prices depend materially on the English and New York quotations, and vary with every mail. The different seasons have an effect upon the markets, and also the means of transport to markets, as traffic is chiefly confined to the cities and towns. During winter a considerable rise takes place, in consequence of the consumption of the "umber" men. In 1845, hay sold as high as from 27 to 30, and even 35 dollars a ton; oats, barley, and Indian corn proportionally.

In Montreal and Toronto provisions are

PRICES OF PROVISIONS AND TIMBER—WAGES OF LABOUR. 155

sold at a dear rate, but in the rural districts articles of food are comparatively cheap.

The following are the average prices in sterling money, for Western Canada, returned to her majesty's government for 1845:—

Wheaten flour, per barrel of 196 lbs., 20s. to 25s.; wheat, per 60 lbs. bushel, 3s. 6d. to 5s.; oats, 1s. to 1s. 2d.; rye, 2s. to 2s. 9d.; and barley, 1s. 8d. to 3s. 3d. per bushel; wheaten bread, loaf, of 4 lbs., 6d. to 7d.; potatoes, 1s. to 2s. per bushel; horned cattle, £5 to £15; horses £10 to £30; sheep, 10s. to 17s. 6d.; swine, 15s. to 25s.; turkeys, 2s. to 3s. 6d.; and geese, 1s. 3d. to 1s. 9d. each; ducks, 1s. 4d. to 2s. 3d.; fowls, 1s. to 1s. 9d. per couple; butter, 6d. to 10d. per dozen; milk, 2½d. per quart; butter, 6d. to 9d.; cheese (Canadian), 4½d. to 6d.; beef, 3d.; mutton, 2½d.; pork, 3½d.; coffee, 1s.; tea, 6d. to 5s., and sugar 4½d. to 7d. per lb.; salt, 10s. per 280 lbs.; wine (plain), 5s. to 16s.; brandy, 4s. 6d. to 4s. 9d.; and beer, 10d. to 1s. per gallon; tobacco, 7½d. to 1s. 2d. per lb.; hay, \$35 to \$40 per ton. All these are highest in winter, and are according to the city of Toronto market lists.

Wages for Labour.—Domestic, 15s. to 25s.; predial or agricultural (with board), 27s. to 50s.; (without board), 50s. to 70s. per month; trades, 3s. 9d. to 6s. per day. The difference of prices and wages of labour in Quebec and Montreal with those of Toronto are small.

The timber trade is a large staple of Canada, and the following list of prices at Quebec may be useful:—

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
White pine, in the raft, according to quality and sizes, measured off	0	0	6	0	0	6½
Do., in shipping order, do.	0	0	0½	0	0	7
Red pine, in the raft, 32 to 37 feet average	0	0	8½	0	0	9½
Do., new do., 37 to 45 do.	0	0	9½	0	0	10½
Do., 40 feet average in shipping order	0	0	10	0	0	10½
Oak, Lake, in the raft	0	1	4	0	1	5
" Rideau, do.	0	0	11	0	1	3
" Inferior	0	0	7	0	0	9
Elm, according to average, in shipping order	0	0	8	0	0	10½
Ash	0	0	5½	0	0	7
Birch	0	0	9	0	1	0½
Tamarack and Hackmatac	0	0	4	0	0	0½
Staves, standard, per mille	40	0	0			
" W. O. Pun.	12	10	0	13	0	0
" Red oak, do.	7	10	0	8	0	0
" Barrel	4	0	0	5	0	0
" Ash	6	10	0	7	0	0
Pine deals, in the raft, floated, first	9	10	0	10	0	0
Do., do., seconds	5	10	0	6	10	0
Do., do., thirds	3	10	0	3	15	0
Do., Bright, 2-3rds for 2nds	10	0	0	11	0	0
Spruce deals, firsts	7	10	0			
Do., seconds	5	10	0	5	15	0
Do., thirds	3	15	0			
Handspikes, in the raft	0	4	9	0	6	0
Do., in small parcels	0	10	0			
Oars, according to specification, per pair	0	3	0	0	6	0

Note.—Parties in Britain will bear in mind, that when timber is sold in the raft, the charges for ship-

ping are from 7½ to 10 per cent.; and for dressing, allowance for mills, and butting, the expense at times is very great.

PROPERTY IN CANADA.—An estimate of the movable and immovable wealth of each colony, and of the property annually created therein, must necessarily afford an indication of their relative degree of importance and progress; but the almost impossibility of obtaining sufficient accurate information on the subject renders it exceedingly difficult to form even an approximate calculation.

Property annually created.—Nearly every male adult in Canada is a producer; the non-productive class, such as paupers, and the number of persons deriving their support from professions or from funded property, is comparatively very small. Taking the population of Eastern and Western Canada at 1,500,000, the value of the necessaries and luxuries required for their annual support cannot well be estimated at less than one shilling a-day, or £18 a-year for each individual,—equal to £27,000,000 per annum.

If we estimate the amount of property annually produced and not consumed, but added to the movable or immovable property, at sixpence-halfpenny a day for each person, or about £10 per annum = £15,000,000, the total value of the property annually produced in Canada, according to this estimate, is £42,000,000. In round numbers it may be quoted at *fifty million sterling per annum.*

Movable and Immovable Property in Eastern and Western Canada.—There are in the united province five million acres of cultivated and improved land, which, if valued with their farm buildings, &c., at £10 per acre, give a landed property of £50,000,000; about ten million acres of occupied and assessed land, valued at £1 per acre = £10,000,000; and at least fifty million acres unoccupied, but fit for cultivation, at 5s. per acre = £12,500,000. One hundred thousand houses of all kinds, except shanties, at least £50 a house = £5,000,000; furniture, £20 for each house = £2,000,000; apparel and personal property, £5 each person = £7,500,000. Saw and grist mills, manufactories, distilleries, breweries, tanneries, factories, &c., about five thousand, at £200 each = £1,000,000. Timber to the value of at least one million sterling, may be cut annually for the next fifty years = £50,000,000. Horses, 250,000, at £10 each = £2,500,000. Oxen, milch cows,

and young cattle, 800,000, at £4 each = £3,200,000. Sheep, 1,300,000, about 20s. each = £1,300,000. Swine, 1,000,000, at 10s. = £500,000. Ships, steamers, boats, and barges, valued at £1,500,000. Merchandise, about £2,500,000. Capital invested in joint-stock banks and other public companies, £1,500,000. Capital represented by canals, wharfs, docks, and slides, about £6,000,000; roads and streets, £1,500,000; forts, barracks, military works, and government buildings, £2,000,000; churches, schools, hospitals, nunneries, and public buildings, £2,000,000: the whole giving a grand total of about £117,500,000, as the estimate of the value of movable and immovable property in the province of Canada.

These statements indicate the progress which Canada has made; but it has been asserted that Canada and the other British possessions in North America have evinced little energy or marks of improvement, more particularly when compared with the United States. A writer in the *Quebec Gazette* has undertaken to refute this prevailing idea, and says, that "Facts and figures show that the progress of the North American Colonies of Great Britain, since 1783, when the United States were finally separated from the mother-country, has been nearly equal, all things considered, and, in some respects, superior to that of those States in all the principal points to which the political economist looks for the evidences of prosperity." He then proceeds to compare the progress from 1784 to 1836, in exports, imports, population, and shipping, thus:—

	1784.	Imports.	Exports.	Pop.	Tons.
		£	£		
Nova Scotia, C. Breton, and Prince Edward's Island . . .	76000	3500	32000	12000	
Canada	500000	160000	113000	95000	
Newfoundland	80000	70000	20000	20000	
	656000	233500	155000	127000	
1836.					
Nova Scotia	1245000	936000	150000	374000	
Canada	2588000	1321750	1200000	348000	
Newfoundland	632576	8500334	70900	98000	
Cape Breton	80000	80000	35000	70000	
Prince Edward Island	40000	90000	32500	23000	
New Brunswick	250000	700000	164000	347000	
	5641586	3987078	1851500	1260800	
UNITED STATES.					
1784	4250000	1000000	3000000	500000	
1836	16200000	121000000	15000000	2000000	

"Now, these figures (collected carefully from the sources of information mentioned underneath,* and

* Holmes' American Annals; Lord Sheffield's Pamphlet on American Trade, 1789; Tench Coxe; Bristid's America; Anderson's commerce; Haliburton's Nova Scotia; Smith's Canada; M'Gregor's Colonies Martin's

from others) show that the increase of the Shipping of the North American Colonies since 1784 has been nearly tenfold, while that of the United States has been only fourfold; that the population of these Colonies; 'the thews and sinews' of production and enterprise, has increased in the same period ten-fold, while that of the United States has only increased three-fold.

"Under the head of Imports, it is true that the United States have increased about forty-fold, and of Exports more than 120-fold—while we can only count an increase in the former of about nine, and in the latter of about seventeen times. But compare the range of Export and Import in the one case and the other. From 1784, to the present time, our neighbours have had the free range of the world, going and coming; while the Colonies, until comparatively a very recent period, were confined to the trade with the mother-country, and with the other Colonies; and even in the West India market they had to encounter the competition of the Americans, whose greater proximity and cheaper outfit gave them an advantage. Again, it is to be remembered, that in 1784, when the comparison begins, the Americans started in the world with double the population—four times the shipping, six times the import trade, and more than four times the export trade, than the Colonies then had; so that the ratio of increase was not only greater at the outset, but went on increasing by a kind of compound geometrical progression. And, lastly, there was, and is, this important difference and disadvantage to our North American Colonies, that their whole maritime coast line presented but three or four accessible ports suitable for commerce, and that Canada, the principal Colony, is winter-locked six months in the year; while the whole American coast, from Machias to New Orleans, broken and indented with multiplied bays, harbours, rivers, and inlets, is open at all seasons, studded long since with the populous seats of a busy commerce, which had planted itself as early as 1784 in at least ten of the principal positions it now holds.

"These calculations of colonial statistics are so far from being exaggerated, that they may rather be charged by some with being below the truth. It is also to be borne in mind, that in the amount of Colonial exports and imports given above, those of Upper Canada inland and lake trade are not included, the materials of information not being immediately accessible.

"That province, like New Brunswick, has in fact been created out of the wilderness since 1784, (excepting, always, a very small French Acadian population in remote corners of each province), and in no part of the British North American dominions has the expansive power of British enterprise been more remarkably shown than in these two junior provinces."

If the writer had carried his data down to 1848, he would have presented the British North American Colonies in a still more favourable comparative view. Western Canada doubles its population in about 10 years; the United States in 25 years.

Colonial Dictionary; Bliss, Atkinson, and Haliburton's pamphlets on the North American Colonies; Colonial Population Returns.

The British North American colonies are most favourably situated between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, possess fisheries, mines, forests, and arable land of almost incalculable value, an extent of continuous navigable waters such as no other country enjoys, and every element conducive to the promotion of individual wealth and happiness. These provinces do not yet contain a population of much more than two million; they could maintain with ease fifty million inhabitants; and at the present rate of increase of cent. per cent. every decade, that number would be attained in less than 50 years.

SUMMARY.—I may perhaps be excused recapitulating some of the leading facts in the history of Canada which well deserve serious consideration, especially at the present critical period in colonial policy.

Since the conquest of Canada from the French in 1759, England has regarded with careful solicitude the affairs of that country: her ablest men have been selected as its governors; civil and religious liberty has been fully conferred upon the Canadians, to whom land has been granted by the Crown with unbounded liberality; the funds of the British exchequer have been spent without stint in the construction of canals, roads, forts, and public works; and the unparalleled naval and military power of England employed in preserving the colonists from hostile incursions. For more than 50 years a monopoly was given to the Canadians for the sale of their timber in the markets of the United Kingdom, and for the vending of their "lumber," fish, and food, in the British West Indian colonies.

The result of this policy, which may without exaggeration be termed maternal, has been a rapid augmentation of individual and of provincial wealth; and an enormous increase of population, accompanied by a more than proportionate augmentation of the necessaries and even luxuries of life. Now, having received from Britain all that a helpless child needs from a kind parent, it is for the Canadians themselves to declare whether they will remain part and parcel of the glorious empire which nurtured their infancy, fostered their more matured growth, and made them participants in every privilege which England so happily possesses. Or misled by demagogues, intoxicated by false doctrines, ungrateful for past benefits, and unmindful of present good, whether they

will repudiate the connection from which they have received such substantial advantages. The separation would be comparatively of little importance to England: she rose triumphant in power after the far greater privation consequent on the declaration of independence of the United American Colonies in 1776; and, under Divine Providence, there was added to her dominions in the *East* a larger and more useful territory than she had lost in the *West*. The annexation of Canada to the United States republic, would but hasten the period when that, like all other extensive *Continental* governments, must, under the operation of disintegrating principles, separate into independent states—a disunion which the experience of every age shews would probably be soon followed by rivalry and hostility.

It would, also, be well for those who favour the idea of separation: to "*count the cost*," since, without violating the first principles of justice and common honesty, no declaration of independence could be made on the part of the Canadians without involving the creation of a Canadian debt to reimburse the people of England for the large sums which have been expended from the Home Exchequer in and for Canada. In the ordinary course of private life, what man would be justified in repudiating when it suited his convenience or caprice a connection formed when he was struggling for existence, from which he had derived all the advantage, and of which the burthens had been borne by his colleague.

It is, however, very probable that the opinions concerning the expediency of separation which have been lately promulgated originate in the factious agitation of a few interested or unreflecting individuals, and do not express the deliberate conviction of any considerable portion of either the English or French Canadians.

But let the present clamour arise from what source it may, its injurious effects are beyond dispute: and it is impossible to close the subject without reiterating the hope that the loyalty, good sense, and appreciation of their true interests, which the Canadians have heretofore evinced, may be speedily exerted to extinguish the mischievous theories and idle speculations which are fraught with so much practical evil to Canada, by impeding commerce, preventing the flow of capital and emigration, and diverting the stream from the country which it would fertilize and adorn.

BOOK II.—NOVA SCOTIA.

CHAPTER I—GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION AND HISTORY.

THE province of Nova Scotia is an extensive peninsula, connected with the continent of North America by an isthmus only 8 miles wide. It is situated between $43^{\circ} 25'$ and 46° N. lat., and 61° and $66^{\circ} 30'$ W. long. On the N.E. and N. it is bounded by the Bays of Fundy and Chignecto, the boundary line which separates it from the county of Westmoreland in New Brunswick, Bay Verte, and the Northumberland Strait, which divides it from Prince Edward's Island; on the E. by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Gut of Canso, which separates it from Cape Breton Island; and on the S. and W. by the Atlantic Ocean. Its extreme length from E. to W. is stated by Bouchette at 383 English miles, but this is evidently a typographical error, as it cannot exceed 300, and was probably calculated by him at 283. Its breadth varies greatly; between Chester and Black Rock Pier it being about 50 miles, and between Bristol Bay and the head of Bay Verte 104. The area is stated by Haliburton at 15,617 square miles, or 9,994,880 acres.

HISTORY.—Nova Scotia was probably first visited by the Cabots in their voyage of discovery in 1497, but the earliest authentic account we possess concerning its colonization is of the attempt of the Marquis de la Roche, who, by order of Henry IV., sailed from France in 1598, with a number of convicts, forty of whom he landed on the small and barren island of Sable, situate about fifty leagues to the S.E. of Cape Breton, about ten leagues in circumference, interspersed with sand-hills and fresh-water ponds; without any port, and producing nothing but briars.

After cruising some time on the coast of Nova Scotia, the Marquis was compelled by stress of weather to return to France, leaving on Sable Isle the forty unfortunate convicts who had been landed there. Seven years after, twelve only were found alive, in a most wretched and emaciated state, by

Chetodol, the pilot of the Marquis de la Roche, whom the French king sent to bring them back to France.

Acadia was the name given to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and part of the State of Maine by the French, and the most vigorous essay on their part for its settlement was made in 1604 by a private gentleman, named De Monts, who obtained from Henry IV. the dominion of the colony and the monopoly of the fur trade throughout its whole extent. An account of his expedition has already been given in the history of Canada. The little colony formed at Port Royal, now Annapolis, was taken possession of in 1614 by the English governor and colonists of Virginia, who claimed the country by right of the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, and considered the French colonists of De Monts as encroachers or intruders on the charter granted to the Plymouth Company, in 1606, which extended to 45° of N. lat.; the right of occupancy being then considered invalid, and the doctrine admitted that in the first instance

“All a man sailed by or saw was his own.”

Eight years elapsed after the destruction of the French settlements in Port Royal and other parts of Acadia before the English began to think of establishing themselves on the peninsula. In 1621 Sir William Alexander applied for and obtained from James I. a grant of the extensive country, lying on the E. side of a line drawn in a northern direction from the river St. Croix to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which was named in the patent *Nova Scotia*.

About a year after the sealing of this grant, Sir William Alexander despatched a number of emigrants to take possession of the country, who, after wintering at New foundland, arrived in the spring of 1623 at Nova Scotia, which they found occupied by the survivors of the French settlers who had remained after the destruction of Port

Royal, to whom were added emigrants from the St. Lawrence and France; under these circumstances the adventurers thought it prudent to return to England, where they published most flattering reports of the beauty, fertility, and salubrity of the region they had so unsuccessfully visited. In 1625 Charles I. confirmed his father's grant to Sir William Alexander, and created the order of Knights Baronets of Nova Scotia, whose members were to contribute their aid to the settlement. Their number was not to exceed 150; they were each to hold jurisdiction over a tract extending three miles along the coast, and ten towards the interior, and to receive in full property 16,000 acres of land. In return, each was bound to fit out six men for the colony, or to pay 2,000 merks. Pre-eminence was to be given them over all knights called *equites aurati*, but none of them were to be baronets of Nova Scotia, or of Scotland, till they had fulfilled the conditions prescribed by his majesty, and obtained a certificate of performance from the governor of the colony. The patents were ratified in parliament.

On the war breaking out between England and France, efforts were made by Sir William Alexander and his friends to drive the French from Nova Scotia, and in 1628, a squadron under Kirtek, the famous French refugee, reduced the forts of Port Royal, St. Croix, and Pentagort; but the French settlement of Cape Sable still held out, nor did the English obtain complete possession of the country. Sir William at length, wearied by the unsatisfactory results of his endeavours, and the heavy expenses attendant on them, conveyed a large section of his territory to Claude de la Tour, a French protestant, who, having been taken prisoner by Kirtek, and sent to England, had been there induced to second Sir William's views by introducing a party of Scotch emigrants into Cape Sable; in this attempt and other subsequent ones he was unsuccessful, in consequence of the determined opposition of his son, who held the fort during his absence. In 1632 Charles I. surrendered Nova Scotia (as before mentioned) to Louis XIII., who immediately took possession of it. At the close of the civil war in England, Oliver Cromwell, who contributed so much to raise the glory of the British name, sent out Major Sedgewick with an armed force, and Nova Scotia again fell into the possession of the English. Only Port Royal, however, was retained by Sedgewick's troops; and

French settlers were suffered to establish themselves in different parts of the country. The son and heir of Claude de la Tour made his submission to the English, and in conjunction with Thomas (afterwards Sir Thomas) Temple and William Crowne, petitioned Cromwell for a grant of the principal part of what now composes Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, in right of the transfer made by Sir William Alexander. This suit was successful. William Crowne Temple purchased La Tour's share, re-established the different settlements, and expended £16,000 in repairing the fortifications; but when the colony was emerging from distress and obscurity, it was ceded to France by the treaty of Breda in 1667.

For the following 20 years the colony enjoyed repose, and some progress was made in establishing fisheries, and extending the fur trade, but upon the renewal of hostilities in 1689, it was still deficient in means of defence, and Port Royal was easily taken by Sir William Phipps, with a squadron from Massachusetts. Phipps, after dismantling the fortress, and burning some other places, quitted the colony, without leaving any garrison behind him. The French, of course, resumed the government, although the English retained a nominal possession, sometimes fighting for a district, at others ravaging the French settlements; until, by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697, the colony was once more restored to, or rather left unmolested under the dominion of France. This peaceful state of things was soon disturbed by the war of the Spanish succession in 1702, and preparations were made for the total subjugation of Nova Scotia to the British arms, with a distinct assurance on the part of the crown, that if again conquered it should not be restored to France.

The first expedition, which consisted of 550 men, was despatched under colonel Church, and 3 years afterwards a force of 1,000 soldiers was sent to complete the conquest of the country; but the ability and energy of Subercase, the French commander, obliged the assailants *twice* to raise the siege of Port Royal with considerable loss.

The New Englanders instead of being disheartened, seem rather to have been stimulated by these failures to more vigorous exertion. After two years of strenuous effort, with the aid of the British government, an armament sailed from Boston Bay

on the 18th September, 1710, under the command of general Nicholson, and arrived at Port Royal on the 24th. Subercase having a garrison of only 260 men, surrendered after a short siege, and obtained an honourable capitulation, which was signed on the 2nd October, and is memorable as the commencement of the permanent annexation of Nova Scotia to the British Crown. In compliance with the terms of this deed, the French troops and governor were removed from the colony; the name of Port Royal was changed to Annapolis in honour of Queen Anne, colonel Vetch was appointed governor, and a council formed of the principal inhabitants, for the management of the civil affairs of the province. The French court became sensible of the extent of their loss, and anxious to re-conquer Port Royal; but the state of affairs in Europe prevented their sending any considerable expedition for that purpose. Offers were made on the part of the king of France, to the merchants of Rochelle, and promises of profit and reward held out, on condition of their forming an association sufficiently powerful to drive the English from the country; similar applications were ineffectually made to the most opulent traders at St. Malo, Nantes, and Bayonne, but no one appeared willing to take charge of the expedition, or to incur the heavy expenses it would necessitate. Vaudreuil, the governor of Canada, was urged to attempt the recovery of Port Royal; but, although fully sensible of its importance, he was deterred by the threatened invasion of his own country. He appointed Baron Castine to the chief command in Nova Scotia, with instructions to foster the hostile feelings of the French settlers towards the English; and he wrote to the priests, urging them to redouble their zeal in retaining the affections of their Indian proselytes. His instructions were fully carried out, and resulted in the renewal of hostilities, in the midst of which peace was concluded between France and England, on the 11th April, 1713.

By the 12th article of this treaty, known as the peace of Utrecht, all Nova Scotia, with its ancient boundaries, as also the city of Port Royal, and the inhabitants of the same, were ceded to Great Britain, "in such ample manner and form, that the subjects of the most Christian king shall be hereafter excluded from all kinds of fishing in the said seas, bays, and other places on the coast of Nova Scotia, that is to say, on

those which lie towards the E., within 30 leagues, beginning from the island commonly called Sable, inclusively, and thence stretching along towards the S.W."

In 1714 general Nicholson arrived as governor, and proposed to the Acadians either to become subjects of the crown of Great Britain, and retain their possessions, with the free enjoyment of their religion as far as was compatible with the laws of England, or to leave the country within a year. The people showed themselves equally reluctant to accept either alternative; the governor having orders not to use harsh measures towards them, knew not how to act, and the prescribed time having elapsed, they were suffered to remain, although they constantly refused to take the oath of allegiance. In 1719 colonel Phillips succeeded to the governorship, and, at length, a large proportion were with difficulty prevailed upon to take the oath. Although no express reservation was made in it, exempting them from bearing arms against the French, yet, there is reason to believe that a promise of not being required to do so was given them, and they were consequently known among the other colonies as the neutral French.

The male population capable of bearing arms, amounted at this period to about 4,000 men; of these from 1,200 to 1,300 were settled in the capital and its neighbourhood, and the rest were dispersed on the several rivers of the province. Neither rents nor taxes were exacted from them, and they were allowed to continue their trade with France and her dependencies. Meanwhile, the Indians, on being informed that they and their lands had been transferred from the French to the English crown, appealed to Vaudreuil, who informed them, that no mention was made either of them or their lands in the treaty of Utrecht, and, although there could be no doubt as to the real meaning of both parties in forming that treaty, he, nevertheless, affected to consider the Indians as an independent people, and maintained among them an interest separate from the English, who vainly endeavoured to keep on friendly terms with them. In 1720 a numerous party of Indians plundered a large fishing establishment, which had been erected by the English at Canseau, and was much frequented during the summer by traders from Massachusetts, carrying off fish and merchandise to the value of £20,000; and

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in 1723 they captured at the same place, 17 sail of fishing vessels, with numerous prisoners, 9 of whom they put to death with deliberate cruelty: 7 of these vessels were afterwards retaken with 15 captives, and 1,500 quintals of fish, but not without a severe contest with the Indians, who lost about 30 men on board the several prizes. They shortly afterwards attacked the garrison at Annapolis, burned 2 houses near the fort, killed and scalped a sergeant and a private, and took several prisoners.

The Indians of the western portion of Nova Scotia were a part of the great Abenaki nation, and the whole of these people acknowledged the Baron Castine, a son of the old baron (named in the history of Canada p. 6), by an Indian woman, as their chief sachem or leader. Previous to the affray at Annapolis, Castine had been captured and imprisoned at Boston, but had been released, partly from a dread of exasperating the Indians beyond all hope of reconciliation, and partly from a difficulty of considering him a traitor who had never acknowledged himself a subject. The continued hostilities of the Indians at length obliged the English colonists to solicit the aid of Massachusetts, from whence an expedition, consisting of about 200 men, was sent in 1724 against Norridgewoack, the chief Indian fort on the Kenebec, where they surprised the enemy, defeated them with great slaughter, and put to death le Pere Rallé, a catholic missionary, who had lived among them 40 years. Judge Haliburton, the talented historian of his native land, gives a most interesting account of Rallé, whose death is stated by Charlevoix to have been accompanied by circumstances of extreme cruelty, whereas Hutchinson declares he was killed by the English in self-defence, when firing upon them, and refusing either to give or take quarter. Castine, who had previously gone to France to take possession of his paternal estate, determined on not returning to the country, and as the destruction of Norridgewoack was followed by decided measures, the savages were for a time overawed.

In 1744 war recommenced between France and England. De Quesnel, governor of Cape Breton, immediately fitted out expeditions, which took Canseau, and twice laid siege ineffectually to Annapolis. De Quesnel was tempted to these proceedings by his knowledge of the unprepared state of the English garrisons, but he acted in dis-

obedience to his instructions, the French government having desired him not to attempt the capture of any post in Nova Scotia until further orders; under the well-grounded apprehension that, as Louisburg was also insufficiently garrisoned, the English colonists might retaliate by attempting the reduction of that important place, which being well situated for fishing, had been fortified by the French at an expense of £1,200,000, with a view to make it the bulwark of their possessions in North America.

It was surrounded by a stone wall two miles and a half in circuit, and by a ditch 80 feet wide. Shirley, governor of New England, proposed to attack it, and preparations were made with great energy for the dangerous enterprise, the enthusiasm of the troops (consisting solely of militia and volunteers) being increased by the preaching of Mr. Whitfield, the famous dissenting minister, who furnished a motto, while a chaplain carried on his shoulder a hatchet to demolish images. Massachusetts contributed 3,200 men, Connecticut 500, and New Hampshire 300, who embarked in a number of small vessels, and arrived in April, 1745, at Canseau. Here they were joined by commodore Warren with the fleet from the West India station, and on the 30th April they came in view of Louisburg, and being wholly unexpected, succeeded in easily effecting a landing. Their worst labour was in getting their cannon on shore, and for a fortnight they sustained the toil and danger of drawing it through a morass, where they were up to their knees in mud, and exposed to the enemy's fire. The batteries were not completed until the end of May, and the place was so strong that the besiegers were five times repulsed, and might eventually have been compelled to raise the siege, but for the capture of the *Vigilant*, a line-of-battle ship containing 560 men and supplies, upon which Duchambon the governor, whose works were considerably damaged, and his garrison disposed to mutiny, capitulated on the 18th June.

The reduction of the island of St. John (now Prince Edward), soon followed, and by hoisting the French flag on the captured forts, two East Indianmen and a South Sea ship, whose cargoes were valued at £600,000, were decoyed into them. The news of these events created a powerful effect on the conduct of both the English and French governments. The French were greatly alarmed, and determined to seek

without delay the recovery of Cape Breton, and the conquest of Nova Scotia. They accordingly fitted out a squadron composed of 70 sail, of which 11 were ships of the line, 20 frigates, 5 ships and bombs, and the rest tenders and transports, having on board 8,150 disciplined troops. The fleet sailed from Brest early in the summer of 1746, under the command of the Duke D'Anville, an officer of great ability and experience, and passed unnoticed a squadron under admiral Martin, which had been dispatched by the English to watch its motions.

Admiral Listocq left Portsmouth in pursuit of it, but was several times driven back by contrary winds; and being compelled to abandon all hopes of overtaking the French armament, the colonies were left to their own defences. The good fortune of the duke, however, did not continue—his passage was perilous and protracted beyond example, and on reaching Chebucto (now Halifax) 4 ships of the line were so shattered as to be obliged to return to Europe, while 3 sent under admiral Confans to the West Indies, had touched at the point of rendezvous; but not finding the fleet, had also set sail homewards. D'Anville, cruelly mortified by these disappointments, died suddenly on the fourth day after his arrival. In the afternoon of the same day vice-admiral Distournelle, with 3 or 4 ships of the line, rejoined the squadron, and, in a council of war, proposed returning to France, but was strenuously opposed by Monsieur de la Jonquière, governor of Canada, who maintained that their condition fully justified them in making an attempt upon Annapolis, and his opinion was maintained by the majority.

The vice-admiral was thrown, by harass and anxiety, into a fever; and becoming delirious, he imagined himself a prisoner, and ran himself through the body. La Jonquière assumed the command, and proceeded against Annapolis. In rounding Cape Sable they encountered a fearful storm, by which they were so much dispersed and weakened that they turned back and steered for Europe. The complete failure of this mighty armament was looked upon by the English colonists as a special interposition of Providence, and celebrated by a general thanksgiving. Still the French persevered. De la Jonquière, having returned to France with the remnant of the Duke D'Anville's fleet, was immediately sent to Nova Scotia with 38 sail; but the English admirals Anson

and Warren having started in pursuit of them, a well contested battle took place on the 8th of May, 1747, which ended in a complete victory on the part of the English, who captured a French man-of-war, 4,000 or 5,000 prisoners, and 6 richly laden Indiamen, which were under the convoy of the French fleet.

By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, peace was concluded between France and England; and the English colonists, by the articles of this peace, were compelled to surrender Cape Breton and Louisburg, which they had obtained with so much skill and bravery, the British ministry having consented to restore them to France on condition of the Low Countries being yielded to their ally, the empress-queen of Hungary, to maintain the balance of power in Europe. Meanwhile Britain had become aware of the importance of Nova Scotia; and the peace having left a great many military out of employment, the idea was formed of settling the disbanded troops in this part of America. This project was warmly taken up by the Earl of Halifax, then President of the Board of Trade and Plantations. Fifty acres were apportioned to every private, with 10 additional for each member of his family; a higher allowance was granted to officers in proportion to their rank, till it amounted to 600 for all above the rank of captain. Land was also offered to civil settlers according to their means, with the advantage of being conveyed with their families to the colony, maintained there one year after their arrival, supplied with arms and ammunition for their defence, and with the necessary materials for clearing their land, erecting houses, and prosecuting the fishery, all at the expense of the British government. Thus encouraged, 3,760 adventurers embarked with their families, in May, 1749, and landed at Chebucto harbour, under the command of the honourable Edward Cornwallis, who had been appointed governor, and whose energy and perseverance contributed greatly to the speedy establishment of the town of Halifax.

The Imperial Parliament continued to support the colony by annual grants, which in 1755 amounted to £415,584 (see Haliburton, p. 142).

In spite of their numerous advantages and military habits, the English suffered greatly from the desultory warfare carried on against them by the Indians, who, though they at first made some friendly overtures

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were soon induced by their old allies to renew a system of avowed hostility. Disputes with the French concerning the boundary line, formed another fruitful source of annoyance, the French government taking advantage of an ambiguity in the wording of the treaties of cession, and contending that the British dominion extended only over the peninsula separated from the continent, by the Bays of Fundy and Chignecto; while the English maintained that their limits reached from the St. Croix to the St. Lawrence, and consequently included the fine country now called New Brunswick. The French settlers under the name of neutrals proved themselves deserving of a very different appellation, and instigated by the crafty and inexcusable policy pursued by the French court, they, aided by the Indians, kept the British in constant alarm, till, in April, 1755, the war recommenced by admiral Boscawen's capturing several French vessels on the coast of Newfoundland. Two months after lieutenant-colonel Monckton, at the head of a force which had been rapidly formed in New York, erected a fort named Beau Sejour, recently erected by the French on the narrow isthmus which connects Nova Scotia with New Brunswick, and after four days' bombardment, obliged it to surrender. The following day Monckton attacked and reduced another stronghold, situated upon the river Gaspercaux, which runs into Bay Vert, and took possession of a large quantity of provisions and stores of all kinds which he found there. Meanwhile captain Rowe, with his ships, sailed to the mouth of the river St. John, but they found the French had abandoned their post after destroying, as far as they had time, all the fortifications they had lately raised. The success of this expedition was so decided as to secure the temporary cessation of hostilities, but the local government were at a loss to know what course to pursue with regard to the Acadians, as the French settlers were called, whose numbers amounted to 17,000 or 18,000, and who, there was reason to fear, would assist the French, should they attempt the invasion of the colony. The course of action the authorities at length decided upon cannot be justified even by the extremely difficult position in which they were placed. They assembled the Acadians in their respective settlements, under the pretence of making some communications relative to their welfare, and then, without previous notice, forced them on board several vessels

provided for the purpose, and dispersed them through New England, New York, and Virginia. The details of these arbitrary proceedings are fully given by Judge Haliburton in his *History of Nova Scotia*, and fully and feelingly commented upon; but it is not necessary here to enter into the particulars of this painful subject. Suffice it to quote Haliburton's concluding sentence. "If the Acadians had to lament that they were condemned unheard, that their accusers were also their judges, and that their sentence was disproportioned to their offence; they had also much reason to attribute their misfortunes to the intrigues of their countrymen in Canada, who seduced them from their allegiance to a government which was disposed to extend to them its protection and regard, and instigated them to a rebellion, which it was easy to foresee would end in their ruin." Many of these expelled and deported settlers, however, returned after the peace of 1763, and established themselves in and about the townships of Clare, Yarmouth, and Argyle, where their descendants now form a large industrious and useful part of the population.

In 1758 a constitution was granted to Nova Scotia, consisting of a House of Assembly, a Legislative Council, and a governor representing the British crown; and numerous New England immigrants settled on the vacant lands of the unfortunate Acadians. The capture of Louisburg, in Cape Breton, from the French, in 1758, gave additional security to the colony, which now began to improve.

In 1761, the Indians for the first time entered into a formal treaty, to "bury the hatchet," and accept George III., instead of the king formerly owned by them, as their Great Father and friend. On the accession of George IV. to the crown of Great Britain, and the consequent election of a new House of Assembly, the number of representatives was increased to 24, namely 2 for each of the counties of Halifax, Lunenburg, Annapolis, and King's, 4 for Halifax township, and 2 for each of the townships of Lunenburg, Annapolis, Horton, Cornwallis, Falmouth, and Liverpool. By the treaty of Paris in 1762, France resigned all claims to any of her former possessions in this part of the North American continent. In this year the township of Londonderry was settled by Irish emigrants, and that of Horton by New Englanders.

In 1784 New Brunswick and Cape Breton

were separated into two distinct governments, but the latter was subsequently (in 1819) united to Nova Scotia. Its history and description will be given in a separate chapter.

In 1787 his majesty erected the province of Nova Scotia into a bishop's see, and appointed Charles English the first bishop. The arrival in the colony on the 29th of October, 1787, of his royal highness Prince William Henry (subsequently King William IV.), gave occasion for much rejoicing. In 1798 a dreadful storm and gale of wind at Halifax, destroyed shipping, wharfs, and other property, of the value of £100,000. On the 18th May, 1799, the appointment of his royal highness the Duke of Kent as commander-in-chief of the British forces in British North America was announced, and on the 12th September, the province voted an address to his royal highness, who on the 5th February, 1801, in a public despatch, urged the formation of a road between Halifax and Quebec. From this period to 1839 there were no leading events worthy of record. The colonists distinguished themselves by loyalty and industry; during the American war they raised a militia for their own defence, and during the French revolutionary war they cheerfully contributed their mite towards enabling England to subdue the anarchists of France.

Mr. Murdoch remarks in his *Life of Lord Sydenham* (p. 174), that "in Nova Scotia, as in Upper Canada, the population had gradually outgrown the monopoly of power in the hands of a few large families, which seems to be the almost necessary condition of colonies in their infant state. There, as in Upper Canada, the popular branch of the legislature chafing against the passive resistance of the executive, had addressed the crown in language which, under a better system, would probably never have been heard. They had asked for the removal of their governor, and had not obscurely hinted at the stoppage of supplies." On the arrival of the Earl of Durham in Canada as her majesty's high commissioner and governor-general in 1838, a deputation, consisting of Mr. Johnston, solicitor-general, Mr. Uniacke, a member of the Executive Council, Mr. Young, member of the House of Assembly, and Mr. Almon, banker and merchant, were sent from Halifax to Quebec by the then lieutenant-governor, Sir Colin Campbell, to confer with the Earl of Durham on the affairs of the colony.

These deputies, in conjunction with their

colleagues from New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, expressed in an address to Lord Durham, dated Quebec, 22nd September, 1838, their gratification at the warm interest which the governor-general took in the welfare of the colony which they represented, and their admiration of the enlightened and comprehensive views of his lordship. The Earl of Durham, in his despatch to Lord Glenelg, of 13th September, 1838, stated his belief that the deputies from Halifax and Prince Edward Island, were all "impressed with the necessity of a general union of the provinces, as the most likely measure to preserve their connexion with the British crown;" and as her majesty's high commissioner, his lordship stated in his report to the queen, that he knew "of but one difficulty in the way of such an union, and that arises from the disinclination which some of the lower provinces might feel to the transference of powers from their present legislatures to that of the union;"—an objection which he supposed would arise principally from the local legislatures not liking to give up the immediate control which they possessed over their respective colonial revenues. The proposition was supported in 1814 by the late Duke of Kent—(see *History of Canada*, p. 32),—was under the consideration of the Earl of Durham in 1838, and is now a prominent topic of discussion in British America. An association of delegates, calling itself the "British-American League," has been holding meetings at Kingston, in Western Canada, and after sitting as a convention for six days, it issued, on 31st July, 1849, a long address to all the subjects of the British crown in North America. In this address there is no discussion respecting separation from Britain; the convention, consisting of a president, six vice-presidents, two secretaries, a treasurer, and an executive committee of ten, direct all the attention of their "fellow-countrymen" to three points, viz.: "a union of all the British-American provinces;" "retrenchment and economy in the public expenditure;" and "a protection to home industry." It is declared in the "address," that by a federal union of Nova Scotia and the other North American colonies with Canada, the foundations would be laid for "making the country a great nation on a solid and enduring basis. Impressed with the weight of such a measure, but uncertain as to the sentiments of the sister colonies, this convention has pro-

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posed a conference with those provinces by a delegation of some of its members. Meanwhile it recommends this great question to mature deliberation. The American correspondent of the *London Times* observes, (16th August, 1849) on this subject,—“An union of all the North American provinces has been much talked of, but as this would place the French party in a minority, it would of course, meet every opposition from them.”

The topic is now under consideration in Nova Scotia. It is not within the scope of this work to express any party view of the advantages or disadvantages which might or might not result from such a contemplated union. The Earl of Durham, in his report to the queen, on 31st of January, 1839, expresses fully his opinions on the matter; and as it is one deserving of great consideration, not only by all the North American Colonies, but also by the Imperial Parliament, by her majesty's government, by merchants, and other persons having commercial, pecuniary, or personal relations with British America, I give the following interesting and comprehensive view of the question from the report of his lordship:

“While I convince myself that such desirable ends would be secured by the legislative union of the two provinces (Eastern and Western, or Upper and Lower Canada), I am inclined to go further, and inquire whether all these objects would not more surely be attained, by extending this legislative union over all the British provinces in North America; and whether the advantages which I anticipate for two of them, might not, and should not in justice be extended over all. Such an union would at once decisively settle the question of races; it would enable all the provinces to co-operate for all common purposes; and, above all, it would form a great and powerful people, possessing the means of securing good and responsible government for itself, and which, under the protection of the British empire, might in some measure counterbalance the preponderant and increasing influence of the United States on the American continent. I do not anticipate that a colonial legislature thus strong and self-governing, would desire to abandon the connection with Great Britain. On the contrary, I believe that the practical relief from undue interference, which would be the result of such a change, would strengthen the present bond of feelings and interests; and that the connection would only become more durable and advantageous, by having more of equality, of freedom, and of local independence. But at any rate, our first duty is to secure the well-being of our colonial countrymen; and if in the hidden decrees of that wisdom by which this world is ruled, it is written, that these countries are not for ever to remain portions of the empire, we owe it to our honour to take good care, that, when they separate from us, they should not be the only countries on the American continent in which the Anglo-Saxon race shall be found unfit to govern itself.

“I am in truth, so far from believing that the increased power and weight that would be given to these colonies by union would endanger their connection with the empire, that I look to it as the only means of fostering such a national feeling throughout them as would effectually counterbalance whatever tendencies may now exist towards separation. No large community of free and intelligent men will long feel contented with a political system which places them, because it places their country in a position of inferiority to their neighbours. The colonist of Great Britain is linked, it is true, to a mighty empire; and the glories of its history, the visible signs of its present power, and the civilization of its people, are calculated to raise and gratify his national pride. But he feels, also, that his link to that empire is one of remote dependence; he catches but passing and inadequate glimpses of its power and prosperity; he knows that in its government he and his own countrymen have no voice. While his neighbour on the other side of the frontier assumes importance from the notion that his vote exercises some influence on the councils, and that he himself has some share in the onward progress of a mighty nation, the colonist feels the deadening influence of the narrow and subordinate community to which he belongs. In his own and in the surrounding colonies, he finds petty objects occupying petty, stationary, and divided societies; and it is only when the chances of an uncertain and tardy communication bring intelligence of what has passed a month before on the other side of the Atlantic that he is reminded of the empire with which he is connected. But the influence of the United States surrounds him on every side, and is for ever present. It extends itself as population augments and intercourse increases; it penetrates every portion of the continent into which the restless spirit of American speculation impels the settler or the trader; it is felt in all the transactions of commerce, from the important operations of the monetary system down to the minor details of ordinary traffic; it stamps, on all the habits and opinions of the surrounding countries, the common characteristics of the thoughts, feelings, and customs of the American people. Such is necessarily the influence which a great nation exercises on the small communities which surround it. Its thoughts and manners subjugate them, even when nominally independent of its authority. If we wish to prevent the extension of this influence, it can only be done by raising up for the North American colonist some nationality of his own; by elevating these small and unimportant communities into a society having some objects of a national importance; and by thus giving their inhabitants a country which they will be unwilling to see absorbed even into one more powerful.

“While I believe that the establishment of a comprehensive system of government, and of an effectual union between the different provinces, would produce this important effect on the general feelings of their inhabitants, I am inclined to attach very great importance to the influence which it would have in giving greater scope and satisfaction to the legitimate ambition of the most active and prominent persons to be found in them. As long as personal ambition is inherent in human nature, and as long as the morality of every free and civilized community encourages its aspirations, it is one great business of a wise government to provide for its legitimate development. If, as it is commonly asserted, the disorders of these Colonies have, in great measure

been fomented by the influence of designing and ambitious individuals, this evil will best be remedied by allowing such a scope for the desires of such men as shall direct their ambition into the legitimate chance of furthering, and not of thwarting, their government. By creating high prizes in a general and responsible government, we shall immediately afford the means of pacifying the turbulent ambitions, and of employing in worthy and noble occupations the talents which now are only exerted to foment disorder. We must remove from these Colonies the cause to which the sagacity of Adam Smith traced the alienation of the provinces which now form the United States: we must provide some scope for what he calls 'the importance' of the leading men in the colony, beyond what he forcibly terms the present 'petty prizes of the paltry raffle of colonial faction.' A general legislative union would elevate and gratify the hopes of able and aspiring men. They would no longer look with envy and wonder at the great arena of the bordering federation, but see the means of satisfying every legitimate ambition in the high offices of the judicature and executive government of their own union.

"Nor would an union of the various provinces be less advantageous in facilitating a co-operation for various common purposes, of which the want is now very seriously felt. There is hardly a department of the business of government which does not require, or would not be better performed, by being carried on under the superintendence of a general government; and when we consider the political and commercial interests that are common to these provinces, it appears difficult to account for their having ever been divided into separate governments, since they have all been portions of the same empire, subject to the same crown, governed by nearly the same laws and constitutional customs, inhabited, with one exception, by the same race, contiguous and immediately adjacent to each other, and bounded along their whole frontier by the territories of the same powerful and rival state. It would appear that every motive that has induced the union of various provinces into a single state, exists for the consolidation of these colonies under a common legislature and executive. They have the same common relation to the mother country; the same relation to foreign nations. When one is at war, the others are at war; and the hostilities that are caused by an attack on one, must seriously compromise the welfare of the rest. Thus the dispute between Great Britain and the State of Maine, appears immediately to involve the interests of none of these colonies, except New Brunswick or Lower Canada, to one of which the territory claimed by us must belong. But if a war were to commence on this ground, it is most probable that the American government would select Upper Canada as the most vulnerable, or, at any rate, as the easiest point of attack. A dispute respecting the fisheries of Nova Scotia would involve precisely the same consequences. An union for common defence against foreign enemies is the natural bond of connection that holds together the great communities of the world; and between no parts of any kingdom or state is the necessity for such an union more obvious than between the whole of these colonies.

"Their internal relations furnish quite as strong motives for union. The Post-office is at the present moment under the management of the same imperial establishment. If, in compliance with the reasonable demands of the Colonies, the regulation of a matter

so entirely of internal concern, and the revenue derived from it, were placed under the control of the provincial legislatures, it would still be advisable that the management of the Post-office throughout the whole of British North America should be conducted by one general establishment. In the same way, so great is the influence on the other provinces of the arrangements adopted with respect to the disposal of public lands and colonisation in any one, that it is absolutely essential that this department of government should be conducted on one system, and by one authority. The necessity of common fiscal regulations is strongly felt by all the colonies; and a common custom-house establishment would relieve them from the hindrances to their trade, caused by the duties now levied on all commercial intercourse between them. The monetary and banking system of all is subject to the same influences, and ought to be regulated by the same laws. The establishment of a common colonial currency is very generally desired. Indeed, I know of no department of government that would not greatly gain, both in economy and efficiency, by being placed under a common management. I should not propose, at first, to alter the existing public establishments of the different provinces, because the necessary changes had better be left to be made by the united government; and the judicial establishments should certainly not be disturbed until the future legislature shall provide for their reconstruction on an uniform and permanent footing. But even in the administration of justice, an union would immediately supply a remedy for one of the most serious wants under which all the provinces labour, by facilitating the formation of a general appellate tribunal for all the North American colonies.

"But the interests which are already in common between all these provinces are small in comparison with those which the consequences of such an union might, and I think I may say assuredly would, call into existence; and the great discoveries of modern art, which have, throughout the world, and nowhere more than in America, entirely altered the character and the channels of communication between distant countries, will bring all the North American colonies into constant and speedy intercourse with each other. The success of the great experiment of steam navigation across the Atlantic, opens a prospect of a speedy communication with Europe, which will materially affect the future state of all these provinces. In a despatch which arrived in Canada after my departure, the Secretary of State informed me of the determination of your Majesty's government to establish a steam communication between Great Britain and Halifax; and instructed me to turn my attention to the formation of a road between that port and Quebec. It would, indeed, have given me sincere satisfaction, had I remained in the province, to promote, by any means in my power, so highly desirable an object; and the removal of the usual restrictions on my authority as governor-general, having given me the means of effectually acting in concert with the various provincial governments, I might have been able to make some progress in the work. But I cannot point out more strikingly the evils of the present want of a general government for these provinces, than by adverting to the difficulty which would practically occur, under the previous and present arrangements of both executive and legislative authorities in the various provinces, in attempting to carry such a plan into effect. For the various colonies have no more

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means of concerting such common works with each other, than with the neighbouring states of the union. They stand to one another in the position of foreign states, and of foreign states without diplomatic relations. The governors may correspond with each other: the legislatures may enact laws, carrying the common purposes into effect in their respective jurisdictions; but there is no means by which the various details may speedily and satisfactorily be settled with the concurrence of the different parties. And, in this instance, it must be recollected that the communication and the final settlement would have to be made between, not two, but several of the provinces. The road would run through three of them; and Upper Canada, into which it would not enter, would, in fact, be more interested in the completion of such a work than any even of the provinces through which it would pass. The colonies, indeed, have no common centre in which the arrangement could be made, except in the Colonial Office at home; and the details of such a plan would have to be discussed just where the interests of all parties would have the least means of being fairly and fully represented, and where the minute local knowledge necessary for such a matter would be least likely to be found.

"The completion of any satisfactory communication between Halifax and Quebec, would, in fact, produce relations between these provinces, that would render a general union absolutely necessary.

"With respect to the two small colonies of Prince Edward's Island and Newfoundland, I am of opinion, that not only would most of the reasons which I have given for an union of the others, apply to them, but that their smallness makes it absolutely necessary, as the only means of securing any proper attention to their interests, and investing them with that consideration, the deficiency of which they have so much reason to lament in all the disputes which yearly occur between them and the citizens of the United States, with regard to the encroachments made by the latter on their coasts and fisheries."

When her majesty's government sent Mr. P. Thomson, in 1840, to effect an union between the two Canadas, he was instructed to ascertain the state of affairs in Nova Scotia, and a full discretion was left to him as governor-general, respecting any measures he might recommend. The circular letter of Lord John Russell, of 16th October, 1839 (see History of Canada, p. 38), relating to the tenure of offices during the pleasure of the crown, was communicated by the lieutenant-governor, sir Colin Campbell, to the Nova Scotia House of Assembly, and eagerly hailed as a recognition of their claims for responsible government, and as imposing henceforth on the lieutenant-governor the obligation of dismissing or remodelling his council whenever it ceased to enjoy the confidence of the representatives of the people. The House of Assembly, therefore, on 5th February, 1840, by a majority of 30 to 12, passed a series of resolutions, and forwarded them to the lieutenant-governor, who declined to adopt a policy which he considered

would be a fundamental change in the colonial constitution. The following is a copy of the address of the House of Assembly:—

"To his Excellency Lieutenant-General Sir Colin Campbell, Lieutenant-Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over Her Majesty's province of Nova Scotia and its dependencies, &c. &c. &c.

"The humble Address of the House of Representatives in General Assembly.

"May it please your Excellency,

"We, Her Majesty's dutiful and loyal subjects, the representatives of Her Majesty's loyal people of Nova Scotia, having, under a solemn sense of duty, passed the annexed resolutions, beg leave to recommend them to your Excellency's favourable consideration.

"In the House of Assembly, 5th February, 1840.

"Mr. Clements, the Chairman of the Committee of the whole house on the general state of the province, reported the following resolutions:—

"Resolved,—1. That it is the opinion of the Committee that for many years the best interests of the province have been jeopardized, and the progress retarded, by the want of harmony between the different branches of the Government; and the absence of that cordial co-operation between the representatives of the people and those who conducted the local administration, which, in the view of this Committee, is highly desirable, if not indispensable, in every British colony to which a constitution modelled after that of the mother country has been granted by the Crown.

"Resolved,—2. That it is the opinion of this Committee that in the course of the struggle which since 1837 the House of Assembly has maintained, with a view to reduce the expenses, improve the institutions, and purify the administration of the country, it has been met at every step by an influence which, while it was beyond the control of the Assembly, has wielded the whole power and patronage of the government to baffle its efforts, and thwart the wise and benevolent policy evoked by Her Majesty's ministers.

"Resolved,—3. That it is the opinion of this Committee that in approaching many of the important questions to be disposed of in the present session, the House of Assembly feels embarrassment and difficulty which it would be unwise to conceal either from the Government or the country at large; and that it can anticipate no satisfactory settlement of those questions until the Executive Council is so remodelled as to secure to the House of Assembly the aid of the local Administration in carrying out the views of the Assembly, and in facilitating any negotiation which it may be necessary to conduct with Her Majesty's Government.

"Resolved, therefore, 4. That it is the opinion of the Committee that the House of Assembly, after mature and calm deliberation, weary of seeing the revenues of the country and the time of its representatives wasted, the people of Nova Scotia misrepresented to the Sovereign, and the gracious boons of the Sovereign marred in the transmission to the people, do now solemnly declare that the Executive Council, as at present constituted, does not enjoy the confidence of the Commons."

On the 9th of July, 1840, the governor-general arrived from Quebec at Halifax, and in obedience to the commands of the queen, temporarily assumed the government

of the colony; of which the lieutenant-governorship was in the hands of Sir Colin Campbell.

On the 27th of July, the governor-general recommended to Lord John Russell, then her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies certain changes in the Legislative and Executive Councils of the province; he considered that the Executive Council was composed in a way which, whilst it created dissatisfaction, afforded the government no assistance or strength whatsoever; that the queen did not derive from her officers that aid in the management of public affairs in the legislature, which was absolutely indispensable for them in the management of a colony, and that as a necessary result the government did not and could not perform one of its first duties, namely, to propose and submit to the colonial legislature, with the full weight of its authority, whatever measures might appear requisite for the good government of the province, the very consideration of which would divert the minds of active and ambitious men from the agitation of abstract points of government. The principle recommended by the governor-general, was that the Executive Council should comprise only the leading official servants of the government, and a few of the most influential members of the Legislative Council, and of the House of Assembly, but especially of the latter. Next, that the law officers of the crown, and any other public servants whose services it might be desirable to obtain, should be required, when necessary, to become members of the House of Assembly, as well as of the Executive Council, in order to afford their assistance there; and that their whole undivided time and talents should be at the disposal of government. In the Legislative Council it was proposed to make additions from the popular party in order to remove the imputation of an exclusive character; and by such modifications it was hoped to bring the Executive and Legislative Councils into more harmony with the general opinions of the House of Assembly, or popular branch of the legislature. By direction of Lord John Russell these reforms were carried into effect, under the administration of Lord Falkland, who had been ap-

pointed to succeed Sir C. Campbell; since that time the province has been free from internal dissension, and although such changes were opposed by some, they have undoubtedly been satisfactory to the great majority of the colonists, and by a prompt compliance with reasonable requests, disturbances which no subsequent concessions would have been sufficient to allay, have been avoided. Viscount Falkland received great credit for the judicious manner in which he effected the important change in the colonial government. Lord Sydenham (Mr. P. Thompson), in a letter dated Montreal, 12th of May, 1841, to Lord Falkland (who is now governor of Bombay), says,—“I have watched your proceedings with great anxiety, and am much gratified at the result. I think it in the highest degree creditable to your tact and judgment. I enter completely into the difficulties of which you speak, in carrying out improvements notwithstanding your *governmental* majority, as they term that sort of thing in France. It is the misfortune of all popular governments in our colonies, the people are made legislators before they have either intelligence or education to know how to set about their work; and, as under such circumstances, selfishness and preference of their little local jobs, to any views of general advantage, must prevail amongst them, the progress of practical improvement cannot but be slow. But do not despair, you have certainly no grounds whatever to do so, for you have achieved a vast deal even in this your first session.” The further history of the province does not present any facts worthy of detail. The following is a list of the English governors:—

1749. Hon. E. Cornwallis.	1808. Sir C. Prevost.
1762. P. Hopson.	— A. Croke.
1764. C. Lawrence.	1809. Sir G. Prevost.
1766. R. Moncton.	1811. Sir J. Shortbrooke.
1769. J. Belcher.	1811. Gen. Barrack.
1764. M. Wilmot.	1814. Sir J. Sherbrooke.
1766. M. Franklin.	1816. Gen. Smyth.
— Lord W. Campbell.	1816. Earl of Dalhousie.
1772. M. Franklin.	1818. M. Wallace.
— Lord W. Campbell.	1819. Lord Dalhousie.
1773. F. Legge.	1820. Sir J. Kempt.
— M. Franklin.	1824. M. Wallace.
1778. M. Arbuthnot.	1825. Sir J. Kempt.
1778. R. Lughos.	— M. Wallace.
1781. Sir A. S. Hammond.	— Sir J. Kempt.
1782. J. Parr.	1828. M. Wallace.
— Sir A. S. Hammond.	— Sir F. Maitland.
1783. E. Fanning.	1834. Sir C. Campbell.
1791. R. Bulkely.	1840. Lord Falkland.
1792. J. Wentworth.	1846. Sir John Harvey.

CHAPTER II.

AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, HIGHLANDS, LAKES, RIVERS, HARBOURS, GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, SOIL, CLIMATE, DISEASES, AND MORTALITY.

NOVA SCOTIA has a smaller area than any of the British North American provinces, except Prince Edward's Island, but its importance as a naval station, its geographical and peninsular position, numerous harbours, extensive coal-fields, and lucrative fisheries, confer on the colony a value far superior to that to which it is entitled by its mere territorial extent, which is about 15,517 square miles.

Above 3,000 square miles are stated to be occupied by lakes and rivers of various shapes and sizes, so distributed that there is no point in the province 30 miles from navigable water. The number of small lakes is very great, especially on the southern side of the peninsula; nearly a hundred are to be found between Halifax and St. Margaret's Bay, scattered over a tract of country not exceeding 20 miles in length or breadth. The face of the country is pleasingly diversified with hill and dale, but the elevations are of inconsiderable height; the highland ranges seldom exceed 500 feet above the level of the sea, and run through the country generally from E. to W. Bouchette states, that the highest hills do not exceed 600 feet; but Major Robinson, who surveyed a large portion of the province in the year 1848, states, that the Cobequid Hills, which extend along the N. shore of the Bay of Mines, and very nearly across to the shore at the Straits of Northumberland, average in height from 800 to 1,000 feet, the lowest point being found at Folly Lake, 600 feet above the sea. In breadth the range preserves a nearly uniform width of about 10 miles. A belt of broken land, whose height averages about 500 feet, and whose breadth varies from 20 to 60 miles, runs along the shores washed by the Atlantic from Cape Canso to Cape Sable, occasionally forming bold cliffs on the coast, the most remarkable of which is Aspotagoen, between Mahonc and Margaret's Bay. Another ridge extends on the W. coast, between Argyle and St. Mary's Bay; and, as before observed, a more lofty and extensive range skirts the Bay of Fundy, from Annapolis to Mines Basin.

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Lakes.—Of the numerous lakes the largest is Lake Rosignol, which is said to be 30 miles in length, and is situate partly in each of the three counties of Queen's, Shelburn, and Annapolis. It is the source of the Liverpool River—the Mersey; and in the same section of country there are several other lakes, approaching within a short distance of the Mersey, and communicating with the head of Allan's River, running into Annapolis Bay. Lake George, another lake of considerable size, and 70 or 80 small ones, are situate in the township of Yarmouth. A chain of lakes stretches from the head of the river Shubenacadie nearly to the harbour of Halifax, and, with the Shubenacadie Canal, completes the water communication quite across the province. Similar chains of lakes exist between Windsor and St. Margaret's Bay, between the head of the Avon and Chester, and between the river Gaspereaux in King's County, and Gold River, in the county of Lunenburg.

Rivers.—The two principal rivers in the province are, the Shubenacadie before mentioned, and the Annapolis: the former takes its rise in Grand Lake, in the county of Halifax, and after a rapid and circuitous course, the length of which has not yet been accurately ascertained, it disembogues in Cobequid Bay. This fine stream is navigable for large vessels some distance into the interior, its banks are adorned with extensive groves of lofty timber, and contain inexhaustible stores of gypsum and lime; the scenery is picturesque;—varied by the abrupt frowning cliff with its woody summit, the verdant and cultivated vale, the wilderness with its deep solitudes, and the busy hum of civilized society. The rise and fall of the tide at the mouth of this river is about 50 feet.

The Annapolis takes its rise in the township of Cornwallis, in King's County, and after a long and serpentine route falls into Annapolis Bay; having previously received the waters of the Moose and Bear Rivers. It is navigable for large vessels for 20 miles above Annapolis, and 40 above Digby, and

for large boats to a much greater distance. At Pictou the East, West, and Middle Rivers, all three navigable for large vessels, empty themselves into the harbour. The Avon receives the waters of the St. Croix, Kennetcook, and several others, and empties itself into the Bay of Mines; it is navigable for a considerable distance: at Windsor the rise and fall of the Avon is 20 feet at neap, and 30 at spring tides.

The country along the banks of the Avon is extremely beautiful; the luxuriance of the meadows; the frequent changes of scenery; the chain of high hills on the S. and W., clothed with variegated foliage, and the white sails of vessels passing rapidly through the serpentine windings of the Avon and St. Croix, are some of the leading features of the landscape. A bridge has been commenced to span the Avon at Windsor, where the extreme breadth is 1,050 feet. There is a small military post on elevated land at Windsor, called Fort Edward, in honour of his Royal Highness the late Duke of Kent. The fort is advantageously placed, and commands the entrance of both rivers.

The La Have, Mersey, and Medway; the Shelburne (which forms the fine harbour of that name); the Clyde, which is considered one of the most beautiful rivers in Nova Scotia; the Tusket, with its numerous branches; the St. Mary, which crossing nearly the whole county of Sydney from N. to S., forms the harbour of St. Mary; the Maccan, Nappan, and Gaspereaux; the Musquedobit, Sale, and Jordan; these are but a few selected from the multitude of rivers, many of which nearly equal them in magnitude, whose streams fertilize and adorn the province. It is a singular fact, that while the tide rises with extraordinary rapidity to the height of 75 feet in the Bay of Mines and Chignecto, it does not rise more than 6 feet in Pictou Harbour on the south shore. The Gut of Canso, which separates Nova Scotia from the island of Cape Breton, is 21 miles in length, and varies from 1 to 1½ in breadth. The land rises boldly on either side, and the strait being the most convenient passage to and from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is crowded during the summer and autumn with vessels of every description, which, together with the cottages of the little villages, situate on its banks, produce a pleasing effect.

Harbours.—In number, capacity, and security, the harbours of Nova Scotia are unsurpassed, if not unequalled, by those of

any other country of similar extent. Among the most remarkable on the northern shores may be mentioned, Pictou Harbour, which is as famous for its beauty as for its extent; Wallace Bay, navigable for vessels of the largest size, more than 6 miles; Pugwash Bay, in which ships of the first class can anchor within 20 yards of the shore; and St. George's Bay. On the S. and S. E. the noble harbour of Halifax stands pre-eminent. It is situated nearly midway between the eastern and western extremities of the peninsula, and its favourable position, easy entrance, accessibility at all seasons (its navigation being very rarely impeded by ice, as that of Quebec is annually), and capacity of affording safe anchorage for a thousand ships, have rendered it our chief naval station in North America. Shelburne Harbour is exceedingly capacious, and perfectly secure. Margaret's Bay is 12 miles in depth, and from 2 miles at its entrance to 6 in width; Mahone Bay, in Lunenburg County, is equally secure and extensive. Liverpool Harbour affords good anchorage; County Harbour is navigable for the largest ships for 10 miles from its entrance; Canso forms an excellent harbour, and Chedabucto Bay, 25 miles in length and 15 in breadth, is navigable throughout for the largest ships, and in its several smaller harbours affords safe anchorage. Between Halifax and Cape Canso are 12 ports, capable of receiving ships of the line, and there are 14 others of sufficient depth for merchantmen. The principal harbours on the northern shores in the Bay of Fundy are St. Mary's Bay, the beautiful Basin of Annapolis, which is described by Sir John Harvey as a noble estuary sheltered by mountain ranges, opening to the Bay of Fundy through a narrow gorge, navigable by large vessels, and accessible at all seasons of the year. Although this part of the country is comparatively but recently settled, the shores of this basin, for an extent of 30 miles, are highly cultivated, and present many traits of natural beauty and advanced civilization, of which the people are justly proud. Mines Basin, a continuation of the Bay of Fundy, whose tides of 60 feet in height rush through the strait between Cape Blomedon and Parrsborough, and then expand over a broad basin, which washes the shores of four of the most fertile of the inland counties, receives into its bosom 19 rivers, and having a powerful ebb and flow, affords singular facilities for navigation. Chignecto Channel

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and Cumberland Basin likewise form harbours of less importance.

The governor of Nova Scotia, in his report to Earl Grey in 1848, rightly remarks, that these harbours were obviously never intended by Providence solely for the use of the inhabitants of Nova Scotia, who are already becoming to a large extent the carriers to Canada of tropical and foreign productions, and it is confidently anticipated that these fine havens will become entrepôts for the extensive adjacent inland regions.

Geology.—Nova Scotia is marked by four geological divisions, which reach nearly across from S.W. to N.E., and run in a longitudinal direction with the greatest diameter of the country. The S. side of Nova Scotia, bordering on the Atlantic, and forming a narrow strip from Cape Sable to Cape Canso, is composed principally of granite, gneiss, and mica slate. The second division, which is three to four times the breadth of the first, and extends from Cape St. Mary to Chedabucto Bay, is composed of slate, greywacke, and greywacke slate. The third is a trap district, and forms a narrow slip from Briar Island to Mines Basin, including the whole of the North Mountains, and the islands, &c., on the Nova Scotia shore of the Bay of Fundy. The fourth is a red sandstone district, and extends from the Gut of Canso, along the Northumberland Straits. The different formations in Nova Scotia correspond with those of the United States. In both countries they extend from N.E. to S.W., nearly parallel to the Atlantic coast, having the transition and secondary rocks placed to the northward and westward of the primary formations. The geological divisions of Nova Scotia, as above laid down by Dr. Gesner in his valuable work, are subject to various irregularities and deviations; but a section of the strata, extending from Halifax across the province to Cumberland Basin, would expose a greater variety of rocks and minerals placed in regular order than has yet been discovered in any country of similar magnitude. The fossil remains found in the mountain-limestone, transition-slate, &c., are extremely curious. The palm tree, the bamboo, and the cactus, have been dug from the rocks and coal-seams, indicating that Nova Scotia at one time enjoyed a tropical climate.

The order of succession of the different strata of rocks in Nova Scotia is thus given by G. R. Young:—

Nature of Rocks and Soils.	Where found
Alluvial: A vegetable soil. Gravel, sand, and clay, containing the bones of animals now existing.	Everywhere. Valley of Annapolis and King's.
Diluvial: Beds of gravel and rounded pebbles, containing bones of animals now existing (diluv. detritus).	The surface of the red sandstone district generally.
Tertiary: Thin beds of limestone and marl, containing ammonites and other shells. Beds of clay, limestones, and marl, containing the remains of land and marine plants and animals.	Gay's river, and some parts of Cumberland. Rawdon, Douglas, and some parts of Colchester.
Oolitic: Brown sand. Slaty limestone, with shells. Marly clay. Limestone with shells. Hard clay. Compact limestone and Oolite.	Shubenacadie river. Windsor. Economé. Onalow, Pictou, Cumberland, Parreborough. Londonderry, Windsor Newscan.
Trap: Trap rocks. Greenstone, amygdaloid, and tuffstone, containing gems and neolites.	The North Mountains, capes, and islands near Parreborough.
Sandstone, new red: Sandstone of a bright red colour, containing beds of gypsum, and sometimes rock salt.	Windsor, Rawdon, Douglas, Pictou, Cumberland.
Coal group.—Secondary rocks: Limestone, containing magnesia. Coal measures, consisting of sandstone, coal, shale, iron-stones and limestone, in alternations often repeated, containing the remains of several classes of tropical plants, marine, and fluviatile shells. Millstone grit.	Shubenacadie, Cumberland. Pomket, Pictou, Onalow Cumberland. Pictou, Cumberland.
O. red old N. sandst. limest.: Beds of limestone, slate, clay, and sandstone. Dark red sandstone, with beds of pebbles.	Onalow, Pictou, Horton. Horton, Falmouth, Pictou.
Primary transition: Slate, greywacke slate, and quartz rock, sometimes alternating with transition limestone, containing marine or organic remains.	Chedabucto Bay, Halifax, Windsor Road, Lunenburg, Yarmouth, forming a belt running lengthwise the province, and occupying a large tract of country.
Mica slate. Gneiss. Granite of several varieties.	Cape Canso, Halifax, Margaret's Bay, Lunenburg, Shelburne, forming the south coast of the province.

Grey granite prevails along the shore; trap-rocks, sometimes interstratified with clay-slate, protrude in various places in immense parallel ridges above the surface,

and frequently in piles of loose masses heaped confusedly together, traversed frequently by veins of quartz. Near Liverpool, says Dr. Gesner, the whole face of the country is covered with white granite masses; some of large and regular dimensions, resembling, at a distance, huts and other rude buildings; in some places the resemblance is so perfect, that they might be mistaken for a deserted village. Within four miles of Halifax is a granite rock, seventy-five feet in circumference, weighing upwards of one hundred and fifty tons, poised so evenly on a flinty base of twelve inches, that the strength of one hand suffices to put it in motion. Several extensive and beautiful grottos are to be found in different parts of the coast; one at Pictou is 100 feet long and 6 feet wide, with beautiful stalactites suspended from the roof; and a cavern at the Bay of Fundy, with a narrow entrance towards the sea, contains magnificent halls, apparently adorned with brilliant gems. In the old red sandstone near the town of Lunenburg, cavities, called "ovens," have been made by the sea; into these the waves rush with great violence, and the air being confined bursts out, carrying the spray before it with a noise and appearance like the spouting of an enormous whale. These "ovens" are supposed by some Americans to be the nests of the "sea-serpents" seen near Boston. Clay-slate is found in the eastern section of the colony; it is generally of a very fine quality, and used as building stone at Halifax. Greywacke, and greywacke-slate, in which are found beds of limestone and numerous species of specular iron ore, extend along both shores of Chedabucto Bay. The grindstones so much esteemed in the United States, and known as "Nova Scotia blue grits," are obtained from a stratum of sandstone, which is found between the coal and limestone; they afford a valuable branch of trade to the colony. Connected with carboniferous limestone are the valuable coal-fields of Nova Scotia, which, together with those of Cape Breton (now working), afford sufficient of this important mineral to supply the whole continent of America.

Major Robinson, of the Royal Engineers, in his able report, dated Halifax, 31st August, 1848, on the proposed line of railway from Halifax, through New Brunswick to Quebec, says that indications of coal are met with in abundance from the banks of Gay's River (twenty miles from Halifax) up to

the Restigouche River, and along the shores of the Bay of Chaleurs. The greatest and most valuable coal-field is that on the S. side of the harbour of Pictou, in Nova Scotia. The coal-field is stated to be about 100 square miles in extent—the seam varying in thickness from one to *thirty-six* feet. The coal is bituminous, and of good quality. Mines of it are extensively worked, and large exports from them are made to the United States. The Cumberland coal district is inferior in importance only to that of Pictou: it is supposed to extend from the Macon River, W. of Amherst, over to Tatmagouche, in the Straits of Northumberland. Some mines of it have been recently opened, and promise to be very productive.

Varieties of iron, copper, and lead ores have been met with; marble, alabaster, and porphyry abound, and the vast internal wealth of this portion of the British dominions will probably render it at no distant day the great mining district of the "New World."

Soil.—The arable surface is of various quality; there are extensive alluvial tracts producing as rich crops as any land in England; some of the uplands are sandy and poor, and on the S. coast it is so rocky as to be extremely difficult of cultivation, but when the stones are removed excellent crops are obtained. The heads of rivers and the bends of bays on the N. coast afford many fertile tracts. The granite disappears altogether, except at one or two places, at an average distance of 20 miles from the sea; slate forming the basis of the upland in the immediate rear, particularly in the centre of the province. Beyond this is the region of fertility—the soil being excellent, and stone (except quarries of grindstone and freestone in the counties of Pictou and Cumberland), rarely to be seen. There are three descriptions of land known in the husbandry of the province—upland, intervale, and marsh.

The upland, in the counties of Inverness, Sydney, Pictou, Colchester, Cumberland, Hants, King's, Annapolis, and Digby, is generally fertile and free from stones. Sir John Harvey says:—

"Along the banks of many rivers, draining these extensive tracts, are found the intervalles, being narrow strips of light alluvial soil, above the head of the tide, and skirting the streams, until near their headwaters the mountains close in and make the descent too rapid to admit of deposits being formed. These intervalles are not more fertile than good upland, but are generally preferred: some of them, overflowed by the freshets, which bring down rich particles of soil

from higher elevations, will produce hay without manure; others, secure from fowage, and requiring no expense to dyke them from the sea, make excellent tillage land, easily worked, from their presenting level surfaces and a light yet fertile soil. Such of these intervals as are cultivated bear grain and green crops well, perhaps with less manure than upland usually requires, but they do not retain it so tenaciously, and, besides, are earlier struck with frost.

"The dyked marshes of Nova Scotia, formed along the banks of all the rivers flowing into the Bay of Fundy and Basin of Mines, are the real wealth of the province, and redeem her from the lower level, which, but for them, she must have occupied as an agricultural country. I have said that the tides of the Bay of Fundy rise and fall about 60 feet. The tide-wave, pressed on by the mass of waters in the rear, rushes with resistless velocity up the beds of the streams, meeting and controlling the waters descending towards the basin, and overflowing with a rich deposit the flat lands, which extend on either side. The receding tide leaves these covered with rich mud, successive layers of which, deposited in the lapse of years, and gradually overgrown with wild grasses (which, as they rise, intercept and bind together fresh particles of soil), form the marsh lands of Nova Scotia, which have been cropped without manure for 150 years. The cost of protecting these lands is not very heavy compared with their intrinsic value, which is hardly yet sufficiently estimated by those who own them; but their comparative worth may be judged by the fact, that, while the best upland in Nova Scotia, in favourable situations, except on the peninsula of Halifax, rarely sells higher than £10 an acre, from £20 to £50 is perhaps the average price of dyke, while woodland or pasturage, on the hill sides, but a few zales in the rear, will scarcely command £1."

There is an extensive disintegration of rocks in Nova Scotia, and the decomposition of granite, which is composed of quartz, feldspar, and mica, produces a soil, which, although scanty, is good and productive. Granite, especially the soft or porcelain description, when presenting a naked surface to the atmosphere, speedily decays; Sir Humphry Davy has shown that the *feldspar* which constitutes one of its ingredients, yields lime and potash; the *mica*, lime and magnesia; these imbibe from the atmosphere carbonic acid; the oxide of iron, which constitutes one of the ingredients of granite, tends to unite with more oxygen, and the moisture supplied by rain serves to break the cohesion of the structure and prepare for rapid disunion. *Feldspar*, which is the cement of granite, first yields and forms clay; *mica* next gives way and forms sand, and *quartz*, which takes the longest time in decomposing and is a pure siliceous earth, forms gravel. The old red sandstone in different parts of Nova Scotia, has contributed much to the production of soil by its easy decomposition; but it is a poor and hungry soil, and has but a scanty covering

of vegetation, unless improved by artificial means. In Nova Scotia the *upland* consists partly of siliceous or sandy soils, called "barrens;" partly of some pretty large tracts of clay, diversified both as to texture and colour, but chiefly of loam—the best and most valuable of all uplands, because compounded of original earths, by whose union the purposes of vegetation are most effectually promoted. These loams are distributed in rich profusion all over the province, and yield abundantly whatever kind of corn is sown upon them.

Of clay upland there is a great variety, and it is met with on the different rivers that empty themselves into Pictou harbour, in the neighbourhood of the Shubenacadie, and largely between Liverpool and Shelburne. The term "*intervale*" in Nova Scotia is applied to fertile levels along the banks of rivers, formed by the gradual deposition of their waters during successive ages. The *intervales* are composed therefore of successive coats of fine particles of clay, sand, and lime, which the water had held in suspension, and which had been washed from the higher lands by rains or melting snows. They are of alluvial origin, and all the primitive earths enter into their composition; one turbid torrent brings clay, another sand, a third passing a limestone district contributes a valuable calcareous earth. Where any of these ingredients predominate, the *intervale* is not so fertile; it is their equable mixture which gives the soil its great fertility. In the N. W. districts the best land is found: towards the Bay of Fundy the soil is rich and free from stones. A great extent of dyke, or marsh^l land, has been drained, and some of it has yielded for more than half a century an annual produce of three tons of hay per acre. There are 70,000 acres in one body of this dyked land at the head of the Bay of Fundy.

The agricultural operations of the province, thanks to the excellent "Letters of Agricola" (J. Young, Esq.), are conducted with much skill and success.

Climate and Diseases.—The climate of Nova Scotia, like other parts of the North American continent, is remarkable for great and sudden alternations of temperature; the thermometer has been known to exhibit a difference of 52° in 24 hours. The atmosphere is exceedingly moist; the showers heavier and more frequent than in Britain; fogs are common along the sea coast, particularly in May and June, but they seldom

extend any distance into the interior. Although the winter is much more severe than that of Great Britain, yet the cold is not by several degrees so intense, nor the heat of summer so great as in that part of the American continent further to the westward. The thermometer is seldom lower than 6° or 8° below zero in winter, or above 88° in summer.

As the country is cleared, the climate becomes milder; the following Meteorological Register is for Halifax:—

	Ther. Fahr.		Weather	Wind.
	Max.	Min.		
January	42	20	Clear, rain, snow	N.E.W.
February	49	10	Ditto, ditto, cloudy	N.W. and variable
March	52	25	Ditto, cloudy, rain	N.W. and S.W.
April	54	30	Ditto, rain and cloudy	Westerly.
May	60	40	Ditto, little rain	N. and ditto.
June	68	50	Ditto	W. and Northerly.
July	80	63	Ditto, ditto and fog	W.N. and S.
August	80	70	Ditto, do. do. and hazy	W. and Southerly.
September	79	51	Ditto, ditto	N.W. and S.
October	68	51	Ditto	S.W.N. and N.W.
November	59	38	Ditto, rain and fog	W. and S.W.
December	48	25	Ditto, and snow	N.W. and N.E.

From December to the end of March the ground is generally covered with snow. There is scarcely any spring, but the autumn is pleasant, and of long duration. The prevailing winds are from the E. in spring, and from the S. or S.W. in summer and autumn, and from the N. or N.W. in winter, at which period a change to any other quarter is generally followed by a rapid rise in the thermometer, accompanied by much rain or snow. The statistical reports on the sickness, mortality, and invaliding among the troops of the British army, prepared from the records of the Army Medical Department and War Office returns, states, that although nearly one-third of the surface of the peninsula is under water, yet the inhabitants "enjoy a remarkable degree of health, and an almost total exemption from those intermittent and remittent fevers which affect the constitution in Canada." The air, indeed, is highly salubrious; 80 years of life being frequently attained in the full use of mental and bodily faculties. The climate of Cape Breton is much the same as that of Nova Scotia, but even more healthy; no epidemic disease, except small-pox, has been known for many years in the island, and both among the inhabitants and the troops sickness and mortality are exceedingly rare. In the adjacent island of

Prince Edward the winter is more severe than at Cape Breton or Nova Scotia; the thermometer frequently falls to 20 or 25° below zero, and the rivers and bays remain frozen to the end of April. At Fredericton, in New Brunswick, the climate is not liable during winter to such sudden vicissitudes as that of Nova Scotia; the frost is steadier, and the winter more severe and of longer duration; the summer heat is more intense; the thermometer ranges from 96 to 42° below zero. Fogs during May and June are common along the sea coasts, but they do not appear to have much effect on the salubrity of the air. In illustration of the health of these settlements the following return is given of the sickness and mortality among the troops in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, for a period of 20 years, according to the medical returns of strength:—

Years.	Strength.	Admitted into Hospital.	Died.	Ratio per 1000.	
				Adm.	Died.
1817	3,245	2,499	65	770	20
1818	2,411	1,343	17	557	7
1819	2,070	1,595	36	771	17
1820	1,995	1,481	24	743	12
1821	2,034	1,828	16	809	8
1822	2,083	1,736	29	833	14
1823	1,987	1,444	24	727	12
1824	2,005	1,655	22	825	11
1825	2,196	2,418	20	1,101	13
1826	2,183	1,796	32	823	15
1827	2,212	1,724	34	779	15
1828	2,138	1,588	28	743	13
1829	2,286	2,062	28	902	12
1830	2,417	2,051	33	840	14
1831	2,463	2,182	53	886	22
1832	2,290	1,781	29	778	13
1833	1,892	1,376	32	727	17
1834	1,967	2,196	70	1,116	40
1835	2,146	1,681	18	783	8
1836	2,102	1,738	21	827	10
Total	44,120	36,174	649	—	—
Average	2,206	1,809	32	820	14.7

This table differs from the War Office returns, which give the total deaths, arising from all causes, at 829; making a difference in 20 years of 180. Of this number 17 committed suicide, 35 were drowned, 8 died suddenly, 7 by accidents, 8 by excessive drinking, 1 frozen to death, 1 shot attempting to desert; some died at an outpost under charge of private medical practitioners; and some belonged to the Artillery, who make no returns to the War Office. The medical officers' statements above show an average annual mortality of 14.7 per 1,000;

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the War Office returns 18 per 1,000 annually, which is more than that of the dragoons and dragoon-guards in the United Kingdom, whose ratio of mortality is about 14½ per 1,000 annually, and the average of sickness 109 per 1,000 more than that of the troops in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. In Canada the medical officers' returns for 20 years show the total strength referred to in returns 61,066; the admissions into hospital of that strength, 66,957; the deaths, 982; the average annual admissions into hospital were therefore 3,348; the average annual deaths, 49; the deaths per 1,000, 16½. The cases of sickness in Canada are 168 per 1,000 more than the dragoon-guards and dragoons serving at home; and the deaths of 16·1 per 1,000 is a medium between the ratio in infantry depôts and cavalry corps serving at home. The mortality shewn in the War Office returns for the same period is 1,286, making a difference of 304; of this number 122 were drowned (chiefly in attempting to desert into the United States), 13 committed suicide, 10 died of excessive drinking, 10 of apoplexy, 3 found dead, 2 killed by lightning, 2 shot dead, 1 murdered, 3 executed, 4 died suddenly,—these and other casualties make the mortality in Canada 20 per 1,000 annually. The moiety of deaths in Canada were from fever; in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick from diseases of the lungs. The diseases and deaths among the troops in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, are thus shown:—

Thus, although the climates and localities are, in many respects, dissimilar, the diseases and mortality are alike. It should be remarked, however, that the dragoons and dragoon-guards are picked men, and not subject to the exposure and hardships devolving on troops of the line in the Colonies.

Every physiological, terrestrial, and meteorological fact, in any manner connected with the mysterious disease termed cholera, is so valuable, in order that, by better understanding it, every means may be taken which can be reasonably hoped to conduce, under Providence, to its prevention, mitigation, and cure, that I am induced, to give the following remarkable statement, furnished to the War Office, relative to the appearance and progress of this extraordinary malady among the troops in British America; viz., at Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and in Eastern and Western Canada.

"The troops in this command (Nova Scotia and New Brunswick) escaped this disease in 1832, when it raged with great severity in Canada, but in July, 1834, it broke out among those at Halifax under the following circumstances. On the 20th of that month a vessel from Quebec, where the cholera was then prevalent, entered the harbour of Halifax. During the voyage the crew had suffered severely from bowel complaints, and one of them was admitted into the poor-house labouring under symptoms of cholera, of which he died. About a week afterwards, another fatal case occurred in a person occupying the same ward, and by the 7th August the disease began to be very general among the inmates of the establishment. The first cases were observed in the town about the 10th of August, from which period till the 24th the epidemic made rapid progress, and continued with various degrees of intensity till the end of September. The extent of its ravages cannot be accurately ascertained, but it is supposed that throughout the town and suburbs about 600 died. The number admitted into the civil hospitals was 1,020, and the deaths 382. The firm, the drunken, and the dissipated were its principal victims, though to this there were many exceptions.

"Among the military, two cases of simple cholera had been noticed in the 96th regiment, on the 24th and 31st July, but it was not till the 8th of August that the first fatal case occurred. After that period it spread throughout the garrison; the Rifle Brigade suffered most, indeed to such extent, that 18 deaths took place between the 21st and 25th of August. The corps was, in consequence, sent to Sackville, about 8 miles from Halifax, after which only four new cases occurred. The success of this experiment led to the same measure being adopted with the 96th and 83rd regiments, who were removed to an encampment in the vicinity of the town, with the like good effect; the disease ceased both among the civilians and military about the end of September, though a few isolated ones continued to present themselves for some weeks after.

"During the whole of this period bowel complaints of various kinds were exceedingly common, even

DISEASES (The admissions & deaths in the United Kingdom refer to the dragoons and dragoon-guards.)	ADMISSIONS.		DEATHS.	
	Ann. ratio per 1000 of Mean Strength.		Ann. ratio per 1000 of Mean Strength.	
	New Scotia and New Brunswick.	United Kingdom, (Dragoons).	New Scotia and New Brunswick.	United Kingdom.
Fevers	60	75	1·6	1·4
Ruptive Fevers	2	3	·7	·1
Diseases of the Lungs	125	148	3·1	7·7
Liver	9	8	·2	·4
" Stomach and Bowels	94	94	1·5	·8
Epidemic Cholera	5	4	1·4	1·2
Diseases of the Brain	11	6	1·3	·7
Dropsies	2	1	·5	·3
Rheumatic Affections	30	50		
Venereal	83	181		
Abscesses and Ulcers	105	133		
Wounds and Injuries	148	126	1·1	1·4
Furuncles	31	8		
Diseases of the Eyes	51	19		
Skin	23	29		
" other Diseases	32	44		
Total	890	929	14·7	14

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among those who escaped the graver forms of the disease.

"Though the circumstances under which the disease first appeared were such as to favour the idea of contagion, yet nothing occurred in the course of its progress to strengthen that supposition; and neither the medical officers, nor those in immediate attendance on the sick, suffered in a greater proportion than persons not so exposed.

"Of 293 women attached to the different corps, 37 were attacked and 16 died, being almost exactly the same proportion as among the soldiers. Children were remarkably exempt, for of 560 in the garrison only 16 were attacked, and 6 died. The officers also suffered but little; out of a strength of 60 only 4 were attacked, all of whom recovered.

"The admissions into hospital were 210, the deaths 59. Proportions of deaths to admissions 1 in 3 nearly.

"The following Table, compiled from the Age and Service Returns furnished annually to the War Office, shows that the mortality on this occasion fell very heavily on soldiers at an advanced period of life:—

Age	Strength.	Total Deaths by Epidemic Cholera.	Ratio of Deaths per 1000 at each Age by Epidemic Cholera.
Under 18	18	—	—
18 to 25	602	1	2.
25 " 33	829	30	30.2
33 " 40	168	14	88.6
40 " 50	37	4	108.
Total	1,544	49	34.7

"This Table only includes a part of the deaths, as those which occurred among the Ordnance cannot be traced.

"We find it stated, that prior to the appearance of cholera there was more easterly wind than usual, and that the progress of the disease was greater during and after a long continuance of rain than in dry weather; but the meteorological observations are not sufficiently detailed to warrant the accuracy of that assertion. The epidemic does not seem to have extended beyond the limits of Halifax, at least the troops were exempt, and we can find no record of it having prevailed in any other quarter among the civil population.

"The disease prevailed in Canada in 1832 and 1834; in the former of these years cases of it were first noticed at Quebec, on the 8th of June, among a party of emigrants who landed there on their way to Montreal, in consequence of the steam-boat in which they had embarked being over-crowded. On the following day a person belonging to the same party, but who had proceeded by the vessel to Montreal, was attacked shortly after his arrival there, and within a few days the disease became general in both towns, breaking out almost simultaneously at different and opposite parts with extreme virulence, even when no communication with strangers or emigrants could be traced; it chiefly affected residents in crowded or ill-ventilated buildings, or low and marshy situations, where whole families were in several instances cut off by it.

"By the 17th or 18th of June the disease had attained its greatest prevalence and severity, and continued with little abatement during the rest of that

month; but towards the beginning of July the case became of a milder nature; it afterwards raged, however, at intervals, with increased virulence for a few days, and isolated cases continued to make their appearance till the month of October. The disease then ceased, after having destroyed in Quebec upwards of 2,200 out of a population of 30,000, including passing emigrants, and 3,000 in Montreal, out of a population of nearly the same extent; as the greater proportion of these perished within a fortnight after the disease appeared, the mortality during that period must have been most appalling. In Quebec it broke out among the troops a few days later than among the inhabitants, but did not affect them to quite so great an extent; out of about 1,100 quartered at Quebec 25 died, besides two or three at some of the small outposts. The 32nd Foot, which was cut off from communication with the inhabitants by being quartered in the citadel, escaped for 66 days, but then suffered as much as the rest of the troops; for of 17 attacked 11 died, and the disease was so rapid in its progress, that the average duration of the fatal cases did not exceed 16½ hours.

"In Montreal, cholera appeared among the troops two days after it broke out in the town, and raged with still greater severity than at Quebec, for out of a force which did not exceed 550 men 39 were cut off in a few days.

"With the view of arresting the alarming progress of this pestilence, the military at Montreal were, about the 20th of June, removed to an encampment on the island of St. Helen's, and all communication with the town cut off; they remained till the end of October, during which period only one case occurred among them. A detachment of 70 men, however, who had been removed to the barrack of La Prairie, on the opposite side of the river, suffered extremely; for, of 10 soldiers attacked, 8 died; the remainder were then transferred to St. Helen's, after which no fatal case, and only two or three slight attacks, occurred among them.

"On this occasion the troops at Isle aux Noix, Sorel, and the other stations in Lower Canada, escaped the disease, but within eight days after its appearance at Montreal it broke out at Kingston in the upper province, and gradually extended to Toronto, and Fort George, where it proved fatal in nearly the same proportions as in the lower province, particularly at Toronto. Though the inhabitants at By Town suffered very much, the cases among the military were comparatively few and slight, and at Amherstberg and Penetanguishen they entirely escaped. The loss of the troops at those stations in the upper province where it prevailed was,—

	Strength.	Died.
At Kingston and Fort Henry	577	8
Toronto	317	10
Fort George	69	2

"As it was later in its appearance, so it was, in a corresponding degree, of longer continuance in the upper province, where cases occurred till the commencement of winter. Owing to the scattered state of the population, the precise extent of the mortality cannot be exactly ascertained; but at Toronto, about an eighth part was attacked, and of these, one-half died. At By Town, 49 deaths took place out of a population of 1,000, and in some of the smaller villages the mortality was even greater.

"During 1833 no cases of cholera were observed; in May, 1834, a few were said to have occurred at Quebec immediately after the opening of the ports,

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but it was not till the 7th of July that the presence of the disease in that town was so far ascertained as to be made the subject of official announcement. On the 11th it was reported also at Montreal, but in both of these towns, and indeed generally throughout the province, its progress was by no means so rapid or so alarming as on the previous occasion. By the middle of August it was on the decline throughout Lower Canada, but did not entirely disappear till November. The mortality was not so great as in 1832, for only 930 deaths are recorded to have taken place from it in Quebec, and 882 in Montreal.

"Though one case is said to have occurred in the end of June, it was not till the 14th of July that the epidemic began to prevail among the military in Quebec. Between that date and the 4th of August, several were attacked in the town barrack; but, as on the former occasion, those in the citadel escaped till the disease was on the decline among the inhabitants; the first case among them occurred on the 18th of August, and for a week thereafter they suffered very much, though not to such an extent as the others. In all, 16 deaths took place among the troops in the town and citadel of Quebec, besides 3 at the quarantine station of Gros Isle, where there was a small detachment.

"At Montreal the disease appeared among the military the day after it was observed among the inhabitants, and by the 22nd of July several cases and four deaths had taken place; the troops were then removed to the Island of St. Helen's, as on the former occasion, and with like good effect, for only two cases occurred afterwards, neither of which proved fatal, though of nine cases left sick in the hospital at Montreal three died. Of the troops at Isle au Noix, and the other small military posts in the Lower Province, none were attacked, but in some of the adjacent villages it proved very fatal; at Three Rivers, for instance, 63 deaths took place out of a population of 300.

"Following up the course of the St. Lawrence the cholera reached Kingston on the 20th July, and prevailed among the inhabitants quite as much as in 1832. The Artillery, though in an elevated and what was supposed a healthy quarter, lost five men in the course of a few days. The troops of the line, who, being in a low swampy situation, were more likely to suffer, lost only one man, but their barracks admitted of a more complete separation from the inhabitants,

to which this exemption was attributed, and on the Artillery being removed to an encampment at Fort Henry the disease disappeared. From Kingston it extended to Toronto on the 30th of June, and committed great havoc among the inhabitants, particularly the lower orders, but the troops escaped with three cases of simple cholera, none of which proved fatal.

"The disease prevailed to a considerable extent both at Fort George and Amherstberg among the inhabitants, but did not extend to the troops, who only suffered from a general tendency to bowel complaints during the time it prevailed in the vicinity. At the remote station of Penetanguishene no cases occurred."

"The proportion of deaths to the number attacked was very nearly the same in both years. In all situations and under all modes of treatment, about 1 in 2 died of the cases in the civil, and 1 in 3 of those in the military hospitals; but from the strict surveillance exercised over the troops, nearly half of the cases among them were noticed in the premonitory stage, and consequently could be treated with a greater prospect of success than those in the civil hospitals, where the great majority of patients were far advanced in the disease before they applied for medical aid. The admissions in the hospital were 356; deaths, 127; proportion of deaths to admissions 1 in 3.

"One of the most extraordinary features of this epidemic is, that the proportion of deaths to recoveries has been very nearly alike in all the Military Commands of which the medical records have been investigated, for instance:—

Military Commands.	Attacks.	Deaths.	Prop. of Deaths to Attacks.
Among Cavalry in the United Kingdom, 1832, 1833, and 1834.	173	54	10 in 32
" Troops in Gibraltar, 1834	459	131	10 " 35
" " Nova Scotia, &c. 1834	210	69	10 " 35
" " Canada, 1832	259	94	10 " 28
" " Canada, 1834	97	33	10 " 29
" Black Troops at Honduras, 1836	62	20	10 " 31

"Thus, under all the modes of treatment which may have been adopted on these different occasions,

with primeval forests, except for a short distance around the post.

"Though this station is little more than one degree N. of Toronto, there is a vast difference in the climate; the winters are as severe and as long as those in Lower Canada; snow falls about the middle of November, and continues till the beginning of May, and, in some instances, the whole lake is frozen till the end of that month. The summers are however much cooler, and more agreeable than in either of the provinces. Notwithstanding the severity of this climate, the troops have been healthy to an unprecedented degree; no death has taken place, except from accidents, since 1828, when the station was first occupied. Fevers are almost entirely unknown; and in 1836, out of an average force of 42 men, only 4 cases of disease occurred which could fairly be attributed to climate; yet so sudden are the changes of temperature, that the thermometer has been known to fall from 40 deg. above to 15 deg. below zero, between midnight and sunrise."

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* Penetanguishene, to the N. of Georgian Bay, a branch of Lake Huron, is distant about 80 miles N. W. from Toronto, where a subaltern, with 30 or 40 men, is generally quartered. The barrack, a substantial stone building affording excellent accommodation, stands at the base of a long sandy ridge of ground from 200 to 300 feet in height, forming, by its projection into the bay, one extremity of an extensive harbour. There is also a small wooden hospital on the rising ground, about 400 yards in rear of the barrack. At the head of this bay, as well as for several miles to the S. E., the ground is low and swampy, but as the post is well sheltered in that direction by the rise of the hill on which it is built, and the wind generally blows down the lake, the exhalations are likely to be carried beyond the garrison.

"The general character of the country in this district is undulating and hilly, but there are no mountains of an magnitude in the vicinity, though several are to be seen in the distance: the soil is still covered

the proportion of deaths to recoveries has not varied above one-fourth, showing that the remedial measures hitherto employed can have had little if any effect in counteracting the fatal character of the disease.

"In both these years, when this epidemic prevailed, the native Indians suffered from it to the same extent as the white population. At three settlements from which Returns were received, about a twelfth part of the population died in 1832, and about half that proportion when it again prevailed in 1834. Although their principal remedy consisted in swallowing large quantities of charcoal mixed with lard, almost exactly the same proportion recovered as among the white inhabitants of the towns, who possessed every advantage which the aid of medical science could suggest.

"In tracing the course of various epidemics of yellow fever among our troops in other colonies, we have frequently noticed that all ranks were effected in nearly an equal degree; the reverse was the case, however, with cholera, particularly in Canada, for not a single officer died, and only four were attacked during the first, and three during the second epidemic. The same peculiarity was observed during

the prevalence of this disease in Nova Scotia, in 1834; and in Gibraltar there were but two admissions and one death among the officers, though there were 450 admissions and 131 deaths among the troops. This leads to the inference that though little can be done to smotherate the character of the disease when allowed to arrive at an advanced stage, yet that a generous diet, regular habits, and the degree of attention which persons in the higher ranks of life are likely to pay to its premonitory stages, have a powerful effect in diminishing their liability to its influence.

"The soldiers' wives suffered to almost precisely the same extent as the troops, but there was a marked exemption of their children from the severer forms of the disease, only seven cases and four deaths having occurred among them on each occasion, though their numbers were between 700 and 800; a very large proportion, however, suffered from diarrhoea during the prevalence of the epidemic, and many were cut off by it.

"The following Table, compiled from the Age and Service Returns, furnished annually to the War Office, shows the influence of age on mortality by this disease among the troops:—

Age	Strength.		Deaths by Epidemic Cholera.		Total Strength for both years.	Total Deaths by Epidemic Cholera, in both years.	Ratio of Deaths at each Age by Epidemic Cholera.
	1832.	1834.	1832.	1834.			
Under 18 . . .	18	12	—	—	30	—	—
18 to 25 . . .	1,172	695	23	6	1,867	29	15.5
25 to 33 . . .	1,070	1,145	39	12	2,215	51	23.5
33 to 40 . . .	282	297	17	4	579	21	36.3
40 to 50 . . .	38	47	3	3	85	6	70.6
Total . . .	2,580	2,196	82	25	4,776	107	22.4

"As the requisite Returns are not furnished by the Artillery, this Table refers to the deaths which took place among the troops of the line only; but combined with similar results obtained in regard to those in Nova Scotia, it is sufficient to establish that the fatal tendency of cholera increased rapidly with the advance of age.

"In tracing the rise and progress of this disease, nothing is more remarkable than the regularity with which, on both occasions, it advanced along the principal channels by which the tide of emigration and of commerce flowed through the country; take, for instance, its progress along the line of the St. Lawrence and the lakes.

Progress of the Disease.	Date of Appearance of the Disease.	
	1832.	1834.
Quebec	8th June	7th July.
3 Rivers, between Montreal and Quebec	Escaped	9th "
Montreal, 180 miles above Quebec.	10th June	11th "
Kingston, 190 miles beyond Montreal	16th "	26th "
Toronto, 184 miles beyond Kingston	28th "	30th "
Fort George, 40 miles from Toronto	14th July	13th Aug.
Detroit and Amherstberg, at the extremity of Lake Erie . . .	0th "	End of Aug.

"Here, with the single exception of Fort George, at which it appeared a few days later in 1832 than might have been expected from its geographical posi-

tion, this singular disease may be said to have travelled with post-like regularity.

"Along the banks of the Ottawa, another of the principal channels of emigration into Canada, it pursued the same steady course, as well as up the Richelieu, and along Lake Champlain through the United States to New York, a route which is also frequently taken by emigrants on their arrival in Quebec. These circumstances, combined with the fact of several persons having died from the disease on their passage from Ireland, in each of the years when it appeared, led to the belief of its having been imported, and subsequently communicated by contagion; various precautionary measures were in consequence adopted to prevent its propagation, and strict quarantine regulations were enforced, both as regarded the troops and inhabitants; but though in some instances these were apparently effectual, in others they proved of little avail, and the contagious nature of the disease was subsequently rendered extremely questionable from the circumstance, that neither the physicians nor those in constant attendance on the sick, exhibited any peculiar liability to it.

"Of course it is impossible, in a limited Report of this nature, to enter fully on all the facts and arguments bearing on the important and much-disputed topic of contagion; we can only say that all which has been adduced on either side seems to fall far short of absolute proof, and even those who have had the best opportunities of forming accurate opinions, by watching the progress of this disease, are forced to admit that its origin is still involved in

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mystery, or at least, that the contrariety of results can only be reconciled by supposing that under some circumstances it may be contagious, while in others it may be the reverse.

"Prior to its appearance in 1832, the winter had been extremely severe, the spring cold and backward, and the average temperature of summer considerably below its usual standard. Easterly winds had also prevailed continuously for 27 days before the disease broke out; but this is by no means uncommon in spring, though in that year they were more frequent than usual, as will be seen by the following statement:—

Years.	Days of Easterly Winds in April, May, and June.	Days of Easterly Winds throughout the year.
1832	40	121
1833	38	111
1834	36	120

"Except in regard to the slight difference in the prevalence of easterly winds, the season of 1833 was almost exactly the same as that of 1832, and yet there was no cholera; whereas that of 1834 was the

very reverse of either. With the exception of one month the winter was open, the spring mild, the easterly winds preceding the breaking out of the cholera more rare, and the heat of summer greater than for many years previous.

"Most accurate and extensive meteorological observations were made daily during the continuance of the disease, but neither variations of temperature, fluctuations of the barometer, change of wind, nor the prevalence nor absence of moisture, seemed to affect it in the slightest degree; on this point there was no difference of opinion, whatever may have existed on others connected with its origin and progress."

In July, 1849, the malady again appeared in British North America, and pursued nearly the same course it did in 1834.

Some further remarks on the influence of climate on age, and the degree of sickness and mortality among the troops serving in British America, will be given when treating of Bermuda, which is included in several of the returns relating to Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION, COUNTIES, CHIEF TOWNS, LAND CULTIVATED, AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE AND LIVE STOCK OF EACH COUNTY; GOVERNMENT, LAWS, MILITARY DEFENCE, EDUCATION, THE PRESS, RELIGION, CRIME; FINANCES, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, TARIFF, COMMERCE, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, STAPLE PRODUCTS AND MANUFACTURES, MINES, QUARRIES, AND FISHERIES; PRICES OF PROVISIONS, WAGES OF LABOUR, PROPERTY ANNUALLY CREATED, MOVABLE AND IMMOVABLE WEALTH, COINS AND BANK NOTE CIRCULATION, PROJECTED RAILROAD FROM HALIFAX TO QUEBEC.

WHEN first discovered by the Europeans, Nova Scotia, as well as other parts of America, was inhabited by Indians of a reddish-brown colour, with high cheekbones, large lips and mouths, long black coarse hair, and fine, intelligent, penetrating eyes; the males being from 5 feet 8 inches to 6 feet in height, with broad shoulders and strong limbs. The two principal tribes, the Mic-macs and Richibuctos, differing in features and in dialect, were equally savage in their mode of life and manners, but to some extent civilized and made nominal Christians, by the early French settlers, who trained the Indians to assist them in their contests with the English.

The wars between the rival nations for

the possession of Nova Scotia, the introduction of the small-pox, and above all, the maddening effects of the unlimited use of spirituous liquors, have swept off nearly all the Indians from the face of the country of which they were once masters, and only a few hundreds, principally of the Mic-macs, are still to be found. Indolent in the extreme, except when roused by the stimulus of hunger or revenge, the Indian dreams away a monotonous existence—his only wants are food, raiment, and shelter of the simplest kind; and probably within a few years, the remnant of this species of the human race will have entirely passed away.

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180 PROGRESS OF EUROPEAN POPULATION IN NOVA SCOTIA.

tails of the early progress of population in the colony; in 1740, about 140 years after the settlement of the colony, the Acadians amounted to 18,000 in number; after the removal of these people from Nova Scotia in 1755, the British settlers were computed at only 5,000, but in 1764 the number of souls was stated at 13,000, including 2,600 Acadians, who had returned to the province. In 1772, the reported number was 19,120; but in 1781, in consequence of considerable emigration taking place from the colony,

the number was reduced to 12,000. Two years after, 20,000 loyalists arrived, and the number increased to 32,000; but by the subsequent separation of New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Isle, and Cape Breton into distinct governments, the population of Nova Scotia was of course diminished. In 1807 the inhabitants were estimated at 65,000 (exclusive of Cape Breton Island). A census was taken in 1817, another in 1827, and a third in 1837, the result of each being as follows:—

Counties in 1817.	Whites.		Free Blacks.		Total in 1817.	Total in 1827.	Increase in 10 yrs.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
Halifax	15,181	13,929	391	350	29,851	46,528	—
Hants	3,587	2,956	82	60	6,685	8,627	1,942
Annapolis	4,861	4,461	171	228	9,721	14,061	4,340
King's	3,457	3,275	94	49	6,845	10,208	3,363
Shelburne	5,586	6,892	232	238	11,946	12,018	72
Queen's	1,421	1,410	139	128	3,008	4,226	1,217
Lunenburg	3,465	3,052	58	53	6,428	9,406	2,977
Sydney	3,531	3,100	246	214	7,091	12,760	5,669
Cumberland	1,641	1,348	29	30	3,048	5,440	2,392
Total	42,730	39,423	1,412	1,348	84,913	123,878	21,288

The foregoing is exclusive of king's troops, whose numbers amounted, in 1817, to 1,302; and also of Cape Breton Isle, which contained, in 1817, 14,000 inhabitants; and in 1827, 30,000. It will be observed that the census of 1827 is differently arranged from that of

1817; the number of males, during the former period, was 72,971, and of females, 69,577; the annual births, 5,246; the deaths, 2,124; and the marriages, 1,073. The aggregate of the census of 1827 shows the number of male and female servants, exclusive of masters, as follows:—

Population of Nova Scotia in 1827.

Counties and Districts in 1827	Population.					Births. No. of, in the county during the year.	Marriages. No. of females married in the county during same period.	Deaths. No. of, in county during same period, including hours.
	No. of males in the county exclusive of labourers or servants.	No. of females in ditto, exclusive of servants.	No. of labourers, or male servants.	No. of female servants in ditto.	Total No. of souls in the county.			
Halifax County—								
Peninsula of Halifax	5,546	6,468	1,321	1,106	14,439	384	87	520
District of Halifax	4,898	4,814	689	345	10,437	370	105	167
" Colchester	3,606	3,597	315	185	7,703	334	38	77
" Pictou	6,704	6,291	408	296	13,949	501	70	115
Counties of—								
Hants	3,901	3,602	619	415	8,627	330	95	302
King's	4,756	4,654	537	261	10,208	339	71	115
Annapolis	7,152	6,917	339	253	14,661	435	65	100
Shelburne	6,133	5,886	273	288	12,018	635	120	124
Queen's	1,938	1,915	251	123	4,226	153	20	77
Lunenburg	4,531	4,288	315	271	9,405	331	78	123
Cumberland	2,568	2,415	285	148	5,416	242	40	49
Sydney	6,255	5,775	431	222	12,760	508	126	89
Total	57,986	56,509	5,783	3,913	123,848	4,563	945	1,908

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Cape Breton
Inverness
Richmond

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In the eccles population of s mated for that been a large inc census of 1837 1837, populatio chester, 10,674 and 30,000; G The population in 1848 at 230, county, 40,000 Colchester, 14, and Guysborou ties, 111,260. ton was estima is now probab estimate of the and Cape Breto posed will not b The populat posed of various Irish, Scotch, quitted the Un the revolution, subjects of the home in Nova they are termed in the townsh Madame, and c

POPULATION OF NOVA SCOTIA IN 1837.

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The following table, derived from the "Blue Book" for 1847, gives the latest census that has been taken in Nova Scotia, and shows the number and names of the counties into which it is divided:—

Abstract of Census of Nova Scotia in 1837, from "Blue Book" for 1847.

Counties.	Heads of Families.	Under 6 years.		Under 14 years.		Not Heads of Families. Over 14 years.		Total.
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
Halifax	4,323	2,991	2,918	2,871	2,774	3,694	8,999	28,570
Colchester	2,050	1,009	1,241	1,467	1,310	2,121	1,476	10,874
Pictou	3,199	2,418	2,333	2,295	1,979	8,030	3,361	21,615
Hants	1,809	1,277	1,233	1,256	1,921	1,591	3,041	11,396
King's	2,092	1,503	1,435	1,595	1,473	2,100	3,511	13,709
Annapolis	1,862	1,328	1,267	1,249	1,128	3,462	1,593	11,907
Yarmouth	1,471	1,106	1,062	1,094	972	1,067	2,420	8,192
Shelburne	1,069	720	670	768	719	1,305	909	6,151
Queen's	925	671	624	579	586	796	1,617	5,798
Lunenburg	1,925	1,409	1,230	1,498	1,374	1,454	3,156	12,955
Guysborough	1,191	912	842	886	839	930	1,847	7,447
Digby	1,411	1,056	1,008	1,065	926	1,193	2,530	9,189
Sydney	1,565	1,439	1,163	1,242	1,213	1,291	1,222	9,135
Cumberland	1,236	894	873	933	792	1,182	1,642	7,572
Cape Breton	2,255	1,762	1,643	1,686	1,405	3,536	1,792	14,111
Inverness	2,159	1,560	1,601	1,601	1,397	3,378	1,751	14,099
Richmond	1,219	894	888	899	816	916	1,571	7,203
Total	34,891	22,949	22,040	23,004	21,615	36,048	42,438	199,006

Note.—There is an apparent error of 352 in the return for Inverness, which there is no means of correcting until the census of 1851.

In the ecclesiastical returns for 1847, the population of several of the counties is estimated for that year; and, if correct, there has been a large increase of inhabitants since the census of 1837: thus Sydney contained, in 1837, population, 9,135; in 1847, 17,000; Colchester, 10,674 and 14,000; Pictou, 21,165 and 30,000; Guysborough, 7,447 and 10,000. The population of Nova Scotia was estimated in 1848 at 230,200, viz., City of Halifax, and county, 40,000; County Cumberland, 10,600; Colchester, 14,900; Pictou, 30,300; Sydney and Guysborough, 23,200; remaining counties, 111,260. The population of Cape Breton was estimated in 1848, at 49,600. It is now probably more than 50,000. The estimate of the population in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton for the year 1850, it is supposed will not be far short of 300,000.

The population of Nova Scotia is composed of various races, viz., French, English, Irish, Scotch, and Anglo-Americans, who quitted the United States at the period of the revolution, and, desirous of remaining subjects of the British crown, sought a new home in Nova Scotia. The French, or as they are termed Acadians, are chiefly located in the township of Clare, Annapolis, Isle Madame, and other parts of Cape Breton.

The Acadians, whose history and misfortunes are given in a previous page (163), strongly resemble in appearance, manners, and customs, the *Habitans* of Eastern Canada. As an illustration of the tenacity with which the Acadians adhere to their ancient costume, and discountenance among themselves the adoption of any other,—Mr. Macgregor mentions that an unlucky youth having put on an English coat, received ever after, the sobriquet of "Joe Peacock." They are an industrious and peaceable race, and have been treated, subsequent to their first expulsion from Nova Scotia, with justice and kindness. Many of both sexes are engaged in the Cape Breton fisheries.

The Irish are chiefly found in the capital (Halifax); the Scotch, at Pictou and in the eastern districts; the Anglo-Americans, in the west and midland counties. In the county of Lunenburg, there is a race composed of the descendants of a body of German and Swiss protestants who emigrated from Rotterdam in 1753. A Highland settlement was formed some years ago at Pictou; and the representatives of the brave men who fought at Culloden, still preserve the habits, and cherish the loyal feelings which distinguished their ancestors. Wherever there

is a Highland village on the midland coast, a piper is to be found who delights the rustic audience with the martial music which has so often cheered the Scotch in their march to battle; or he animates the festive meetings, where strathspeys and reels are danced with an energy and glee which is not surpassed in the Highlands of Caledonia.

The dark-coloured race in Nova Scotia are the descendants of runaway negroes from the southern part of the United States; of the Maroons of Jamaica, who, on their surrender, after the Maroon war, under a promise to receive lands in another colony, were conveyed to Nova Scotia—than which, a more inappropriate place, as regards either climate or productions, could scarcely have been chosen. In 1800, it was found necessary to remove the greater part of them to Sierra Leone. During the American war, 1812-13-14, many American slaves were received on board British ships of war, and landed at Nova Scotia. Several of these were removed to Trinidad in 1821. The survivors and descendants of these two immigrations are located chiefly at Prescott and Hammond's Plains, in the vicinity of Halifax, and their numbers are now between 3,000 and 4,000.

The Indians still form a distinct class of people; but there are only a few hundred of them left in Nova Scotia.

The classification of the inhabitants according to religion was, according to the census of 1827; churchmen, 28,659; Presbyterians, 37,225; Roman Catholics, 20,401; Methodists, 9,408; Baptists, 19,790; other denominations, 8,365. The census of 1837 does not distinguish the religious profession of the people. Happily there are no animosities on account of religion or of race. Sir John Harvey, the present respected Lieutenant-governor of the province, in a despatch to Earl Grey of the 18th of October, 1848, says: "Men of different races cherish their national remembrances and attachments with mutual respect for each other's feelings, and their descendants form one race, and are known by but one name." The Nova Scotians are a loyal, brave, and intelligent people, gifted with high natural endowments, of prepossessing appearance, pleasing manners, and very hospitable. The society of the colony is more gay and polished than that usually found in a provincial settlement, and its tone is entirely British.

Halifax, the capital of Nova Scotia, and the third city in British America, is situated in

the county of the same name, on the fine harbour before described, in 44° 40' N. lat. 63° 40' W. long. The harbour is formed by a bay about 16 miles deep, narrowed in the middle by an island, above which it again expands into what is termed the Bedford Basin, which covers an extent of 12 square miles. The channels E. and W. of M'Nab's Island are protected by York Redoubt, Sherbrooke Tower, East Battery, and several others.

The city of Halifax is built on the E. side of a small peninsula on the declivity of a hill, which rises gradually from the water's edge; its length being about two miles, and its breadth about half a mile, with wide streets, eight of which extend through the city, and are crossed by fifteen smaller ones. Along the water's edge are numerous commodious wharfs, close to which ships can lie for the discharge of their cargoes; above the wharfs are the warehouses, and as the acclivity is ascended are to be seen the houses of the citizens, public buildings, &c. Many of the private residences are handsomely built of stone, and the houses, of wood plastered or stuccoed, have in several instances an imposing appearance. The public edifices are substantial structures; the Government-house at the S. end of the capital is an antique baronial looking structure, and the Admiral's house, a plain stone building, at the N. end commands a view of the harbour, telegraphs, shipping, &c. The "Province Building," erected for the accommodation of the government offices, is one of the finest edifices in our American colonies; it stands nearly in the centre of Halifax, is 140 feet long, 70 broad, and 45 feet high; the Ionic columns are of finely polished freestone, and the whole structure combines elegance with strength and utility. It contains chambers for the Council and Legislative Assembly, the Supreme Court, and all the provincial offices. The Military Hospital and other structures at Halifax do honour to the taste and judgment of the late Duke of Kent, who, when Commander-in-Chief in Nova Scotia was universally beloved. The dock-yard, one of the largest and best stored in the British Colonies, covers an area of 14 acres.

Halifax has, of late years, rapidly advanced in prosperity; in 1790 it contained only 700 houses and 4,000 inhabitants. During the late war, as a military naval station, and the rendezvous for prize ships, the city acquired much wealth. In 1817 it

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was declared a free port, and had then 1,200 houses. In 1827 the houses were in number 1,580, and the population 14,439. The population is now nearly 25,000. Many of the houses are still built of wood, but the number of stone and brick buildings is yearly increasing. The trade of the port is brisk, but conducted with such prudent probity that in eight years there was but one bankruptcy among the mercantile community. There are several soap, candle, leather, snuff, and other manufactories, and distilleries and breweries. The markets are well constructed, and supplied with aoundance of excellent meat, poultry, fish, vegetables, and fruits, at reasonable prices. The wharfs are large and commodious; the facilities for embarking and disembarking goods perfect, and fresh water is good and plentiful. The port is, therefore, a favourite resort for all persons engaged in maritime pursuits, and an agreeable station for naval and military officers. The following are the distances from Halifax to some of the principal adjacent positions—Cape Breton, 130 miles; Prince Edward's Island, 160; Fort Cumberland, 145; St. Andrew's, 263; Fredericton, 276; St. John's, New Brunswick, 196; and Annapolis, 130; Liverpool, England, about 2,700; Boston, United States, 280 miles.

COUNTIES.—According to the latest government returns, Nova Scotia is divided into 14 counties, five of which occupy the central portion, two the eastern, and seven the western. This appears to be the existing territorial arrangement, which is scarcely worth fuller investigation, since from the recent despatches of the Lieutenant-governor it appears probable that a more equable distribution will speedily be organized, by which the elective franchise and the advantages of municipal incorporation may be made more extensively available. The five central counties are Halifax, Colchester, Cumberland, Pictou, and Hants, of which *Halifax*, from containing the metropolis, from position and population, is the most important. It comprises four townships, viz., Halifax, Dartmouth, Preston, and Lawrence Town. The land included in the first is said to be the worst in the province; but the coast is almost one uninterrupted succession of harbours, upon each of which a few fishermen have established themselves. Upon that called Sambro, which is safe and of easy access, a settlement was founded in 1780; it now contains a small population, almost wholly employed in fishing. The soil

about St. Margaret's Bay is fertile and well cultivated. The township of Dartmouth lies on the eastern side of Halifax harbour, and contains land, much of which is rendered very productive by the skill and industry of the descendants of the original German settlers. A chain of small lakes intersects the province, which being connected with the source of the Shubenacadie River, greatly facilitated the formation of the fine canal which now completes the water communication between Halifax harbour and the Bay of Mines. The town of Dartmouth was founded in 1750, almost totally destroyed by the Indians in 1756, in part restored by the establishment of a whale fishery in 1784, again impoverished by the emigration of a large portion of the recent settlers in 1792. During the war it greatly increased in size, population, and wealth, and even since the peace it has improved rather than declined, though it cannot in any degree compare with its powerful neighbour Halifax. The township of Lawrence Town lies E. of Dartmouth, and continues about 12 miles along the coast. The soil is rocky and barren, with here and there spots of "intervale" or marshy land. The country behind forms the township of Preston, which was granted in 1784 to 388 proprietors—loyalists, disbanded soldiers, and free negroes. The negroes showed unusual energy, but were removed to Sierra Leone, where a large number of them speedily perished. The remainder of Halifax County not included in the township is generally of inferior and stony soil, yet it contains some thriving settlements, especially on the banks of the Musquedoboit River, and is adorned by several kinds of fine timber.

Colchester (formerly a part of the county of Halifax), is situated E. of the river Shubenacadie, and contains three townships, Truro, Onslow, and Londonderry, besides the settlements of Economy, Stewiack, Tatamagouche, Salmon River, Shubenacadie, Brookfield, &c.

The township of Truro, which comprises 30,000 acres, has a highly pleasing aspect when viewed from the high land on the north-east. The whole sweep of the Basin of Mines, as far as Cape Blomedon, embracing a space of more than 60 miles, is distinctly visible, while the two villages, into which the township is mainly divided, with their level marshes relieved by finely swelling uplands, and sheltered by wooded and undulating hills,

compose the foreground of this beautiful landscape. The indenture made by the Shubenacadie on its western boundary, is a striking feature in this scene, and when viewed with a previous knowledge of the singular character of the river, it invests it with a peculiar interest. The Shubenacadie, at the ferry, where it is a mile in width, rises 50 feet at flood tide, and at the distance of 12 miles, 25 or 30 feet. At times the stream runs at the rate of seven and eight miles an hour, but notwithstanding the rapidity of the current, the river is securely navigable to the distance of 30 miles, by those acquainted with its eddies. Its banks are precipitous, but in general of that formation which admits of the most fantastic appearances, being shaped by the waters, and in many places fringed and overhung by trees of great beauty. But these banks, so romantic and inviting to the lovers of natural scenery, are also enriched with inexhaustible treasures of gypsum and lime. Quarries of excellent freestone are equally accessible. The line of the bay, being almost everywhere level, presents, with the exception of Savage's Island and the site of the Presbyterian Meeting-house, only those views which the industry of man has created.

The houses are well built, and the township has handsome churches, a court-house, custom-house, and other public buildings, with good roads to Halifax, Pictou, &c. The adjoining township of Onslow contains land of excellent quality and valuable coal-mines. The same remark applies to Londonderry, and indeed to the several settlements before-mentioned, which together form a tract of country remarkable both for beauty of scenery, for vegetable and mineral wealth.

Pictou contains three townships, viz., Pictou, Egerton, and Maxwellton. The general appearance of this district resembles that of most parts of the province, its surface being everywhere diversified by hill and dale, seldom approaching to the altitude of mountains, and nowhere presenting any very extended plains. In consequence of this inequality in its formation, it is well irrigated by streams and brooks, which, by their union, form several rivers. Of these, the East and French Rivers fall into Merrigomish, the East, Middle, and West Rivers, flow into the harbour of Pictou, and Big and Little Rivers discharge themselves into Carriboo, between which and the boundary of the district of Colchester, are the rivers Toney and John.

The north coast, though last settled, is evidently a most important part of Nova Scotia. The fertility of the land, its proximity to the fisheries, its coal and other mineral productions, naturally lead to the conclusion that it will, at no distant period, be the seat of enterprise and wealth. The harbour of Pictou is admirably situated for becoming the emporium of the trade of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and is already the centre of enterprise in that part of the province. Between Baie Verte and the Gut of Canso, it occupies a nearly central position; and from the latter place to Quebec, although there are several harbours, both sheltered and commodious, it is not surpassed by any, either in facility of entrance, good anchorage, or general safety. It has a bar on its mouth, on which is 22 feet at low water; inside the bar, it becomes a capacious and beautiful basin, with five, six, and nine fathom anchorage on a muddy bottom.

The chief town, also named Pictou, situated about three miles from the entrance of the harbour, is a busy and flourishing port, and has a large and increasing trade in timber, coal, and fish. The first house was built in 1790; in 1827, it contained a population amounting to 1,439 souls, with annual exports to the value of £100,000. The houses are good, many of them being built of stone, and there is an excellent academy, library, and grammar school, besides the more ordinary public buildings. The people are chiefly of Scottish descent, and remarkable for their unwavering attachment to the language, music, and costume of the land of their forefathers. The soil of this county is in general very favourable to agriculture, and susceptible of a high state of cultivation: and the last census of produce (that of 1827) shews a great quantity of wheat raised within the county.

Cumberland county is bounded on the N.W. by Chignecto Channel, the Missisquoi River, and part of New Brunswick; on the E. by the Straits of Northumberland; on the S.E. by the district of Colchester; and on the S. by part of the Bay of Fundy. Previous to the year 1784 (when New Brunswick was created a separate government), the township of Sackville was contained within the limits of this county, but it is now a part of New Brunswick, and is called Westmoreland. Cumberland county contains two townships, Amherst and Wallace, and a considerable num

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oer of settlements not comprised within either; viz., Fort Lawrence, Maccan, Nappan, Minudie, West Chester, Pugwash, Fox Harbour, River Philip, Goose River, &c. Adjoining the boundary line, is Fort Lawrence settlement, lying between the Missiguash and the La Planche. On the former river, which is navigable about two miles, there are 2,000 acres of dyke land, one half of which is in New Brunswick; and on the latter river 4,000 acres, one half being in New Brunswick, and the other in Nova Scotia. The fertility of this county is unquestionable, and not inferior to any other portion of America of the same extent. Here stood the rival forts of Lawrence and Beau Sejour (now Cumberland), separated from each other by the little stream of Missiguash. From the bastion of Beau Sejour fort there is a splendid view, embracing the great Tanteimarr and Missiguash meadows, Baronsfields, Westmoreland, and the country at the foot of the Shepody mountains; vast stacks of hay cover these alluvial lands, as far as the eye can reach, and the substantial farm-houses, and numerous herds, bespeak a wealthy and independent yeomanry.

The township of Wallace contains several flourishing settlements. Wallace Town is situate at the mouth of the noble bay of that name, which is navigable for the largest ships above six miles, and for smaller ones above 12. The river Remsheg, after a course of 25 miles, discharges itself into the bay. Pugwash Bay is one of the finest harbours in the county; and the shore is so bold that vessels of 500 tons burthen may lie at all times in safety within 20 yards of it; above the channel, which is not more than a quarter of a mile wide, it becomes a beautiful basin, into which the Pugwash River discharges itself. The river Philip, which unites with several others, also discharges itself into the sea, near Pugwash Harbour. Fox Harbour, on Pugwash Bay, was settled 30 years ago by Scotch Highlanders.

Besides coal, freestone, and grindstone, gypsum abounds at the head of Chignecto Bay, and occasionally on the Maccan. Lime is also found in the vicinity of Amherst, at the river Philip, and at Maccan and Nappan. Although its value in agriculture is not unknown to the inhabitants, it has not been often applied, nor is it probable that it ever will be: the numerous bays, rivers, creeks, and coves by which Cumberland is intersected, presenting in the alluvial deposit a more simple and not less valuable manure.

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The dyked land in this county, exclusive of salt marshes and intervale, exceeds 17,250 acres. West Chester is situated in the centre of the county, on the Cobequid highlands. It was settled by loyalists from New York; but, although the soil is good, the position appears to have been ill chosen, and the settlement has not prospered. The inhabitants of this county are chiefly emigrants (or their descendants) from New York, from the North of Ireland, and from the county of York in England.

The county of Hants is bounded on the W. by Horton, on the N. by the Basin of Mines, on the E. by the Shubenacadie River, and on the S. by parts of the counties of Halifax and Lunenburg. It contains six townships, viz., Windsor, Falmouth, Newport, Rawdon, Kempt, and Douglas.

Windsor, the shire-town of Hants County, is delightfully situated on the Avon River, and contains many respectable private residences and good public buildings; it is distant from Halifax 45 miles, the road to which has been rendered level, and is kept in an excellent state of repair. After passing the boundary of Halifax County, the appearance of the land indicates a decided change in its quality. The sombre spruce and fir, and the dwarf birch, that clothe the country for 20 miles from the capital, are succeeded by a growth of beech mingled with hemlock, elm, and maple; and the surface of the ground is no longer enumbered with heavy masses of stone. From the Ardoise hills the whole of this township is displayed to view, and on a nearer approach it loses nothing of the *prestige* imparted to it by the distant prospect. It was held in great estimation by the French, on account of its extensive and fertile meadows, which they inclosed with dykes, and brought into a high state of cultivation. The crops of wheat raised here were so exceedingly abundant, that for many years previous to the war of 1756, a great quantity was annually exported to Boston.

Newport Township lies on the eastern side of the St. Croix. The upland is good, especially on the banks of that river and the Kennetcook; it is well cultivated and thickly settled. Douglas Township is one of the best in the province, from the large proportion of intervale, marsh, and upland which it contains, and its great mineral resources. The lands on the Shubenacadie are of unsurpassed fertility. Falmouth and Rawdon have fertile uplands. Kempt, which

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is situated on the borders of Mines Basin, has good cod and herring fisheries.

The eastern portion of Nova Scotia now contains two counties, viz., Sydney and Guysborough; but the latter has, till very lately, ranked only as a township, and as such will be mentioned here. Sydney is divided in two districts, Upper and Lower; the Upper forms a triangle, the S. side of which measures 36 miles, the W. 25, and the sea-coast, including the circuit of St. George's Bay, about 50 miles. In an agricultural point of view it is far superior to the Lower District, and notwithstanding the numerous harbours and valuable fisheries possessed by the latter, it is much more densely populated. A large portion of its inhabitants are Scotch; an extensive tract on the N. coast has received the name of Arisaig, and includes settlements called Knoydart, Moydart, &c.

The township of Dorchester, or Antigonish, situate on or about the bay of that name, contains the shire-town of the district, also called Dorchester. It is an orderly and pretty place, with a court-house, a handsome Roman Catholic chapel, a presbyterian and Baptist church, and good private houses. The harbour is six miles in length, but the entrance is narrow and difficult. The land round St. George's is formed into the settlements of Pomquet, Tracadie, and Aubushée, the inhabitants being chiefly Acadians, who pursue the "quiet tenor of their way," here, much in the same manner as elsewhere, but that they employ themselves more in the fishing and coasting trade. The Lower district extends, on its interior or northern boundary, from Cape Porcupine, at the N. end of the Gut of Canso, to the eastern boundary of the district of Halifax, 40 miles; on its western side, from the southern boundary of Pictou to the mouth of Ekemseegam Harbour, 30 miles; and on the sea-coast, including the shore of Chedabucto Bay, 120 miles. According to Bouchette, the township of Guysborough reaches from Crow Harbour to the northern bounds of the lower districts. The original grant was 100,000 acres, made to some American loyalists in 1784. The land of this district is extremely good, but the fisheries afford such lucrative employment, that it is cultivated little more than sufficiently for the internal supply.

The Bay of Chedabucto is the best fishing-ground in Nova Scotia, and can scarcely be

surpassed in productiveness by any other in the world. Great quantities of cod appear early in the season, and, in the summer, herrings of good quality abound. The shoals of mackerel in spring and autumn are of almost incredible extent. Mr. Murray states, that in Guysborough Harbour, 2,000 or 3,000 barrels have been caught in one day, and a seine has sometimes been known to enclose from 800 to 1,000 barrels at a single draught. Crow Harbour and Fox Island are the chief seats of the fishery. The township of Manchester lies between Milford Haven and the Gut of Canso. The soil is very good. The land on the coast of the Atlantic is of the usual description: remarkable for the excellence of its harbours. Country Harbour is a noble port, navigable for the largest ships ten miles above its entrance. On the eastern side, a small town, called Stormont, was built by American refugees, in 1784, but it does not appear to have prospered. Sherbrooke, situated at the head of the navigation of the fine stream St. Mary, is accessible to vessels of 50 to 100 tons, and has a considerable lumber trade.

We now turn to the counties which occupy the western portion of Nova Scotia, beginning with *King's County*, which is bounded on the N. by the Bay of Fundy, on the S. by Lunenburg and Hants, on the E. by Mines Basin, and on the W. by Annapolis. It contains four townships, viz.: Horton, Cornwallis, Aylesford, and Parrsborough. Horton was originally settled by the French, and in it was situated the French village of Minas, of which few traces now remain, excepting the scattered groups of willows, the invariable appendage of an Acadian settlement. The "Grande Prairie" comprised upwards of 2,000 acres of land, dyked and inclosed by the Acadians; and besides this, there were about 5,000 acres also inclosed by their diligent labour. Some years after their expulsion, the emigrants from New England, in 1760, found the dykes in a state of great dilapidation, and the meadows under water; but, with much difficulty and considerable expense, the embankments were restored, and the land has become surprisingly productive.

Kentville is the chief place in the township: it stands on the borders of Cornwallis; the river Gaspreaux, which flows through it, abounds with excellent fish, and is famous for a species called "gaspereaux." Cornwallis Township has an excellent soil, and, from its beauty, has been styled "the garden of the province;" but the adjoining township of

Aylesford is little inferior to it in either respect. Parrsborough is broken and hilly, but not unproductive. The village of that name stands on the neck of land between the bay and Mines Basin, and from thence packets sail frequently to and from Windsor and Horton.

In this district there is a view of singular and remarkable beauty, which opens unexpectedly on the traveller who descends the Horton mountains. A sudden turn of the road displays at once the townships of Horton and Cornwallis, and the rivers that meander through them. Beyond is a lofty and extended chain of hills, presenting a vast chasm, apparently burst out by the waters of 19 rivers, that empty themselves into the Mines Basin, and thence escape into the Bay of Fundy. The variety and extent of this prospect, the beautiful verdant vale of the Gaspereaux, the extended township of Horton, interspersed with groves of wood and cultivated fields, and the cloud-capt summit of the lofty cape, that terminates the chain of the north mountains, form an assemblage of objects rarely united with more striking effect.

Dr. Gesner says, "the scenery in the settlement of New Canaan is extensive and pleasing. Besides a view of the great valley seen from Beech Hill, we have here to the S.W. deep ravines, with steep banks, beneath which winding channels are formed, giving passage to torrents of rain, after they have descended and washed the oval summits of the hills. It is true there are no elevations of great height in this neighbourhood, but the earth is deeply furrowed by the upturned ridges of slate, and offers a landscape singularly diversified, when contrasted with the level appearance of the sandstone district, over which the lofty peak of the frowning Blomidon may be seen, ready to fall into the beautiful basin curling at its base. By turning the eye southward, a long low depression will be perceived. Here the Gaspereaux River, having taken its rise from a large lake, rolls on from cataract to cataract, or murmurs among the strata of slate, where it is compelled to pass."

The county of Lunenburg extends about 40 miles S.W. from that of Halifax, its extreme width being 35 miles; exclusive of the space occupied by nearly 300 small islands, about 200 of which are contained in Mahone Bay, and contribute to the safe anchorage for vessels of the largest magnitude which this spacious harbour affords. The county con-

tains three townships, Chester, Lunenburg, and Dublin, the second of which is next to Halifax, the oldest formed by the English in the province. 400 families of Dutch and Germans were brought out in 1753, at the expense of the British government, which afterwards continued to contribute largely to their support. The settlement has passed through many vicissitudes. Since the war it has greatly increased both in population and wealth. Its annual exports of fish are very large. The people are honest and industrious; they continue to live in the old German style, and to speak the German language. Their houses, furniture, pictures, &c. (for they have all these), are of the same heavy and old-fashioned, but solid and comfortable description. The townships of Chester, Mahone Bay, was settled in 1760. Chester Town is situated on Mahone Bay, about nine miles from its mouth, was settled in 1760, and has a small but good harbour. It is in a thriving state. The inhabitants carry on a considerable lumber trade and fishery, and possess a number of small vessels and several saw-mills. Dr. Gesner speaks in enthusiastic terms of the beauty of Mahone Bay, declaring it to present "one of the most delightful prospects in Nova Scotia. A deep navigable basin, in which numerous islands exhibit their evergreen summits, almost surrounded by a closely populated and neatly cultivated country, are not often seen in that natural and delightful order which is here exhibited." Dublin Township is situated on the river and harbour of La Have, the lands bordering on which are stony and mountainous, but abound with fine timber. On the river there are upwards of 30 saw-mills. In the outer harbour of La Have, are many beautiful islands, affording shelter for vessels, and convenient places for drying and curing fish, of which considerable quantities are taken here. The inner harbour, formed by the river, is capacious, and navigable for 15 miles. The bar at the entrance has 12 feet at low water; inside there are soundings from eight fathoms gradually to three.

Queen's County extends about 30 miles along the coast, and contains two townships, Liverpool and Guysborough. Liverpool is the shire-town of the county, and was made a warehousing port in 1834. It is well, and even regularly built, and has an unusual number of public buildings. A handsome drawbridge, 1,100 feet long, has been erected by the inhabitants across the

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harbour, at a cost of £4,000. The harbour never freezes over, and is valuable as a fishing station; but its usefulness is much impeded by a bar at the entrance, only nine feet deep at low water. On Coffin's Island, at its mouth, is a beacon 70 feet high, with revolving lights. Port Medway, the entrance to which is marked by a high hill on the western, and by low, ragged islands on the southern side, is another capacious harbour, safe and navigable; on it is situated a hamlet, bearing its name, and another called Mill Village, said to have the best land in the county. This, however, is not very high commendation; yet, Sir John Harvey speaking of this coast says: "except along some of the headlands, from the bald rocks of which the ceaseless surge of the Atlantic has swept every trace of soil or vegetation, there is a covering of earth, generally a stiff clay, often, as on the front lands of Lunenburg, Halifax, and Yarmouth, and on the 'hardwood hills,' everywhere scattered through the barrens, of great depth and proved fertility. The labour of clearing lands on this side of the province is very severe, from the prevalence of the surface-stone; but, when cleared, it is valuable, from its proximity to the open harbours, the fisheries, and the growing commercial towns." In 1783 Guysborough Township, on Port Mouton, was settled by the disbanded soldiers of a corps named the British Legion, who had served, with distinction, under General Tarleton; but a dreadful fire, which consumed nearly everything they possessed, reduced them to want. The settlement has never since prospered, and is now the abode only of a few fishermen and lumberers. The adjoining ones of Ports Jolie and Hebert, are also nothing more, although both are shoal harbours.

Annapolis County is bounded on the N. and W. by the Bay of Fundy. At the bottom is the deep bay of St Mary, formed by Long Island, and the narrow peninsula of Digby Neck. Annapolis contains large ranges, both of dyked land and productive, though somewhat stony, upland. It contains five townships, viz., Annapolis, Granville, Wilmot, Clements, and Clare. Annapolis was the capital of the province while in the possession of the French, and continued to be so under British rule, until 1750, when it was superseded as such by Halifax. The town is built on a peninsula, which projecting into the river, forms two beautiful basins, one above and below the town. The fortifications, and even many of the public buildings

of this once famous place are falling into decay from disuse; and the rise of Digby and other places in its vicinity, have greatly injured its trade, while the land immediately surrounding it, being the property of government, forms another barrier to its extension.

Granville and Wilmot Townships comprehend, for 46 miles, the peninsula formed by the river Annapolis, running parallel to the Bay of Fundy; both are well cultivated, thickly settled, and contain a large proportion of excellent land, consisting of dyke, salt marle, intervale, and upland. Bridgetown (so called from a bridge that here crosses the Annapolis) is situated at the head of the navigation of that river, and is a very thriving village.

Clement's Township possesses a rare combination of advantages in good land, valuable fisheries, fine timber, and great mineral wealth. At Moose River the Annapolis Iron Mining Company have erected a foundry, and metal of a very superior quality has been produced.

Clare Township is almost exclusively occupied by the Acadians, who here preserve their peculiar habits and customs, even more exclusively than in any other portion of Nova Scotia. It possesses a peculiar interest from having been allotted to the Acadians by Lieutenant-governor Francklin, when suffered to return from their sad exile. This district was then little better than a wilderness, but the soil was cultivable; the seaweed on the shore afforded them abundance of excellent manure; and, stimulated by the desire of creating for themselves again a position in their native land, they laboured with persevering energy until they had raised Clare into a prosperous settlement. The whole township forms but one parish; there are two handsome Roman Catholic chapels, and the people live a pious and contented life. In 1820 a dreadful conflagration destroyed nearly all their property; but the liberal contributions of the inhabitants of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick aided them in completely retrieving their loss.

The *county* (until recently a township of Annapolis County) of *Digby* occupies the strangely-formed peninsula in the Bay of Fundy which bears its name; it includes within its limits Long and Brian Island, and some good tracts of marsh and intervale land. Of its exact limits there are no data in the Colonial Office. The principal sources of its increased and increasing pros-

perity are its excellent cod and mackerel fisheries, and the shelter which it affords to vessels—the coast in its more immediate vicinity being almost devoid of harbours.

The town of Digby is delightfully situated on the basin of Annapolis, contains several good public buildings, and about 200 houses, and from its salubrious air, is much frequented as a watering-place. It had a wide celebrity for its cured herrings, known over all America under the name of Digby chickens, but of late years they have not been so numerous.

The county of Yarmouth (until recently a township of Shelburne county) forms the central portion of the W. coast of Nova Scotia, opposite the United States. The face of the county is very agreeably diversified, and in point of scenery it is one of the most beautiful portions of Nova Scotia. The climate is more temperate than that of less insulated parts of the province, the mercury very rarely falling as low as zero, nor rising higher than 80°: the mean temperature is about 48°. At a short distance from the salt water, apples, plums, and cherries, succeed well; and on the banks of the Tusket, pears, peaches, and melons ripen. The sea-breeze and the fogs, which occasionally occur in summer, render Yarmouth more suitable for the production of potatoes and grass, the manufacture of butter and cheese, and the rearing of cattle, than for the culture of grain. The soil of the upland is in general strong and productive, but requires much labour in the first instance, before it can be brought into a state of culture. The marshes, though extensive, are very inferior to those at the head of the Bay of Fundy. They yield, when dyked, good grass, but are too spongy to admit of the use of the plough, partaking more of the quality of peat, than of alluvial deposit. The principal harbour is Cape Fourchu, or Fouché, which is large and well sheltered. It is surrounded by mud flats, that are bare at low tides, but the channel is navigable for large ships, as far as the upper part of Yarmouth village, and for small craft as far as the foot of the rock at Milton, while the Sound affords good anchorage for vessels of any size.

The land is well irrigated by the lakes and rivers which intersect it. The Tusket is navigable for boats 32 miles from the sea, and for ships eight miles. Chebogue River is navigable for seven miles from the sea, and, at its mouth, expands into a good harbour.

The growing importance of Yarmouth is remarkable; its rapidly-increasing imports and exports, and the high state of cultivation of the greater part of the district, speak volumes for the skill and energy of its inhabitants, whose enterprising character is evidenced by the sad fact, that from the formation of the settlement in 1760, to 1837, the number of vessels lost belonging to Yarmouth was 167; and of these, 34 were never heard of.

Shelburne county is bounded on the S. and W. by the Atlantic. It is, on the whole, a stony and intractable country, traversed in the interior by ranges of the Blue Mountains; but it contains several good rivers;—the Tusket River, before mentioned; the Sable, which has a course of 20 miles; the Jordan forms the fine harbour of Shelburne, considered one of the best in America; and the Clyde, (so called from its resemblance to the beautiful Scotch river of that name) rises 40 miles in the interior, in an extensive chain of lakes, and at its junction with the sea forms the two harbours called Cape Negro. Shelburne County comprises three townships—Shelburne, Barrington, and Argyle. Shelburne Township was founded by American loyalists, 500 families of whom arrived in the spring of 1783. They laid the plan of a spacious and handsome town, which they expected would rival Halifax; and in the autumn of the same year, their numbers were increased, by an accession of settlers, to upwards of 12,000. The town arose with astonishing rapidity. Money, to the extent of half a million, is supposed to have been lavished upon it. But one important point had been unhappily overlooked; they had forgotten, or miscalculated the long period that must necessarily elapse before the sterile soil could yield them even a precarious subsistence, in return for skilful and unwearied labour. The place was soon comparatively deserted, and is now in a very dilapidated state, notwithstanding the excellence of its harbour. On M'Nutt's Island, at the entrance of the haven, in lat. 43° 40' N., long. 65° 8' W., is a light-house, with two fixed lights, one above the other; the highest 125 feet above the sea. Barrington Township has a stubborn soil, but much of it is covered with a black chocolate-coloured turf, which, when carefully cultivated, produces abundant crops. The climate is much milder than in the eastern portion of the province: the inhabitants subsist almost entirely by fishing. Cape Sable Island (not that on which the first disastrous settlement was made by the

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French) is an adjoining islet belonging to this township, and the most southern point of Nova Scotia. Barrington harbour is useful only for small vessels. At the head of it is the village of that name. Argyle Township adjoins Yarmouth, which it resembles in many respects; but it does not equal it in fertility. The large expanse called Argyle Bay forms the estuary of the river Tusket, and contains about 300 islands, called the Tusquets, many of which are well cultivated, and afford shelter and anchorage for small vessels. Argyle Town was settled by loy-

alists and disbanded soldiers. It is not, at present, a place of much importance. About 13 miles from the shore lies Seal Island, which is resorted to by the fishermen for wood and water, and has been termed "the elbow of the Bay of Fundy." The principal harbour in the township is Pubnico, on which there is an Acadian settlement. There is another at Eelbrooke.

For the leading features in the different counties described in this chapter, I am indebted to Messrs. Haliburton, M'Gregor, Bouchette, Murray, Gesner, and others.

Production and Live Stock of each County in Nova Scotia, according to the last Census in 1827.

Counties in 1827.	Land Cultivated.	Produce.				Stock.			
		Wheat.	Other Grain.	Potatoes.	Hay.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.
	Acres.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Tons.				
Halifax . . .	14,460	5,426	32,317	202,642	11,873	1,480	7,588	8,759	4,160
Colchester . .	29,135	18,644	64,018	292,235	16,756	1,440	10,177	12,713	6,912
Pictou . . .	49,181	38,198	98,562	126,854	11,750	1,609	11,701	21,128	12,945
Cumberland . .	29,308	14,162	34,067	269,807	13,790	1,264	8,228	11,578	5,533
Sydney . . .	39,465	21,919	38,173	363,288	15,794	848	15,706	24,349	7,705
Hants . . .	37,531	18,520	45,328	227,948	19,977	2,486	9,475	14,803	5,927
King's . . .	34,750	25,668	65,100	538,903	25,333	1,789	12,580	18,574	18,514
Lunenburg . .	13,467	1,117	33,148	334,163	10,577	202	8,978	11,238	5,331
Queen's . . .	5,630	12,362	3,478	52,817	3,577	763	2,436	2,737	1,941
Annapolis . .	22,174	5,410	385,478	26,309	21,549	1,351	13,872	27,042	6,804
Total . . .	274,501	161,418	799,665	2,434,786	150,978	13,232	100,739	152,979	75,772

The agricultural produce has much increased since 1827; but, in 1845, the potato disease appeared in Nova Scotia, and destroyed nearly the whole crop. In 1846, the disease spared the early potatoes, but none of the late planted were saved. In 1847 there was immense loss, partly from the rot and partly from the potato not growing, in consequence of the unsoundness of the seed. In addition to these calamities, the weevil, or fly, destroyed, in 1845-7, a very large proportion of the wheat crop. There has, consequently, been severe agricultural and general distress in the province, which has been borne with great fortitude; and in the midst of their privations, the colonists of Nova Scotia subscribed *one thousand pounds sterling*, to aid their suffering fellow-citizens in Ireland and in Scotland.

Nova Scotia is now recovering from its losses, and a few successive bountiful harvests will (under Providence) restore its usual plenty and prosperity. Horticulture is carried on with great success in the neighbourhood of the towns. The apple orchards of the western counties are very productive, and

extend along the road-side, through the township of Granville, in an unbroken line, for 30 miles. Apples and cider are annually exported. Potatoes are sent to the United States, cattle to New Brunswick, and sheep and live stock to Newfoundland. Fine flour is still largely imported from the United States.

According to the "Blue Book" for 1847, the total number of acres granted and sold in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, is as follows:—

Granted.	Nova Scotia.	Cape Breton.	Total.
Acres granted	4,604,799	719,836	5,324,635
" sold	248,168	132,355	380,523
" remaining ungranted	4,356,631	587,481	4,944,112
" granted in 1847	30,536	6,118	36,654
Number of grants	208	50	258

About 50,000 acres have been granted for the support of religion and schools. There have been set apart for the remnant of the Indians in Nova Scotia, 12,050 acres of land, and in Cape Breton, 12,000 acres.

Sir John Harvey states that the land under

GOVERNMENT AND MILITARY DEFENCES OF NOVA SCOTIA. 191

tillage in 1848, comprised 400,000 acres, and adds, that there is, perhaps, an equal amount chopped, used as pasturage, or yielding from the virgin soil, by the rude process common to new countries, a valuable portion of subsistence to recent settlers. A very large part of the whole, perhaps 9,000,000 acres, is still covered with primeval forest, or has only changed its aspect for the worse from the action of fires, which, in the heat of summer, often run over uncultivated portions of the country, deforming its surface and injuring its fertility.

The grants and sales of land in Nova Scotia, from 1831 to 1840, were:—

Grants.				Sales.	
Years.	Acres.	Years.	Acres.	Years.	Acres.
1831	25,328	1838	5,474	1841	5,061
1832	6,254	1837	3,500	1842	1,924
1833	2,229	1838	1,679	1843	4,235
1834	5,327	1839	1,450	1844	8,987
1835	7,650	1840	6,225	1845	21,921
—	—	—	—	1846	35,784

During the same period, there were three grants to military offices, amounting to 2,400 acres.

Abstract of the Sales of Crown Land, &c., from the 31st December, 1838, to the end of 1846.

Years.	Number of Acres.	Amount of Sales paid in.	Installments of preceding years.
1839	10,612	£1,122	£560
1840	6,935	836	609
1841	5,061	722	278
1842	1,924	328	236
1843	4,235	593	75
1844	8,987	1,087	35
1845	21,921	2,536	42
1846	35,784	3,974	151
	95,459	11,188	2,096

The legislature of Nova Scotia has continued for three years an "Act on the Disposal of Crown Lands," which expired in 1846. The principal provisions are:—1st. The Governor and Council to name any fixed price on lands, not less than 1s. 9d. per acre. 2ndly. To grant lands, at such price as they think fit, to occupants who have held and improved the same, without authority. 3rdly. To make free grants to retired officers, and to non-commissioned officers and privates. 4thly. To make reserves, and free grants of such reserves, for the use of the Indians.

By a recent colonial act, the price is further reduced to 1s. per acre; but it is doubtful whether the measure will be confirmed.

The number of immigrants in Nova Scotia

and Cape Breton was, in 1845, 615; in 1846, 698; in 1847, 2,000; in 1848, 140.

The Lieutenant-governor strongly deprecates any extensive emigration of the poorer classes from the United Kingdom to Nova Scotia, on the ground that the province would not afford the people sufficient profitable employment.

GOVERNMENT.—The administration rests on the same popular basis described in the history of Canada. There is a Lieutenant-governor appointed by the crown.

The Executive Council consists of about six members, including the President, the Secretary of the province, and the Attorney and Solicitor-general.

The Legislative Council comprises 19 members, including the Bishop of Nova Scotia.

The House of Assembly is formed of 51 representatives, of whom the counties of Halifax, Pictou, Cumberland, Hants, King's, Queen's, Lunenburg, Sydney, and Guysborough, each return two members, and the other counties one member each. The island of Cape Breton sends six members to the Provincial Legislature; viz., from Cape Breton County, one; Richmond County, one; Inverness County, two; and the townships of Sydney and Arichat, each one member. Halifax township returns two members, and the remaining 18 townships in Nova Scotia, one member each.

The qualification for electors is the possession of land yielding an income worth 40s.; a franchise easily obtainable, owing to the low price of land.

The Nova Scotians enjoy self-government in all things regarding their own internal affairs, as perfectly as a reflective and practical people can desire. Halifax is the only incorporated city; but the townships possess some municipal privileges.

Military Defences.—The militia returns for 1847, show a total of 36,066 men for Nova Scotia, and 8,182 for Cape Breton—44,248. They are divided into regiments and battalions; and subdivided into about 420 companies, with 42 lieutenant-colonels; 51 majors; 362 captains; 318 first lieutenants; 349 second lieutenants; 42 adjutants; 12 pay-masters; and a full staff of commissioned and non-commissioned officers. The rank and file, between 16 and 18 years of age, are 3,618; between 18 and 45 years, 28,996; between 45 and 60 years, 5,839.

The militia regiments are officered under commissions from the crown; and when em-

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bodied for actual service, are subject to martial-law. Every man in the province has a right to carry a gun, and there are few unpractised in the use of fire-arms. The militia of Nova Scotia could soon be rendered a very formidable force, to the number of about 50,000 men.

Two or three regiments of the line are always stationed in the province, which is further protected by the visits of the ships of the royal navy in summer.

The military posts and works, protected by Great Britain, and under the control of the Board of Ordnance, are Fort George or Citadel, Grand Battery, Ogilvie Battery, Prince of Wales Tower, Port Pleasant Battery, N.W. Arm Battery, Fort Needham, Fort Charlotte, George's Island, Fort Clarence, York Redoubt, Sherbrooke Tower, Sambre Island, and Sackville, all at *Halifax*; and at *Windsor*, Fort Edward; at *Annapolis Royal*, Fort Anne; and at *Cape Breton*, Sydney Battery. Various batteries have been constructed at the expense of the colony, for the protection of the different harbours along the coast: there are guns at most of them, which are in charge of the militia.

Laws and Courts.—The laws in force are: 1st. The common law of England. 2nd. The statute law of England. 3rd. The statute law of Nova Scotia. There is a Court of Error, Court of Chancery, Supreme Court, Court of Vice-Admiralty, Court of Marriage and Divorce, Courts of General Sessions of the Peace, and Courts of Probate. Besides these, the magistracy of the province, scattered over every county, possess a power of commitment for criminal offences, and for the collection by summary process of debts under £10. The Supreme Court makes the circuit of the province, and holds sittings twice a-year in each county, in addition to three terms at Halifax. The criminal calendar is generally very light; indeed, it may be safely asserted, that in no part of her Majesty's dominions is the average amount of crime less, in proportion to the population, than in Nova Scotia. In all these courts, natives of the province preside; and the bar, which practises before them, numbering 140 members, includes the names of but very few not born in Nova Scotia.

The *Court of Error* consists of the Lieutenant-governor and the Executive Council. Appeals lie from the Supreme Court, where the sum in dispute exceeds £300.

The *Court of Chancery* is similar in its

constitution, powers, and mode of procedure, to the Chancery Court in England. The Lieutenant-governor is Chancellor, *ex officio*. He is ordinarily assisted by the Master of the Rolls and four Masters in Chancery. No salary is attached to the office of Chancellor. His fees, in 1844, amounted to about £30. The Master of the Rolls receives a salary of £650, without fees. The Masters receive no salaries, but are entitled to fees regulated by law.

The *Supreme Court* consists of a Chief Justice and four Assistant Judges. It sits at Halifax, three times a-year, and in each of the counties of the province, twice a-year, and exercises a general criminal and civil jurisdiction throughout the province.

The travelling expenses of the judges, when on circuit, are defrayed by an allowance of one guinea per day to each, paid from the provisional treasury.

The *Courts of General Session of the Peace* are, in constitution and practice, similar to the Courts of Quarter Sessions in England, but the power of trial by jury therein, has been transferred to the Supreme Court.

Courts of Vice Admiralty.—The Judge of this court is also the Master of the Rolls in Chancery. No salary is attached to the office. Very little business is transacted in this court.

Court of Marriage and Divorce.—Consists of the Lieutenant-governor and the Executive Council; the Lieutenant-governor being President and the Chief Justice Vice-president. Established by Provincial Act, 4 Vict., c. 13.

Courts of Probate.—The Provincial Act, 5 Vict., c. 32, establishes courts for the Probate of Wills and granting Administrations in each county of the province. The courts consist respectively of a judge and registrar, paid by fees.

The Press.—is as free as that of England. There are at present 13 newspapers published in the capital, and five in the interior. The circulation of English newspapers has increased an hundred-fold since the establishment of the line of steam-packets, and all the leading periodicals of the United Kingdom are looked for with as much eagerness, and received with as much certainty, as the London newspapers were in Scotland and Ireland a few years ago. The cheap literature of the mother country is also widely diffused over this province, while the more expensive books find their way to the collections of the wealthy or into the public libraries.

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The "Art Union" has been the means of promoting the dissemination of paintings and engravings. Among the public institutions, is the Halifax Subscription Library, the Halifax Mechanics' Subscription Library, the Halifax Mechanics' Institute, Dartmouth Mechanics' Institute, Sydney (Cape Breton) Mechanics' Institute, Pictou Literary and Scientific Society, and the Young Men's Debating Club, Halifax. There is a Central Board of Agriculture at Halifax; and twenty Agricultural Societies in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton. There is also a Horticultural Society at Halifax.

Education.—The provincial legislature, as also many private individuals, have made strenuous efforts for promoting the benefits of education. By an Act passed in 1811, any settlement consisting of 30 families, raising a sum of not less than £50 by assessment, after the manner of poor-rates, are

entitled to £25 from the treasury of the province, towards the establishment of a school or schools.

At Halifax there is a National, a Catholic, Acadian, Grammar, and St George's schools. There are academies at Pictou, Windsor, Horton, Yarmouth, Annaolis, &c. There are besides, in the several counties and districts of the province, 1,025 common schools, at which, in 1847, 84,380 children received instruction. A large number of these are poor children, who are taught gratuitously. These schools are supported, in part, by the province, and partly by subscription. The expense of each school, including stationery and fuel, is about £30 per annum. There are also about 40 schools in different parts of the country, which are chiefly supported by the "Society for the Propagation of the Gospel." A respectable high school, or academy, is maintained in each county.

Abstract of Returns of Common Schools, for the Year 1842.

County or District.	Number of Schools.	Scholars.			Income. (Shillings and Pence excepted.)		
		Paid.	Free.	Total.	From People.	From Treasury.	Total.
Halifax, Western, exclusive of City	17	800	103	903	£380	£209	£589
Halifax, Eastern	15	494	613	140	654
Colchester	53	1,500	165	1,665	1,419	329	1,749
Pictou	78	3,872	195	3,977	2,146	542	2,688
Sydney	36	911	100	1,011	849	301	1,150
Guysborough	22	699	111	810	446	231	677
St. Mary's	13	337	54	391	233	90	324
Hants	45	1,545	132	1,677	908	330	1,328
King's	61	1,075	369	1,445
Annapolis	55	1,478	292	1,770	1,830	367	2,187
Digby	49	1,079	109	1,188	921	305	1,226
Yarmouth	62	1,276	282	1,558
District of Shelburne	18	416	30	446	320	129	449
District of Barrington	24	508	65	573	358	153	511
Queen's	30	658	33	691	510	230	740
Lunenburg	53	1,384	180	1,564	1,139	401	1,541
Cumberland	55	1,698	98	1,796	1,589	348	1,937
Cape (Cape Breton)	47	1,615	158	1,771	1,019	316	1,334
Breton (Richmond)	22	639	73	612	447	294	741
Island (Inverness)	386	—
Total	755	18,949	1,896	21,339	17,484	5,749	22,847
Combined Grammar and Common Schools	42	1,603	151	1,894	2,883	1,620	4,365
Grand Total	797	20,552	2,047	23,233	20,367	7,369	27,202

Sound education is of great importance for the preservation of the unity of the British empire; by instruction based on Christian principles, angry passions are softened, prejudices allayed, virtuous tendencies strengthened, and self-improvement promoted. An industrious, moral, and contented people are more easily governed and retained

in allegiance to sovereign rule than an ignorant and semi-civilised race, whose passions and prejudices render them the tools of any designing demagogue. It is therefore the true policy of England, to diffuse among her people the knowledge of their actual condition, to enable them rightly to appreciate their privileges and fulfil their duties.

104 EXPENDITURE FOR COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS IN NOVA SCOTIA.

The amount of the grants from the revenues of the province for the above schools, and for the colleges and academies in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton was £11,998, distributed as follows:—

Dalhousie College	£400
King's College, Windsor	400
St. Mary's College	444
Acadia College	444
Sydney Academy	200
Academy at Port Hood	100
Instruction of the Indians	300
Unlace's Schools, Halifax	100
Wesleyan Schools, Halifax	100
African Schools, Halifax	100
Infant Schools, Halifax	50
Infant Schools, Pictou	50
School in Poor-house, Halifax	25
Grammar School, Halifax	150
National School, Halifax	150
Roman Catholic School, Halifax	80
Academy at Yarmouth	135
Ditto Lunenburg	100
Ditto Annapolis	75
Athlon Academy at Annapolis	25
Academy at Colchester	100
Ditto Cumberland	100
Ditto Sydney	100
Ditto Guysborough	100
Ditto Cape Breton	100
Ditto Inverness	100
Ditto Helmsford	100
Ditto Digby	100
Ditto Shelburne	100
Ditto Queen's County	100
Acadia School	100
St. George's School	100
Combined Common and Grammar Schools	1,620
Common Schools	5,749

Total £11,998

By the Common School Act of 1823, the province is divided into districts, in which the people appoint their own trustees, and manage their schools on a popular basis, controlled only by Boards of Commissioners, appointed by the executive. This Act is subject to the revision of the legislature every three or four years. There is an excellent Mechanics' Institute at Halifax, and similar useful institutions in different parts of the province.

There are four collegiate institutions in the province. King's College, at Windsor, was founded in 1803, under a royal charter, his grace the Archbishop of Canterbury being the patron. The Lieutenant-Governor, the Bishop of Nova Scotia, and other provincial officers, form a Board of Directors. The statutes of the college are similar to those of Oxford, but religious tests in regard to graduates have been removed many years. The institution is under the immediate management of a president, with a salary of

£312. A professor of mathematics, natural philosophy, and astronomy, with a salary of £176; and a lecturer in modern languages and literature, with a salary of £100. There are 22 students; and in connection with the college is an academy or preparatory school, with about 23 scholars. The college is supported by temporary annual grants from the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, amounting to £900 sterling in 1844, and by an allowance of £400 sterling, per annum, granted by a permanent Act of the Provincial Legislature.

Dalhousie College, at Halifax, has three professorships.

Acadia College, at Horton, was incorporated by Act of the Legislature in 1840, and is under the control of the Nova Scotia Baptist Education Society. There are three professors, and 21 students.

St. Mary's College, or seminary at Halifax, was established in 1841, and is under the control of the Roman Catholic body. There are four professors, one teacher, and 40 students.

As the different colleges are connected with different interests, and evince a sectarian rivalry, prejudicial to sound learning and the spirit of Christianity, endeavours have been made by the Earl of Dalhousie and Sir James Kempt, to procure an union of the colleges, so as to form one establishment, and place the higher branches of education on a more permanent foundation. Lord Glenelg, Lord Stanley, and other colonial secretaries, strongly recommended the measure, which has not yet, however, been carried into effect.

Religion.—The Established Church is under the direction of a bishop and an archdeacon. In 1847 there were 35 clergymen, whose incomes varied from £150 to £250 a-year, with, in most parishes, a parsonage house and a glebe of 300 to 600 acres. The diocese of Nova Scotia was created in 1787. The Nova Scotia "Blue Book" for 1847 (which is very defective, compared with the full details given in the Blue Books of other colonies) does not state the number of ministers of Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, and other denominations.

It is difficult to state the number of ministers of the Presbyterian Church, as they are divided into several synods. The synod of Nova Scotia, "in connection with the Established Church of Scotland," had, in 1848, three ministers; the synod of Nova Scotia

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"adhering to the Westminster standard," about 12 ministers in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton; the "Presbyterian Church of Nova Scotia" about 26 ministers; the "Wesleyan Missionaries in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton," number about 20; the "Evangelical Lutheran" and the "Universalist" churches, each one minister; the "Baptist ministers" are in number 40; the "Free Christian Baptist ministers" are nine; the "Free-Will Baptist ministers," seven, and two missionaries to travel through different parts of Nova Scotia; the "Free and Sovereign Grace Baptists" have one minister; the "African Baptist Church," one; and the "African Episcopal Methodist Church," one. The Roman Catholic church has two dioceses in the province, one for Nova Scotia and the other for Cape Breton. The bishop of Halifax has under him a vicar-general and 13 priests. The bishop of Arichat (Cape Breton) a vicar-general and 19 priests.

The different churches are sustained by those who take an interest in them; and religious distinctions are happily attended with few inconveniences. There are in the province a Diocesan Church Society, a Bible Society, Naval and Military Societies, Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Auxiliary Society, a Baptist Education Society, a Board for Foreign and Domestic Missions, a Lay Association in support of the Church of Scotland, St. John's Church Young Men's Religious Association, a Halifax Bethel Union, a Pictou Auxiliary Bible Society, and a Seamen's Friend Society.

Of charitable societies there were also, in 1848, a Nova Scotia Philanthropic Society, a "Youths" ditto, St. George's, Charitable Irish, Juvenile Charitable Irish, Highland, and North British societies. A Halifax Dispensary, an African Friendly, and African Abolition Society. Of temperance societies there are the Halifax, the Halifax Female, Dartmouth, St. Mary and St. Patrick's societies; Halifax Young Men's, and the Pictou Total Abstinence societies; and the Sons of Temperance.

The Roman Catholic bishop took the temperance pledge publicly, and then administered it to many of his congregation. Some of the temperance processions number 400 members. Great good has been effected by these valuable institutions. Of masonic lodges there are 13 in Nova Scotia, and one in Cape Breton; and of the "St. John's Priory of Knights Templars and Appendant Orders, holden of the Supreme Grand Con-

clave of Scotland," of which Lord Glenlyon is the grand master, and the Earl of Dalhousie the grand seuechal, there are three, viz.—the St. Andrew's Royal Arch Chapter, the Thistle, and the Acadia.

Crime.—The "Blue Book" for 1847, reports a nearly total absence of crime, and that there are no debtors in the prisons.

Finances.—The revenue derived from taxes, viz., customs, excise, light dues, and incidental, was, in 1832, £47,200; in 1836, £40,466; in 1846, £82,776. No part of the revenue of the province is derived from direct taxes. The customs duties are levied under the authority of the Act of the Imperial Parliament 8 and 9 Vic. for regulating the trade of the British possessions abroad, and the Acts in amendment thereof. The amount of those duties collected at the custom-house, and paid into the provincial treasury for the year ending 6th January, 1847, was £20,251 sterling. The colonial impost duties levied by authority of an Act of the Provincial Legislature, passed 31st March, 1846, yielded in 1847 £43,531.

The total revenue collected in 1847 was, fixed customs, £20,251; colonial imposts, £43,531; light dues, £3,318; total, £76,101; incidental, £6,676, including £4,700 received from savings' bank, proceeds of bills of exchange, &c.; receipts in aid of revenue, £18,569, including amount of bills drawn by the collector of customs on the Receiver-general in England, £3,448; stipends of clergymen of Nova Scotia paid from the military chest, £3,062; deducted from post-office revenue, £6,502; bills drawn by bishop and archdeacon on her majesty's treasury, and by clergymen on the Society for Propagating the Gospel, £1,700; casual and territorial revenue, £9,678, including rent and proceeds of her Majesty's coal-mines in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, £5,714; sales of crown lands, £3,408; fees, £549. The total receipts obtained in 1847 were, therefore, £111,025. The population of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton (in round numbers) is 300,000, and the taxation about £110,000 a-year, the sum contributed by each individual in the colony is only seven shillings per annum.

The tariff for 1847 was fixed by the legislature of Nova Scotia as follows:—Anchors, cables, ashes, barley, beans, books, coal, coin, copper wrought or cast, corn, fish, oil, flax, furniture (working tools belonging to emigrants for use), hemp, hides, horns, iron, wrought, cast, &c., machinery, nets, ores,

palm oil, pitch, plate, rags, rice, rosin, sails, salt, seeds, skins, sugar, maple, tar, tobacco unmanufactured, tow, turpentine, whalebone, —all admitted *duty free*. The duties on some of the other principal articles imported were, on candles—tallow, 1*d.* per lb.; wax, &c., 3*d.* per lb.; chocolate or cocoa paste, 1*d.* per lb.; coffee, 4*s.* 4*d.* per cwt.; clocks under 20*s.* value, 5*s.*; others, 10*s.*; materials for clocks 20 per cent. on value; leather, sole dressed, 1*d.* per lb.; ditto upper, ½*d.*; boots and shoes 10 per cent. on value; spirits made within the province, 1*s.* 4*d.* per gal., except rum, which is charged with 7*d.* per gal.; spirits imported, 1*s.* 8*d.* per gal.; sugar, bastard, 4*s.* per cwt.; crushed, 6*s.* per cwt.; refined, 8*s.* per cwt.; muscovado, 2*s.* per cwt.; tea, black, 1½*d.* per lb.; gunpowder, 3*d.* per lb.; tobacco manufactured, 1½*d.* per lb.; wines, 1*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per gal.; manufacture of wood, 10 per cent.; all other goods, wares, and merchandize, 5 per cent.

The light dues yielded in 1847 £3,318, and are levied at the rate of 4½ per ton on every vessel cleared at any custom-house in the province, and on every vessel coming into any port or place in the province from any port or place out of the province. A certificate of these dues being paid, exempts a vessel from any further payment to the 31st March following the date of the certificate. By means of this fund, which is held sacred to the building and maintenance of light-houses, and liberally supported by Canada, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, 20 light houses are in full operation, under the management of a board of commissioners.

About £10,000 a-year is locally levied in direct taxation for the support of the poor, and county charges. Every adult is compelled to perform statute labour on the roads; but this labour may be commuted by a money payment, if preferred. Roads and bridges are maintained by this contribution, in aid of which the legislature grants an annual sum, which has risen as high as £35,000, and seldom falls below £25,000 a-year.

The expenditure of Nova Scotia in 1847 was, civil establishment, £12,166; customs, £9,462; judicial, £5,688; ecclesiastical, £7,662; legislature, £3,745; militia, £600; pensions, £920; roads and bridges, £30,863; education, £11,182; navigation security, £4,576; bounties, £20; postal communication, £7,163; humane establishment on

Sable Island, £2,156; famine relief for Ireland and Scotland, £1,000; penitentiary, £1,160; repairs of public buildings, £1,593; principal and interest of funded debt, £9,762; other miscellaneous disbursements, £12,595; total in 1847, £122,222; and in 1846, £109,905.

The salaries are, lieutenant-governor, £3,500; provincial secretary, £1,000; treasurer, £480; commissioner of crown lands, Nova Scotia, £500; in Cape Breton, £332; collector of colonial duties, £560; deputy post master, £500; surveyor-general, £150; private secretary to governor, £250. *Law*: chief justice, £1,000; four puisne judges, £2,510; master of the rolls, £650; attorney-general, £600; solicitor-general, £100. *Ecclesiastical*: bishop, £2,000; archdeacon £300.

Legislature.—Legislative Council expenses, £575; speaker of House of Assembly, £160; pay of members of the House of Assembly and travelling expenses, £2,096; clerk of the House of Assembly, £240; assistant clerk to the House of Assembly, £160.

The bishop of Nova Scotia has £2,000 a-year; the archdeacon, £300; and there are from 28 to 30 clergymen; missionaries of the Society for Propagating the Gospel, with salaries varying from £150 to £170 per annum. The Ecclesiastical charge for 1847, was £7,662. Paid by Great Britain.

£1,840 is voted towards steam commissions, viz., between Pictou and Quebec, £500; Pictou, Prince Edward Island, and Cape Breton, £340; Halifax and Yarmouth, £500; and £500 to the "North America," which plies between Halifax and Newfoundland.

The "Blue Book" for 1847 gives the following recapitulation of expenditure (shillings and pence excepted):—

Establishments.	Paid by Great Britain.	Paid by Colony.
Civil Establishment . . .	£4,407	£3,200
Contingent Expenses . . .	2,648	2,000
Legislature		3,745
Judicial Establishment . . .	2,480	2,480
Contingent Expenses . . .	45	683
Ecclesiastical Establishment	7,662	
Military		665
Customs	9,383	80
Miscellaneous Expenses . . .	7,987	73,762
Pensions	200	720
	£34,815	£87,499
Total	£122,221.	

EXPENDITURE FROM THE BRITISH TREASURY FOR NOVA SCOTIA. 197

In the year 1847 the public debt of the province was £77,750, of which sum about £50,000 was in circulation as paper money, under the guarantee of the provincial government.

The colonial expenditure for the year 1846-47, on account of Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, is stated in a parliamentary return, dated 20th April, 1849, to be as follows:—Military expenditure, £170,464; civil expenditure, £12,077; naval expenditure, £2,115; total, £184,656.

The expenditure incurred by Great Britain for military protection, and in aid of the civil establishment was, in 1847, as follows:—Supplies for rations of provisions and forage, £3,709; fuel and light, £2,636; regimental and staff pay, £31,261; land and water transport contingencies, &c., £5,765; total (shillings and pence excepted), £48,374; military works of defence, £14,046; subsistence royal engineers, £1,815; subsistence royal artillery, £3,848; ordnance establishment, £1,947; barrack establishment, £2,752; barrack supplies, £317; wages, £1,408; = £26,136. In aid of the civil establishment, stipends for missionaries, £3,062; grand total, £77,572. The above is the total expense defrayed by the commissariat chest for the services stated; but many officers of the line receive their pay through their agents in London. The troops do not receive any advantage from the colony, except marching-money. The amount of bills drawn during the year 1847, was £104,979.

Commerce.—The geographical position of Nova Scotia, its fine harbours, and the maritime character of the people—to whom the sea is a familiar object from childhood, and,

“Who turn what some deem danger to delight,”

all indicate that this almost insulated province is eminently adapted for a commercial emporium. Sir John Harvey, in his Report to Earl Grey with the “Blue Book” for 1847, says:

“The farmers’ sons in the midland counties, where ship-building is also carried on, become shipwrights, mariners, or masters of coasters and plaistermen, just as the prospects of advantage are presented, or accident may give a bias to the mind. Further east the coal trade, the supply of West India produce to Canada or of agricultural productions to Newfoundland, offer to the enterprising their peculiar attractions. The west has its grindstones, cordwood, and other articles, to convey to the United States; and on the southern seaboard the coast and deep sea fisheries people the rugged caves and inlets which indent it

with a hardy race, to whom farming and gardening are but the amusements of an idle hour, whose homes and whose occupations are on the sea. An active coasting trade springs naturally in a country so situated, it becomes intercolonial almost as soon as it is generated; as in some cases only a narrow strait or arm of the sea divides one colony from another, while the supply of the British West Indies very early attracted towards those islands from Nova Scotia an extensive trade in fish and lumber.

“Prior to 1824 the foreign trade of Nova Scotia was very limited, but the changes in the commercial policy of the empire, suggested and carried through by Mr Huskisson, opened a wider field for colonial enterprise, of which the North Americans were slow to avail themselves. With every relaxation yielded by the Imperial Parliament the foreign commerce of the colonies has attained a further development and Nova Scotia vessels, besides their traffic with the neighbouring states, Canada and the West Indies, now trade to the Baltic, the Mediterranean, China, the Mauritius, the East Indies, the Brazil, the Havana, and our merchants and mariners are fast acquiring an accurate acquaintance with distant seas and with foreign markets in every part of the world.

“Carrying out the policy suggested in your Lordship’s despatch of 31st December, 1846, and co-operating under the auspices of Lord Elgin, the Colonial Legislatures have adopted measures for establishing among the northern group a free inter-colonial trade, only modified by considerations which touch sources of revenue already pledged for indispensable fiscal obligations.

“One further change is now anxiously desired and as confidently anticipated. It is the realization of that policy, suggested in the correspondence between Lord Palmerston and Mr Bancroft, for an unrestrained reciprocal commerce between Great Britain and the United States, and the repeal of the Navigation Laws. Such measures would give a stimulus to the trade of all those colonies; and their population would gladly welcome American vessels into their rivers and bays, provided the whole continent south to Mexico were open to their tonnage; and if their fish, timber, deals, coal, and agricultural productions were admitted on equally favourable terms into the ports of the United States. Negotiations have been suggested, I believe, between the governments of Canada and Washington on the basis of the Bill recently introduced to Congress by Mr. Grinnell, and Nova Scotia would cheerfully avail herself of any advantages which Canada may thus secure.”

The trade between Nova Scotia and Great Britain has, for some years, been almost stationary, especially as regards imports from the parent state. The exports of the province have largely increased between 1827 and 1847, especially as regards the commerce of the West Indies and North America. The total value of the exports was nearly quadrupled in 20 years; and the shipping employed was increased in about the same proportion. If the government of the United States granted reciprocity of trade to British America, Nova Scotia would be materially benefited by such an act of justice.

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The trade of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton with different countries, will be seen by the following returns for the years 1847 and 1827:

Imports, Exports, Shipping.	Great Britain.	British Possessions.			United States.	Foreign States.	Total.
		West India.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
Imports in 1847—							
Nova Scotia—value . . .	£328,726	£28,850	£177,040	£1,469	£306,418	£160,984	£1,004,487
Cape Breton „ . . .	4,189	—	10,550	2,041	8,965	1,112	27,468
Total Imports in 1847 . . .	£330,915	£28,850	£187,590	£4,110	£309,383	£171,106	£1,031,955
Ditto in 1827 . . .	£307,907		£190,309		£312,603		£810,819
Exports in 1847—							
Nova Scotia—value . . .	£68,217	£201,808	£207,808	£5,467	£266,261	£31,630	£773,211
Cape Breton „ . . .	3,587	607	29,196	1,120	16,669	6,679	57,860
Total Exports in 1847 . . .	£71,804	£202,415	£237,004	£8,587	£474,950	£38,309	£831,071
Ditto in 1827 . . .	£121,617		£107,738		£36,922		£267,277
Shipping in 1847—							
Nova Scotia	Tons. 63,370	Tons. . .	Tons. 123,909	Tons. . .	Tons. 174,466	Tons. 5,773	Tons. 387,458
Cape Breton	3,079	. .	23,615	. .	18,679	1,032	49,005
Total Tonnage, in 1847 . . .	67,049	. .	140,524	. .	193,085	6,805	416,463
Ditto in 1827	22,615	. .	100,324	. .	10,874		123,813
Increase	44,434	. .	40,200	. .	189,016		282,650

The principal imports at Nova Scotia in 1847, from Great Britain were, dry goods, £81,128; cordage, £23,516; chain cables, £7,249; canvass, £3,819; earthenware, £6,084; books and stationery, £3,401; glass, £6,173; hardware, £12,011; hats or caps, £2,565; iron and castings, £27,990; indigo, £2,125; nets and lines, £7,385; nails, £5,985; linseed oil, £3,425; paint, £4,584; iron pipes, £2,893; tea, £53,987; sugar, £5,075; salt, £13,347; soap, £5,740; stores, £2,082; wine, £4,461; brandy, £10,721; Geneva, £5,715.

The imports at Cape Breton were in proportion to those of Nova Scotia. The exports to Great Britain, from Nova Scotia, consisted chiefly of—flour, £8,079; corn, £3,201; meal, £5,433; lumber and timber, £35,200. Fish was exported to the West India colonies to the value of £117,000; and lumber, £35,000. To the United States, the Nova Scotia colonists exported fish in 1847, to the value of £160,700; grindstones, £13,221; gypsum, £6,746; unrefined sugar, £8,668; firewood, £6,132; and coal, £12,000. To foreign states, they exported fish to the value of £30,000.

The grindstones exported amount to 1,500 tons—42,000 piccs. The value of the grind-

stones raised in Cumberland County, in 1847, was £13,221. The gypsum exported, 25,000 tons. Coal exported from Nova Scotia, 75,000 chaldrons; and from Cape Breton, 32,000 chaldrons. Salt-springs exist in the neighbourhood of Mount Thom, in the County Cumberland, from which salt has been made. These springs are numerous in the eastern section of the province. Eight miles N. of the town of Pictou is a bed of copper ore, intermixed with majestic trees, which have been converted into coal, but still retain their natural form and external appearance; and in some instances, the vegetable fibres of the wood, impressions of the leaves, bark, and all those figures so common on the surface of the living plant. Sometimes the whole tree has been transformed into lignite; in other instances only a partial change has been effected, and the ancient herbage of a productive climate is now half stone, half coal, intermixed with green carbonate of copper, forming a beautiful efflorescence in their delicate crevices.

The Albion coal mines at Pictou, in Nova Scotia, yielded, in 1828, 4,467 chaldrons; in 1831, 8,345 chaldrons; in 1833, 19,890 chaldrons; and in 1847, 35,104 chaldrons; value £42,123. The strata is similar in

formation to those of the Staffordshire coal-fields. The Sydney mines, at Cape Breton, yielded, in 1847, 26,061 chaldrons, Newcastle measure; value £37,528. The Bridgeport mines, 68 chaldrons, 18 bushels, Newcastle measure; value £98 12s. 2d. The Cape Breton coals are similar to those of Newcastle, in England.

His late Royal Highness the Duke of York obtained from the crown in 1825, a lease for sixty years of all the mines and minerals of every description in Nova Scotia and in Cape Breton, excepting those contained in lands previously granted, where the crown had not reserved the minerals. This right was subleased to the "General Mining Association," at a fixed rent of £3,000 per annum. The operations of this association commenced in the year 1827, and have hitherto been confined to the working of coal-mines and the discovery of iron ore. The coal-mines worked in Nova Scotia are those termed the *Albion*, on the banks of the East River, in the district of Pictou, distant eight and-a-half miles from the town of that name. A railroad has been constructed from the mines to the port of shipment, as the East River is not navigable for burthensome craft to within six miles of the mines. The coal is raised from several shafts by the aid of steam and winding engines. The establishment at the mines consists of about 200 persons, employed in the mines, the foundry, railroad, barges, brick-kilns, &c.; and the town of New Glasgow owes its birth to the presence and operations of the General Mining Association. It is right, however, to state, that some of the colonists complain, that the mineral wealth of the province has been granted to the creditors of the late Duke of York, and the riches which would have materially benefited their country, and contributed to their public revenue, are abstracted for the benefit of a few individuals. The General Mining Association have, however, as far as practicable, lessened the evil of the grant by the application of English money to the working of the mines. Its capital, £400,000, divided into 20,000 shares, of £20 each, has been applied to the operations in Nova Scotia.

The Report to her majesty's government, for 1847, contains the following account of the state of manufactures in the province:—

"The manufactures of Nova Scotia are, as yet, of an extremely simple and unpretending character.

Coarse cloths, or homespuns, woven by the wives and daughters of the peasantry, are made in all the settlements, and are generally worn by that class; the more affluent dressing in English broadcloth only on the Sabbath. Some of these home fabrics are of hand some patterns. Fulling-mills exist in the older townships, in which this cloth is thickened and dyed. Where these are too distant the dyeing is a simple household process. Sheep are kept on every farm, and supply the raw material. Coarse flannel for under garments, bed linen, woollen blankets, and carpets are also made. Flax grows luxuriantly; but hand-spun and woven is not considered profitable, the British article finding its way into the provinces at prices so low. Power-looms are unknown here. Tanning, to the extent of the preservation of all the hides grown in the country, and of those occasionally imported from South America, is also practised. The yards are not extensive, except in the neighbourhood of the capital (in some of which steam power is used), and many farmers tan their own leather in hogsheds sunk by the road-side, or in pits of the simplest construction. Leather is imported occasionally from Canada, and sheepskins and wool are exported to the United States.

"Saw-mills are numerous; but the extensive and costly establishments, common to Canada and New Brunswick, do not exist in Nova Scotia, as we have not the pine forests to sustain them; but all the lumber required for the construction of buildings, and of ships and vessels for the supply of our own commerce or for exportation, is sawed within the country. Pine lumber is extensively shipped from the eastern ports to Newfoundland, from the western to the West Indies, forming a deck load for vessels carrying out fish. Plank and deals are also manufactured for exportation to the mother country, and, of late, sleepers for railroads have been in some demand. Occasional cargoes of ton timber are also shipped; but this branch of trade, never very profitable to individuals or advantageous to the country ere the forests had receded before the progress of cultivation, is less so now, and has been almost abandoned.

Of iron manufactures for exportation, except stoves to some of the colonies, and chain cables to the United States, there are none. Forges, however, are found in all the villages and hamlets, and are numerous in the larger towns. These supply iron-works for mills, ship-building, agricultural carriages and implements, and shoes for cattle. Stoves are imported from the Carron works of Canada and the United States, and iron manufactures of all kinds are largely imported from the mother country. The iron-mines of Nova Scotia are not worked, for want of capital. An experiment was tried at Moose River some years ago, by a company, whose skill and knowledge were not equal to their enterprise. The capital was sunk, and the work abandoned.

"Leather, to the extent of the whole quantity tanned in the country, is manufactured every year. Little is ever exported, while some comes in from England, Canada, and the United States. Boots, shoes, saddlery, and harness, are made up in all the towns and villages, but the supply (of the quantity and at the prices to compete with imported articles) is not equal to the demand, England and the United States largely supplying the market, injuring it may be, for a time, but ultimately stimulating and improving the domestic manufacture.

"Household furniture, carts, carriages, ploughs, and other agricultural implements, buckets, fish-

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total.

4,487
27,468

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200 FISHERIES, AND THEIR VALUE IN NOVA SCOTIA. SHIPPING.

barrels, and boxes, are made in great quantities, and various manufactories of wood flourish in Nova Scotia, and yield profitable employment to those who conduct these branches of business.

"Tobacco, confectionery, printing, and wrapping paper, hats, and some other articles are manufactured in the neighbourhood of Halifax, where are also several distilleries for the preparation of spirits from molasses. Bonnets of bleached grass, and hats of straw, are made in many of the rural districts. Buildings are of wood almost universally. Some good stone and brick houses are to be seen in Halifax, and the other larger towns, but these form exceptions to the general rule. Stone houses carelessly built are apt to be damp in this climate; a prejudice against them in consequence generally entertained, which, added to the low price of lumber, gives wood the preference, and may for the next 20 years. But, as wood becomes scarce, more permanent structures will take the place of those usually deceiving, or liable to destruction by fire. Stone for building materials, abounds in Nova Scotia. Granite of the finest quality, on the south coast, is inexhaustible. Freestone is found all along the northern shore, and slate quite equal to that of Wales in the central region."

There are no means of obtaining correct returns with regard to the fisheries, as the fishermen are not bound to take out shipping papers, and very few of the small shallops are registered. In 1837, the dry fish exported was 176,156 quintals; pickled fish, 47,693 barrels. In 1847, according to the Blue Book, the quantity of dry fish exported from Nova Scotia Proper was 224,859 quintals, value £78,600; pickled fish, 206,911 barrels, 82 tierces, 5,816 half barrels, and 4,848 kits, value £120,753; 2,089 boxes smoked herrings, value £1,506. Total for Nova Scotia, value £200,859. For Cape Breton, 56,312 quintals dry fish, value £24,419; 2,985 barrels mackeval, value £17,200; 335 barrels herrings, value £1,492; 335 barrels salmon, value £670; 12,399 barrels pickled fish, value £10,124; seal skins, £840; oil of all kinds, £8,300. Total, £63,045.

The official Report for 1847 states, that around the shores of the Basin of Mines and Bay of Fundy, great quantities of shad and bass are caught in wears, at every flux and reflux of the tide. The Basin of Annapolis has a fishery peculiar to itself, of small herrings caught in wears, which are smoked and packed in boxes. These are much prized, and find a ready sale in foreign markets.

The cod and haddock fisheries are actively prosecuted all along the southern coast; these fish are found in deep water very near the shores, but the principal catch is taken on the banks about ten miles off, the poorer fishermen rowing or sailing out in their whale-boats, and returning every night.

Small decked vessels are fitted out by those who are able to keep them, and these generally remain on the grounds till they have completed their lading. The Nova Scotians also participate in the Gulf and Labrador fisheries, and pay occasional visits to the banks and shores of Newfoundland. The export of cod-fish, in 1847, was 313,822 quintals, valued at £125,442 sterling.

In spring the shoals of mackerel, making their way from the south to the north, and returning in the fall, glide along the coasts and headlands of Nova Scotia, and penetrate into the coves and inlets, where immense quantities of them are caught with seines, and hauled on shore; 500 barrels are by no means an uncommon draught, and 1,000 are sometimes taken. In the autumn of 1846, mackerel were taken in such abundance, that it was difficult to procure salt and barrels for their preservation. Mackerel are also taken in nets all around the shores.

Herrings are caught at times in great quantities. The following return for 1847 will give an idea of the pickled fish trade, which is annually becoming of more importance, and which, were the markets of the United States thrown open to Nova Scotia, is capable of almost indefinite extension:—

From Nova Scotia Proper.—Alewives, 6,793 barrels, 31 kits; herrings, 22,043 barrels, 433 half barrels, 150 kegs, 353 thirds of barrels; mackerel, 186,406 barrels, 5,078 half barrels, 295 quarter barrels, 3,187 thirds of barrels; salmon, 388 tierces, 5,101 barrels, 305 half barrels, 413 thirds of barrels, 450 kits.

From Cape Breton.—32,919 barrels, valued at £29,486 sterling.

The attempts to prosecute the whale fishery have not yet assumed a permanent character, or been attended with success.

The Blue Book for 1847 states the number of ships built in Nova Scotia Proper at 221; tonnage, 25,927; and at Cape Breton, 31; tonnage, 3,521.

The vessels registered in the province in 1844 were—

	Under 50 Tons.		50 Tons and upwards.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
Nova Scotia .	1,258	35,800	632	68,986
Cape Breton .	324	10,146	132	9,296
Total . .	1,682	46,006	764	77,382

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principles laid down relative to Canada (p. 155), it may be estimated that 300,000 inhabitants of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton require each for their daily support one shilling a-day, or about £18 a-year = £5,400,000. The property annually created and not consumed, may average three-pence a-day, or £4 10s. a-year = £1,350,000; total annually created about seven million sterling (£6,750,000).

Movable and Immovable Property.—Land under regular cultivation about 400,000 acres—average value £10 per acre = £4,000,000; half cultivated and partly cleared, 600,000 acres, at £2 an acre = £1,200,000; uncleared, forest and wild land, 5,000,000 acres, at 5s. an acre = £1,250,000. Houses about 60,000, at £20 each = £1,200,000. Furniture, &c., about £20 for each house = £1,200,000. Apparel and personal property, each person, £4; for 300,000 inhabitants, £1,200,000. Manufactories, distilleries, &c., about £100,000. Government buildings, forts, churches, colleges, schools, gaols, &c., £1,000,000. Roads, canals, bridges, wharfs, dykes, &c., £2,000,000. Mines, quarries, forests, and fisheries, £5,000,000. Horses, £250,000; horned cattle, £800,000; sheep, £250,000; swine and poultry, £150,000. Ships and boats, £100,000. Merchandise and cash in hand, £1,000,000. Total estimated value of movable and immovable property in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, £20,700,000.

Banks.—Three corporate institutions, viz., the Halifax Banking Company, the Bank of Nova Scotia, and a Branch of the London Bank of British North America.

Coins.—The Queen's duties are commonly paid in dollars at 4s. 2d. sterling, or doubloons at £3 4s. sterling each or in British silver coin. The English shilling is by law equal to 1s. 3d. currency; the former value of the quarter dollar, which it has displaced, and the sovereign and the doubloon are made legal tenders at 25s. and £4 currency respectively, and the dollar at 5s. 2½d. There are no provincial coins, except copper penny and halfpenny. The amount of coin in circulation cannot be ascertained.

Paper Money.—The notes of the Provincial Treasury in circulation on 31st December, 1847, were £47,974. The notes of the Bank of Nova Scotia in circulation, £50,000; notes of the Bank of British North America, £48,000; notes of the Halifax Banking Company, about £42,000; total paper currency, £187,974.

vol. 1.

Accounts are kept in "Halifax currency." The pound currency is equal to 16s. sterling—thus £125 currency = £100 sterling. To reduce to currency add one-fourth; to bring currency into sterling deduct one-fifth.

Weights and Measures.—The same as in England.

Course of Exchange in 1847.—Bills on her majesty's government at 30 days' sight, 14 per cent. Private bills at 60 days' sight, 13 per cent. Bills on the United States, 5 per cent. premium.

Average Prices of various produce in Nova Scotia in 1847:—Wheat, per imperial bushel, 4s. 10d.; wheaten flour, per barrel of 196 lbs., 27s.; wheaten bread, per 2 lb. loaf, 3d.; horned cattle, £8 to £10; horses, £12 to £30; sheep, 10s. to 20s.; goats, 16s. to 32s.; swine, per lb., 3d. to 3½d.; milk, the quart, 3d.; butter, fresh, 9d. to 10d. per lb.; cheese, 6d. to 10d. per lb.; beef, 3d. to 6d. per lb.; mutton, 3d. to 6d. per lb.; pork, 3d. to 4d. per lb.; rice per 14 lbs., 2s. 10d.; coffee, 7d. per lb.; tea, 1s. 8d. to 2s. per lb.; sugar, per 16 lbs. 4s.; salt per bushel—coarse, 1s. 7d.; fine, 4s. per bushel; wine, 4s. to 10s. per gal.; brandy, 8s. per gal.; rum, 3s. 6d. to 4s. per gal.; beer, per 5 gals., 4s. to 6s.; tobacco, 10d. per lb.; coal, 20s. to 25s. per chaldron; mackerel, per barrel, No. 1, 20s. to 25s.; herrings, 11s. per barrel. The price of food is regulated partly by the state of the crop, and partly by the prices of bread-stuffs in the neighbouring republic, whence the supplies which Nova Scotia requires are drawn. The supply of fish also influences the price of other articles.

Wages for Labour.—*Domestics*, per annum with board, £10 to £16; females, 10s. to 15s. a month. *Predial*, 2s. 6d. to 3s. per day. *Tradesmen*, 4s. to 6s. per day. These figures are from the "Blue Book" for 1817; they differ in some respects from the Report of the governor to Earl Grey, dated 18th October, 1848, which is as follows:—

"The price of labour varies slightly in Nova Scotia with the price of food. 2s. 9d., and 3s. 3d. sterling per day, is paid generally by government on the public roads, upon which farmers, and farmers' sons, who have other pursuits, are chiefly employed. The rates will almost always command labour in the towns and villages, in which, however, it sometimes falls to 2s. and 2s. 9d. sterling. Farm servants receive £20 currency per annum, and their board; first-rate men in the harvest time will earn £2 18s. sterling per month; captains of merchant vessels receive £8 sterling per month; sailors £3 4s. sterling per month; mechanics are generally in demand, and can in ordinary seasons, earn from 4s. to 8s. sterling per day."

Post Office.—Branches extend into every settlement.

Steam Conveyances.—The fine line of mail steam packets originated by the enterprising Mr. Cunard, of Nova Scotia, leave Halifax weekly for England, the United States, and Bermuda. There are weekly steam-boats to Cape Breton and Newfoundland. There is also steam intercourse between Halifax and St. John's, New Brunswick, including the intervening ports along the western shore; and between Windsor, Annapolis, and St. John's, on that side of the province washed by the Bay of Fundy. A steam-boat plies in the Bras d'Or Lake, Cape Breton, and occasionally there is another between Pictou and Prince Edward Island. Lines of stage-coaches run thrice a-week from Halifax to Pictou and Annapolis.

Railroads.—One rail has been laid down in Nova Scotia for the conveyance of coals from the Pictou mines to the loading ground. There are several proposed routes for a trunk line of railway from Halifax to Quebec: 1st. From Halifax to Windsor, 45 miles; Annapolis, 85; to entrance of Bay of Fundy, thence by a steamer to St. John's in New Brunswick, 45; St. John's to Fredericton, 65; to Woodstock, 62; to Grand Falls, 71; to Rivière du Loup, 106; to Quebec, 110; total distance by the St. John River from Halifax to Quebec, 600 miles. This is a mixed route by railway and steam-boat. 2nd. By the Bay of Chaleurs route, 635 miles. 3rd. The "direct route" from Whitehaven Harbour near Canso, at the N.E. extremity of Nova Scotia, to Pictou, along the coast to Bay Verte, and through the centre of New Brunswick, 652 miles. 4th. This route combines the line through Nova Scotia from Halifax, and the direct route through the centre of New Brunswick, 595 miles. 5th. The Whitehaven route through Nova Scotia, with the Eastern or Bay Chaleurs route through New Brunswick to Quebec, 692 miles.

Admiral William Fitzwilliam Owen, who is considered the ablest surveyor in the royal navy, made a survey by order of government, of the proper port for the junction of sea and land communication between Great Britain and British North America, with reference to the projected railway from Nova Scotia to Canada. Having satisfied himself that the port of Canso was ineligible, although less than 2,000 miles from the W. coast of Ireland, the admiral, after examining other havens, gave his opinion in favour

of Whitehaven, in lat. 45° 10' N., long. 61° 10' W., 130 statute miles N. E. of Halifax. The report of Admiral Owen contains the following account of Whitehaven:—

"We found this haven to be a splendid and convenient port, as capacious as Halifax Harbour, between George's Island and Bedford Basin, and as safe and commodious, and its approaches safe, and under any circumstances (such) as attainable from the open sea, and within the extreme points of perfect shelter and security, not being more than a mile of pilotage water; but the shaft or channel to the haven itself, although well sheltered and safe, yet is very narrow in some places for a distance from one to two miles, according to the channel by which entered. Mr. Shortland's plan shows all the dangers we could discover.

"The haven finishes to the N. at Pleasant River, also very convenient, and navigable for two miles by vessels of any burden, and for small craft two miles farther still to its head, which northern extremity is only four miles from the high road from Guysborough and the port of Canso.

"Whitehaven Island, the outer point to seaward of the haven, is 140 feet high, and may be considered as the N.E. extremity of Nova Scotia, and the nearest available point of this continent to the British Islands, although itself isolated. The Acadian (French) settlement of Molasses Harbour is separated to the westward by a very narrow isthmus of mere beach from the western part of the haven; besides which there are not now more than eight or ten establishments around Whitehaven.

"Our inquiries relative to ice in winter were very satisfactory. Pleasant River is generally frozen all down to the haven in January and February, and in severe winters the haven has been known to be entirely frozen over, but only once known to have happened to the southward of Fisherman's Island; and the nature of the coast and entrances precludes the possibility of packed or drift ice accumulating, so that the ingress and egress is always free and open.

"It is not more or less subject to fogs than the whole of this south-eastern coast of Nova Scotia, which is all seriously inconvenienced by this impediment to comfortable navigation; and the soundings, with attention, may always give sufficient indication of approach, and the rocky ledges of the coast form an almost continued steep barrier of land."

And in another Report of 5th September, 1846, the distinguished hydrographer says:—

"Whitehaven is not only most conveniently situated—but is a splendid and most commodious port, whose immediate entrance and its harbour are never obstructed or incommoded by drift or packed ice. It has very great facilities of approach, and has only two outlying dangers or small rocks between the port and the open sea, and these only about half a mile from the shore; and in short its nautical facilities of attainment greatly exceed those of Halifax or any other point on the coast that I have seen. The upper part of its fine and beautiful harbour (like Bedford Basin and Halifax Harbour) in some winters freeze over in part, but never so as to obstruct its external communications, its approach, or its perfect safety; and its configuration, as regards the proximate coasts, prevents the accumulation of drift or packed ice either to obstruct or incommodate it.

"Its shores offer no impediments to railroad territory wherever convenient, and the vicinity is (in my

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judgment) perfectly practicable for rail communications. Comparing the two points nautically, Halifax is a good, capacious, fine, safe harbour; so is Whitehaven, and nothing that I know inferior to Halifax. In clear weather, by night or by day, both are equally available, and equally safe and easy of approach; so that the only circumstance still open to comparison is in the too common case, that at the time when entrance is sought into them respectively all the points and the ship herself may be enveloped in a dense fog, and possibly her own jib-boom and not visible, the most perplexing and appalling case in precise navigation to seamen. In case of fog, the attainment of Halifax harbour requires 20 miles of pilotage navigation; for Whitehaven, never more than three or four, and the last is also more surely beacons.

Major Robinson, the engineer entrusted with the survey of the line, gives the preference to Halifax for a sea-coast terminus.

The total distance from Halifax to Quebec for any line of railway will be about 635 miles, which at £7,000 per mile (a low estimate) will cost £4,445,000—add one-tenth for contingencies, £444,500 = £4,889,500, or in round numbers the proposed trunk line would cost about £5,000,000 sterling.

Along the proposed line of railway from

Halifax to Quebec there are millions of acres of good productive land, only waiting for the men necessary to cultivate them. The following synopsis shows approximately the quantities of ungranted land in the counties through which it is proposed to run the railway between Halifax and Quebec:—

In Nova Scotia: Halifax County, 780,000 acres; in Colchester, 120,000; Cumberland, 180,000 = 1,080,000 acres.

In New Brunswick: Westmoreland County 301,000; Kent, 640,000; Northumberland, 1,993,000; Gloucester, 704,000; Restigouche, 1,109,000 = 4,747,000 acres.

In Canada: Bonaventure, 2,000,000; Rimouski, 5,000,000; Kamouraska, 500,000; L'Islet, 600,000; Bellechasse, 500,000 = 8,000,000. The grand total of acres in the three provinces amounts to 14,429,000. The land for the railway would require to be purchased in Nova Scotia for nearly its whole course, and in Canada for 110 miles. If a considerable portion of the ungranted land were given to the railway projectors it would facilitate the operation.

CHAPTER IV.

HISTORY, TOPOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, AND PRODUCTIONS OF CAPE BRETON.

This singular and valuable island, although included under the same government as Nova Scotia, is of sufficient importance to require a brief separate description. It lies between 45° 27' and 47° 5' N. lat. (including Madame, Scatari, Bouladric, St. Paul's, and other minor islands), and between 59° 38' and 61° 50' W. long.; its extreme length from N.E. to S.W. being about 100 miles, and its extreme breadth from S.E. to N.W. about 80 miles. It is separated from Nova Scotia by St. George's Bay, and the narrow channel, called the Gut of Canso or Canseau, which in one place is only a mile broad. It comprises an area of about 2,000,000 acres, exclusive of the surface covered by its lakes and rivers. In shape it is somewhat triangular, its south and southeastern shore forming one side, its western shore (facing Nova Scotia and Prince Ed-

ward Island) another, and its eastern shore the third; the two last terminating almost in a point at Cape North, which, with Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, commands the only entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, except by the circuitous route of the Straits of Belleisle. The distance between them is about 50 miles.

HISTORY.—The island was discovered by Cabot, but what name he bestowed upon it does not appear. Verazani subsequently visited it, and called it Isle du Cap, which name was, in 1713, changed by the French to Isle Royale. Who gave the island the name of Breton is very uncertain—most probably some Frenchmen of Brittany in remembrance of home. It remained uninhabited until 1714, when a few French fishermen from Nova Scotia and Newfoundland took possession of its shores, selecting

the portions most adapted for drying cod-fish or forming small gardens. In 1715, Louis XIV., who had been long contending with the united powers of Europe, anxious to detach queen Anne from that formidable alliance, offered to surrender part of the French possessions in America, and eventually, by the treaty of Utrecht, the French relinquished all excepting Canada, Cape Breton and Prince Edward (then called St. John's) Island. The position of Cape Breton with regard to the navigation of the St. Lawrence, ensured to the French free communication with Canada, while its fine harbours fitted it for the depôt of their trade with the West Indies, and these considerations, together with its valuable fisheries, induced its speedy colonization. On the S.E. coast of the island were laid the foundations of a town two miles and-a-half in circumference, which was called Louisburg in honour of the king of France. The fortifications were not commenced until 1720. A governor and lieutenant-governor were appointed. The Indians of Nova Scotia were solicited to emigrate to Cape Breton, which many of them actually did. The Acadians were also urged to join their countrymen, but as no equivalent was offered to them for the property which they must have necessarily abandoned, they preferred remaining where they were. Meanwhile the French government spared no expense upon the settlement; the outlay on it is stated to have exceeded thirty million livres, but this large sum must have been more than repaid by the lucrative fisheries, 1,800,000 quintals of cod-fish, and 3,000,000 quintals of seal-fish, being annually exported. The French were not long established in Cape Breton before they commenced instigating the Indians to hostilities against the English, and so successfully, that a large fishing post at Canso was twice taken by assault and pillaged. The governor of Nova Scotia vainly appealed to the governor of Cape Breton, urging the atrocity of such outrages in a time of peace, and complaining of the encouragement given to the perpetrators by the people of Louisburg, but he received only the unsatisfactory and evasive answer, "that the Indians were an independent people; and that, if there were any French agents among them, they were the neutrals of Nova Scotia, and not subjects of Cape Breton." The Indians, encouraged by this tacit support, became more and more aggressive; and the colonists of Nova Scotia were compelled to have recourse to those of Massachusetts

to assist them in quelling the aggressive spirit.

Matters were in this position when war was declared between France and England, on the 20th March, 1744. The news of this event did not reach Nova Scotia until some time after it had been conveyed to Cape Breton by a fast-sailing vessel, despatched for the purpose, but bearing instructions to the governor not to attempt the conquest of any post in Nova Scotia until further orders, as the noble fortifications of Louisburg were yet unfinished, and known to be insufficiently garrisoned. But the temptation of taking the English by surprise was not to be resisted. Du Quesnel took upon himself the responsibility of disobeying orders, and hastily fitted out a small armament, which gained possession of Canso, and destroyed its defences. The French then proceeded to lay siege to Annapolis, but were twice defeated, notwithstanding the dilapidated state of the fortifications, by the aid of a reinforcement from New England, with whom the Indians of Passamaquoddy, Penobscot, Pigwogot, and some others, took part. Shirley, governor of New England, considering that the best way of checking the active proceedings of the enemy, would be to carry the war into his own territory, proposed to the council to attempt the reduction of Louisburg. How wild and impracticable this scheme must have at first appeared, may be easily conjectured from the following description of the place, for which I am greatly indebted to the graphic account of Mr. Haliburton. Louisburg was two miles and-a-half in circumference, and entirely encompassed by a rampart of stone from 30 to 36 feet high, and a ditch 80 feet wide, with the exception of a space of 200 yards near the sea, which was enclosed by a dyke and a line of picquets. The water in this place was shallow, and numerous reefs rendered it inaccessible to shipping, while it received an additional protection from the side fire of the bastions, of which there were six, and eight batteries, containing embrasures for 148 cannon, and 16 mortars, but of which only 45 were mounted. On an island at the entrance of the harbour was planted a battery of 30 cannon, carrying 28-pound shot; and at the bottom of the harbour was the grand or royal battery of 28 cannon, 42-pounders, and two 18-pounders. The entrance to the town was at the west gate over a drawbridge, near which was a circular battery, mounting 16 guns,

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of 14-pounds shot. Governor Shirley had conceived the idea of attacking this place soon after the capture of Canso, and the same autumn had solicited the assistance of the British ministry, supposing that it might be surprised, if an attempt was made early in the spring, before the arrival of succours from France; he communicated his plan, without waiting for answers from England, in his dispatches to the other colonies, under an oath of secrecy. Wild and impracticable as this scheme appeared to all prudent men, it was natural to suppose that it would meet with much opposition, and it was accordingly rejected: but, upon reconsideration, it was carried by a majority of a single voice. Circulars were immediately addressed to the colonies, as far south as Pennsylvania, requesting their assistance, and that an embargo might be laid on all their ports. The New England colonies were, however, alone concerned in this expedition. The forces furnished by Massachusetts consisted of upwards of 3,200 men, aided by 500 from Connecticut, and 300 from New Hampshire; the contingent from Rhode Island of 300 did not arrive until too late to be of service. Ten vessels, of which the largest carried only 20 guns, with a few armed sloops from Connecticut and Rhode Island, constituted the whole naval force. The command of the expedition was given to William Pepperal, a gentleman who, from being extensively concerned in trade, but yet more from his unblemished character and affable manners, had great influence both in Massachusetts and New Hampshire, where he was very generally known. This popularity was absolutely necessary to the commander of an army of volunteers—his own countrymen, who were to leave their families and occupations, and engage in a hazardous enterprise, to which they were chiefly incited by patriotism and religious enthusiasm. In waging war against the Papists, many, doubtless, believed themselves to be doing God service, and every means was used by their leaders to strengthen this opinion. The famous George Whitfield (then an itinerant preacher in New England) was presented by Pepperal with the colours, and he returned them with the motto, "nil desperandum—Christo ducet." Many of his followers enlisted: one of them, a chaplain, carried a hatchet on his shoulder, for the purpose of demolishing the images in the French churches; and the expedition wore the air of a crusade.

Previous to the departure of the fleet a despatch was sent to Commodore Warren, who was on the West India station, informing him of the contemplated attack on Louisburg, and soliciting his co-operation, which Warren refused, on the plea that he had received no orders on the subject, the expedition being wholly a provincial affair, undertaken without the assent, and, perhaps, without the knowledge of the home government. This was a severe disappointment to governor Shirley, but being determined to make the attempt at all hazards, he concealed the information from the troops, and on the 4th of April they embarked for Canso, where they arrived in safety; but were detained three weeks, waiting the dissolution of the ice, with which the coast of Cape Breton was environed. After Commodore Warren had returned an answer to Governor Shirley, he received instructions from England, founded on the communications which the latter had made on the subject, by which he was ordered to proceed directly to North America, and concert measures for the benefit of his Majesty's service. Hearing that the fleet had sailed, he steered direct for Canso, and after a short consultation with General Pepperal, he proceeded to cruise before Louisburg, whither he was soon followed by the fleet and army, which arrived on the 13th of April, in Chaparogue Bay. The sight of the transports gave the first intelligence of the intended attack, for although the English had been detained three weeks at Canso, the French were, until the moment of their arrival, ignorant of their approach. Preparations were immediately made for landing the men, which was effected without much opposition, and the enemy driven into the town. While the troops were disembarking, the French burned all the houses in the neighbourhood of the works, which might serve as a cover to the English, and sunk some vessels in the harbour to obstruct the entrance of the fleet. The first object was to invest the city. Lieutenant-colonel Vaughan conducted the first column through the woods within sight of Louisburg, and saluted the city with three cheers. At the head of a detachment, composed chiefly of New Hampshire troops, he marched in the night to the N.E. part of the harbour, where he burned the warehouses containing the naval stores, and staved a large quantity of wine and brandy. The smoke of the fire, driven by the wind into the Grand Battery, so terrified the

French that they abandoned it, and spiking their guns retired to the city. The next morning Vaughan took possession of the deserted battery, and having drilled the cannon left by the enemy, which consisted chiefly of 42 pounders, turned them with good effect on the city, within which almost every shot lodged, while several fell on the roof of the citadel. The troops were employed for 14 successive nights in drawing cannon from the landing-place to the camps, through a morass. To effect this they were obliged to construct sledges, as the ground was too soft to admit of the use of wheels; while the men, with straps on their shoulders, and sinking to their knees in mud, performed labour requiring the strength of oxen; and which could only be executed in the night or during a foggy day, the morass being within view of the town and within reach of its guns. On the 7th of May a summons was sent to Duchambon, who refused to surrender, and the siege was pressed on with great vigour and spirit. By the 28th of the month the Provincials had erected five fascine batteries, mounted with 16 pieces of cannon and several mortars, which destroyed the western gate, and made a perceptible impression on the circular battery of the enemy. The fortifications on the island, however, had been so judiciously placed, and the artillery so well served, that they made five unsuccessful attacks upon it, in the last of which they lost 189 men. In the mean time commodore Warren captured the *Vigilant*, a French 74, having a complement of 560 men, and a large quantity of military stores. This prize was of the utmost importance, it added to the naval force of the English, and furnished them with a variety of supplies in which they were deficient. Preparations were making for a general assault, when Duchambon determined to surrender; and accordingly, on the 16th of June, he capitulated. Upon entering the fortress and viewing its strength, and the excellence and variety of its means of defence, the impracticability of carrying it by assault was fully demonstrated. The garrison, which contained 650 veteran troops, and 1,310 militia, with the crew of the *Vigilant*, and the principal inhabitants of the city, in all 4,130, pledged themselves not to bear arms for twelve months against Great Britain or her allies; and being embarked on board 14 cartel ships, were transported to Rochefort. The New England forces lost 101

men, killed by the enemy and other accidental causes, and about 30 from sickness; while the French were supposed to have lost 300 men killed within the walls. During the 49 days the siege lasted, the weather was remarkably fine for the season of the year; but the day after the surrender, it became foul, and rain fell incessantly for ten days: had the change occurred at an earlier period, it must, in all human probability, have proved fatal to a large number of the troops, 1,500 of whom were suffering from dysentery.

Not the least singular circumstance connected with this gallant achievement, was the fact that the plan for the reduction of this skilfully constructed fortress, was drawn up by a lawyer, and executed by a body of husbandmen and merchants; animated indeed by patriotic zeal, but wholly unpractised in the art of war. The fortuitous concurrence of events did not, as Mr. Haliburton justly remarks, detract from the merit of the man who planned, or of the people who effected, this remarkable conquest; neither did it lessen the benefit thereby conferred on England. Cape Breton was useful to France; and in many respects Louisburg had realised the hopes of those who projected its establishment. It formed a commodious station for the fisheries, which were gradually becoming a source of naval power as well as wealth to France; and its central position, between the principal fishing stations of the English at Newfoundland and Canso, enabled it to check the trade of both. Louisburg was the French Dunkirk of America, whence privateers were fitted out to infest the coast of the British plantations, and to which prizes were conveyed for safety. In the November preceding the capture of Louisburg, the grand French fleet sailed from thence, consisting of three men-of-war, six West India ships, 31 other ships, nine brigantines, five snows, and two schooners. The French West India fleets found a secure harbour there, and the supplies of fish and lumber were carried with convenience from thence to the sugar colonies; besides which, it must be remembered Cape Breton commanded the entrance into the gulf of St. Lawrence, and consequently the navigation to and from the favourite colony of France. The existing state of Nova Scotia must be noted. An attempt had been made by the French to recover the province; the taking of Cape Breton frustrated the execution of this plan, and gave the English an additional

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bridle over this half-revolting and disturbed country. The news of this conquest being transmitted to England, general Pepperal and commodore Warren were preferred to the dignity of Baronets of Great Britain, and congratulatory addresses were presented to the king, upon the success of his majesty's arms. Reinforcements of men, stores, and provisions having arrived at Louisburg, it was determined, in a council of war to maintain the place and repair the breaches. Extreme mortification was felt by the French court at this unexpected event; and an expedition on a very unusual scale was fitted out for the recovery of Cape Breton and the conquest of Nova Scotia, whose unsuccessful and disastrous issue has been already related in the history of the latter place. At the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1749, Cape Breton was restored to France, greatly to the surprise and grief of the brave colonists, who had so valiantly obtained it, and who, with much reason, considered its position essential to the safety and tranquillity of their own territory. In 1757, colonial rivalry between England and France had reached its highest point; and it was resolved again to attempt the capture of Cape Breton.

The state of Louisburg at this time appears to have been very flourishing. A publication entitled, "Genuine Letters and Memoirs relative to the National, Civil, and Commercial History of the Islands of Cape Breton and St. John, by an impartial Frenchman," of which an English translation was published in London in 1761, gives the following account of the town, immediately before its capture by the English in 1758, by an eye-witness:—"It was built on a neck of land on the S.E. part of the island, and was nearly a league in circumference, with wide and regular streets, a spacious quay; wharfs projecting into the sea, convenient for shipping; fortifications consisting of two bastions and two demi-bastions, three gates; and near the principal fort and citadel, a handsome parade. The stone buildings for the use of the troops and officers of the French government were constructed with materials brought from Europe. The port, about three miles in length, and upwards of a mile in its smallest breadth, with a careening and wintering ground for ships, was protected by a battery level with the surface of the water, consisting of 36 24 pounders; the harbour was also defended by a *Cavalier*, with 12 embrasures, called by the name of *Maurepas*. The royal battery,

at the distance of a mile from the town, which it commanded, and also the bottom of the bay, contained 30 pieces of cannon, viz., twenty-eight 36-pounders, and two 18-pounders. The population of the town, exclusive of the troops, was about 5,000; its administration was confided to a governor and supreme council; there were courts of law and of admiralty; a general hospital for soldiers and sailors, served by brothers of the charitable fraternity, and the 'nuns of Louisburg' superintended the education of young girls." The inhabitants of Louisburg and the other settlers in Cape Breton, of which the principal places were Port Dauphin within the Bras d'Or, St. Anns, Spanish Bay (now Sydney), Port Touiouse (St. Peters), Arichat, Petit de Grat, and Rivier, were chiefly engaged in the fisheries, which must have been carried on to a great extent. Mr. McGregor says, that the trade there employed near 600 vessels, exclusive of boats, and between 27,000 and 28,000 seamen; if this were the case, it is not surprising that the French ministry paid such attention to Cape Breton, and considered the fishery a more valuable source of wealth and power to France than even the mines of Mexico and Peru would have been. The parliament of England also, by the energetic appeals of Mr. Pitt, had been fully awakened to the mistake that had previously been made in relinquishing Louisburg, not only from its importance, which had been greatly undervalued, but because no course of policy which gave to the colonists a just cause of dissatisfaction with the mother country, could be justifiable, however weighty the considerations which dictated it. A large body of men were raised in England in aid of the colonists. Halifax was fixed upon for the rendezvous of the British land and sea forces. Admiral Holborne arrived at Chebucto harbour in the middle of July with a powerful squadron, and 5,000 British troops under the command of Viscount Howe, and was soon after joined by Lord Loudon with a corps of 6,000 men from New York; but the season was considered too far advanced for the enterprise, and it was resolved to defer it to the ensuing spring. Admiral Holborne sailed for Louisburg, with 15 ships of the line, 4 frigates, and a fire-ship, for the purpose of reconnoitring the enemy. On the 20th of August he appeared before the harbour, and saw the French admiral, La Motte, make the signal to unmoor; but being greatly inferior in strength to the

enemy, he did not choose to risk an engagement, and therefore returned to Halifax. About the middle of September, having received a reinforcement of four ships of the line, he again appeared before Louisbourg, and endeavoured to draw the enemy to a battle. La Motte, however, in his turn, was too prudent to hazard an engagement, the loss of which must have exposed all the French colonies to the attacks of the English. Before the arrival of the reinforcement, the British fleet at Halifax consisted of the following ships:—

Name of Ship.	No. of Men.	No. of Guns.	Name of Ship.	No. of Men.	No. of Guns.
Newark	700	80	Ferris Sloop	120	16
Lynnhole	700	74	Success	150	22
Gratton	590	68	Port Mahon	150	22
Terrible	690	74	Nightingale	150	22
Northumberland	590	68	Keenington	150	20
Capital	680	68	Elphingham	150	20
Jefford	480	64	Furnace boom	100	16
Orford	520	68	Ditto	100	16
Nassau	480	64	Vulture sloop	100	14
Rumberland	490	64	Hunter	100	14
Defiance	460	64	Speedwell	90	12
Albany	430	64	Hawke	100	12
Kingsdon	490	60	Oibraltar's Prize	80	12
Whitson	350	54	Jamaica	100	14
Sutherland	300	50	Lightning, fire-ship	50	—
Winchelsea	100	24			

Total, 10,200 men, 1,350 guns.

The squadron continued cruising before the harbour of Louisbourg until the 25th, when they were overtaken by a terrible storm; in twelve hours they were driven within two miles of the breakers, on the coast of Cape Breton, when the wind providentially shifted, and saved the whole squadron from inevitable destruction, except one vessel which was lost on the rocks, and about half of her crew perished. Eleven ships were dismantled, others threw their guns overboard, and the whole returned to England in a shattered condition.

The successes of the French during this campaign left the affairs of the British North American colonies in a gloomy state. The former had obtained full possession of Lakes Champlain and George, and the command of those which connect the waters of the St. Lawrence with the waters of the Mississippi, and the undisturbed possession of all the country west of the Alleghany mountains. But the appointment of Mr. Pitt, during the autumn, to the premiership of the new administration, gave cheering hopes to all parties, both at home and in America. Immediately after taking office he wrote a circular letter to all the colonies, assuring

the colonists of his determination to send out a large force to co-operate with them by sea and by land, against the French, and urging them to raise as large bodies of men as the number of inhabitants in their respective governments would permit. The Provincials displayed, upon this occasion, their usual energy, and were ready to take the field early in May; previously to which Admiral Boscawen arrived at Halifax with a formidable fleet and a powerful army, under general Amherst. The whole armament, consisting of 151 sail, and 14,000 men, took their departure from Nova Scotia on the 28th of May, and on the 2nd of June, 1758, anchored in the Bay of Gabarus, about seven miles to the westward of Louisbourg, whose garrison, commanded by Chevalier Drucor, consisted of 2,500 regular troops, 300 militia, formed of the inhabitants, and who, towards the end of the siege, were reinforced by 350 Canadians and Indians. The harbour was secured by six ships of the line and five frigates, (the Prudent, Entreprenant, each 74; the Capricieux, Celebre, and Bienfaisant, of 64 guns; the Apollo, of 50; the Chevre, Biche, Fidelo, Dianna, and Echo, frigates,) three of which they sunk across the entrance, in order to render it inaccessible to the English shipping. Six days elapsed before the troops could be disembarked, on account of the heavy surf which broke with prodigious violence on the whole shore: but on the seventh, the agitation of the water having partly subsided, the troops were distributed in three divisions, and ordered to effect a landing. The right and centre, under the command of governor Lawrence and general Whitmore, received instructions to make a show of landing, to distract the attention of the enemy, while the real attempt was made in another quarter by general Wolfe. The French reserved their fire until the boats had nearly reached the shore, when they opened a tremendous discharge of cannon and musketry, which, aided by the surf, overset and sunk many of the boats. The men, encouraged in all their difficulties by the example, spirit, and conduct of their gallant commanders, gained the beach at the Creek of Cormoran, and compelled the enemy to retire to the town. As soon as the stores and artillery were landed, which was not effected without great difficulty, General Wolfe was detached, with 2,000 men, to seize a post occupied by the enemy, at the Light-house Point, from which the ships in the harbour, and fortifications

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in the town, might be greatly annoyed. On his approach it was abandoned, and several very strong batteries were erected there. The fire from this place, by the 25th, completely silenced the island battery, which was immediately opposed to it. In the interim, the besieged made several sallies with very little effect, while the approaches to the town were conducted with resolute but cautious vigour. The Bizarre and the Comet escaped the vigilance of the squadron before the commencement of the siege, and the Echo attempted to follow their example, but was captured soon after she left the harbour. On the 21st of July, one of the largest of the French ships blew up with an awful explosion: the fire was communicated to two others, both of which were consumed in a short time to the water's edge. Admiral Boscawen then sent 600 men in boats into the harbour, to make an attempt on two ships of the line, which still remained in the basin—the Prudent, a 74-gun ship, and the Bienfaisant, of 64 guns. The former having been run aground, was destroyed, and the latter was towed past the batteries in triumph, with the inconsiderable loss of seven men killed, and nine wounded. This gallant exploit placed the English in complete possession of the harbour, and several important breaches being made in the works, the fortress was no longer deemed defensible, and the governor offered to capitulate. The terms proposed by him were refused, and it was required that the garrison should surrender prisoners of war, or sustain an assault by sea and land. The humiliating conditions, at first rejected, were afterwards agreed to; and on the 26th of July, 1758, the Chevalier Drucon signed the articles of capitulation.

Thus, at the expense of about 400 men, killed and wounded, the English obtained possession of the important island of Cape Breton, and the strong town of Louisburg, in which they found 231 pieces of cannon, 18 mortars, and a considerable quantity of stores and ammunition. The merchants and inhabitants were sent to France in English vessels, but the garrison, together with the sea officers, marines, and mariners, amounting in all to 5,637 men, were transmitted to England. The loss of Louisburg was the more severely felt by the French king, from its being attended with the destruction of so many line-of-battle ships and frigates. Despatches with the particulars of this glorious victory were immediately sent

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to England by Captain Anherst (brother to the Commander-in-chief), and accompanied by eleven pair of the enemy's colours. These were, by his Majesty's orders, carried in joyful parade, escorted by detachments of horse and foot guards, with kettle drums and trumpets, from the palace of Kensington to St. Paul's Cathedral, where they were deposited as trophies, during a discharge of cannon and other expressions of triumph and exultation. Public rejoicings for the conquest of Louisburg were manifested throughout the British empire; congratulatory addresses from numerous places were sent to the king, and the enthusiastic exultation expressed and excited by the occasion, probably contributed materially to the subsequent acquisition of Canada.

The British government fearing Louisburg might again fall into the hands of the French, dismantled the fortifications, which have ever since remained in ruins; the island was unaccountably neglected by England, and it was not until after the American revolution, when several American loyalists settled in the colony, that it was again brought into notice, separated from the government of Nova Scotia, and erected into a distinct colony. Sydney, its present capital, was then founded. Immigration from the Highlands of Scotland commenced in 1800, and added much to its population, which has been further increased by their countrymen of late years. In 1820, Cape Breton was re-annexed to Nova Scotia, of which it formed a county, with the privilege of sending two members to the House of Assembly, at Halifax. The number of members has been increased to six. A portion of the inhabitants have been seeking for several years the repeal of the Legislative Union with Nova Scotia; but it is a question, the justice or expediency of which it is not necessary here to discuss.

Topography.—Cape Breton is divided into two peninsulas by the great inlet of the sea termed Bras d'Or, or Bras d'Or Lake, which ramifies in the most singular and romantic manner throughout the island, and at one point approaches within a mile of the Atlantic on the opposite coast. The portions of Cape Breton thus separated strikingly contrast with each other, that on the N. being high, bold, and steep, with dangerous coasts, whose rocky and often perpendicular cliffs have a grand but forbidding aspect, which is rarely relieved by harbours; while that on the S. is low, undulating, and intersected by numerous streams, but gradually

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rises from the interior shore of the Bras d'Or, until it presents abrupt cliffs towards the ocean. The highest ridges in this division are estimated at from 600 to 800 feet, while the altitude of those in the northern division is much greater. The loftiest point, Cape Enfumé (Smoky Cape), is estimated by Mr. M'Gregor at 1,800 feet above the level of the sea. The Bras d'Or appears to have been caused by an earthquake, or some other convulsion of nature, which, by separating the land, made way for the irruption of the ocean far beyond its previous boundary. It enters Cape Breton from the Atlantic, between Sydney and St. Ann's Bay, by two channels, N. and S. of an island called Bouldrie. The S. passage, called Little Bras d'Or, is about 23 miles long, and from a quarter to three miles wide, but rendered unnavigable for large vessels by a bar at its mouth. The N. passage, Great Bras d'Or, is 25 miles long, 2 or 3 wide, with a free navigation, and above 60 fathoms soundings. The Bras d'Or itself is the union of these two branches, which form the great lake in the centre of the island, with several fine bays, where the timber ships for England usually load, at a distance of 40 miles from the main ocean. The length of this noble sea-water lake is about 50 miles, its greatest width 20, with a depth varying from 12 to 60 fathoms, everywhere securely navigable, and by reason of its numerous bays and inlets affording the benefit of inland navigation to almost every farm in the country. Several fresh-water lakes exist in both divisions, the largest are Lake Marguerite, in the N. division, which is about 40 miles in circumference; the Grand River and Miray Lakes in the S., the latter, together with its river intersecting the island on its S. E. coast for 30 miles, in the rear of the site of the ancient fortress of Louisburg.

Sydney, the capital of Cape Breton, in lat. $46^{\circ} 18'$, long. $60^{\circ} 31'$, is beautifully situated at the head of a fine bay, on a narrow but somewhat elevated tongue of land, stretching into the extensive inlet which forms its secure and capacious harbour. The town is small but compactly built, and contains the usual number of public buildings, and about 80 houses. An academy was commenced, and £600 were expended upon it, but it remains unfinished, and is apparently going to ruin. The excellent position of Sydney with regard to the fisheries, the rich coal mines on its shore, the

fertile agricultural tracts in its vicinity, together with its noble harbour, led its founders to anticipate its rapidly becoming a place of great importance. Why its present state falls so far short of their expectations, is difficult to conceive; perhaps, chiefly, from its many advantages being too little known by the class most likely to avail themselves of them. A promising settlement, called North Sydney, near the shipping place of the coal mines, has lately sprung up. From Sydney to Louisburg the shore presents frowning headlands, low beaches, bays, rivers, and a few islands. The cliffs along the whole coast, from the Bras d'Or to Cow Bay, are streaked with seams of coal. Cow Bay is separated from Miray Bay by a low barren peninsula. Nearly opposite the latter, a few miles off, lies Scartari Island, for which vessels bound from England to the North American colonies, usually shape their course. The island is sterile, but forms a good fishing station. A lighthouse recently erected, was greatly needed in its vicinity, to avert the fearful loss of life and property formerly of frequent occurrence. Louisburg Harbour in lat. $45^{\circ} 54'$, long. $59^{\circ} 52'$, has an entrance about a quarter of a mile wide between some small rocky islets, with a narrow passage near the W. point, on which Louisburg stood. The basin within is three miles long by one wide. The town itself is so reduced to ruins that, at first sight, the outlines of the chief buildings are scarcely discernible, and the once formidable batteries blasted by gunpowder, present a striking evidence of past grandeur. The strong and capacious magazines, where immense stores and munitions of war were formerly deposited, are nearly entire; but hidden by the accumulation of earth and turf, they are trodden over by flocks of sheep, who feed in peace over the last resting-place of many a gallant Frenchman and patriotic Briton, while near the harbour, beneath the "clear cold wave," may be seen the vast sunken ships of war, whose very bulk indicates the power enjoyed by the Gallic nation, ere England became mistress of her colonies on the shores of the western world. Desolation now sits with a ghastly smile around the once formidable bastions—all is silent except the loud reverberating ocean, as it rolls its tremendous surges along the rocky beach, or the bleating of the scattered sheep, as, with tinkling bells, they return in the dusky solitude of eve, to their strange folds.

Mr. M'Gregor, who visited the spot, well describes the melancholy contrast formed by the past and present state of Louisburg. The inhabitants along the coast are chiefly Acadian French fishermen, and it is frequented principally by Jersey and Guernsey people. Beyond Louisburg is the deep Bay of Gabarus, on which is a settlement of American loyalists: from thence to St. Esprit the coast is naked and rocky, with red carthy banks, and the land for some distance inland is destitute of timber, and, with few exceptions, barren and unfit for cultivation.

At St. Esprit the country improves: that around Grand River and the lakes connected with it, is said to be excellent. A considerable portion has been settled by emigrants from Scotland. The shore from Grand River to the Gut of Canso is broken and indented with numerous small coves and harbours. The land is good, and occupied by several thriving Acadian settlements; but the principal employment of the inhabitants is fishing.

Arichat, the second shire town in Cape Breton, is situated on the island of Madame, which lies near the south entrance of the Gut of Canso, opposite Cranberry Island, on which there is a light-house, and is divided from Cape Breton by a narrow strait, called Lennox Channel. The town is situated on a safe and commodious harbour, and has long had considerable trade with the Jersey merchants, who export fish from thence to Europe and the West Indies. Its population and commercial importance are rapidly increasing. It sends a representative to the House of Assembly at Halifax. The island is about 16 miles long by five broad, is deeply indented, and has some good soil, especially round the lakes in the interior. The Gut of Canso has been already noticed in the topography of Nova Scotia. It is bordered on the Cape Breton shore, by a dense colony of Highlanders, reaching about four miles inland. The north-west coast of Cape Breton, from the Gut of Canso to Port Hood, a distance of 18 miles, is well situated and thickly inhabited; and, looking from the sea, houses may be observed through openings in the forests, reaching almost to the summits of the hills and mountains. Port Hood is an excellent harbour, fit for the largest-sized vessels. It is the third shire town in the island, and has a considerable export of cattle to Newfoundland. Beyond it the cliff becomes almost precipitous,

particularly near Capo Mabou, an abrupt and lofty headland, where there is a harbour for small vessels. The coast assumes the appearance of a bold mountainous amphitheatre, but the steepes are successfully cultivated by the settlers, who are chiefly Highlanders, mixed with some Irish, and American loyalists. About 50 miles north of Port Hood, the Marguerite, or Salmon, a considerable river, flowing from a large lake which lies between the Gulf Shore and the Bras d'Or, falls into the sea. The land on both sides of this river, for several miles, and along the coast northward for 16 miles, is occupied entirely by Acadians, who, besides employing themselves actively in fishing, cultivate pastoral and agricultural pursuits.

At Chetican, the Jersey merchants have a fishing station, and from thence to Cape North (the extremity of the island) an iron-bound coast presents its frowning front to the mariner. About ten miles from Cape North is the island, or rather rock, called St. Paul, on which two light-houses have been recently erected. On the N.E. end is a fixed light; on the S.W. end a flash light. St. Paul's is about a mile in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth, and being in a direct line with Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, it fearfully endangered the navigation of the principal entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The water is deep close to the rocks: thick fogs prevail in its immediate vicinity, and, combined with strong conflicting currents, have wrecked many a gallant vessel. Human bones are to be seen bleaching on the rocks, and massive anchors lie beneath the waters. In one year (1833) here and at Scatari, four ships, four brigs, and two schooners, containing upwards of 600 souls, were lost. Aspey Bay, (on which is a thriving settlement), and several other bays line the coast, down to Cape Enfumé. The shore then bends southward and eastward for twenty miles to St. Anne's Bay, which, after narrowing to a strait very narrow, again expands into a capacious haven eight miles in length, from one to three in breadth, secured by high lands from all winds, and extremely beautiful from its numerous coves and creeks, and the bold, yet fertile country, which surrounds it.

The French at first made their principal station under the name of Port Dauphin, but they afterwards abandoned it in favour of Louisburg; and it was almost deserted until about 30 years ago, when a Scottish

colony planted themselves in it, and are now thriving prosperously. The interior of Cape Breton is yet uncultivated and even imperfectly known, except that portion of it which forms the coasts of the Bras d'Or. This is said to be generally of good quality, and has been settled, almost exclusively by Scottish emigrants; but an active fishery is carried on near its entrance by Irishmen from Newfoundland. Bras d'Or Lake terminates in two bays. One called St. Andrew is 20 miles long, the other called St. George, is about 15 miles in length. That of St. Peter is much smaller, but important from its approaching within 900 yards of the bay on the opposite coast.

The shores of this internal sea are not remarkable for their height. Numerous streams flow into it by circuitous channels forming low marshy islands. A tract on St. Andrew's Bay is still occupied by the Mic Mac Indians.

GEOLOGY.—The extensive coal, iron, and other mines in Cape Breton, seem to require some details under this head, for which I am indebted chiefly to the returns furnished by Judge Haliburton. The island contains from sandstone downwards, the whole of the rocks which constitute the transition and primitive formations.

Primitive and Transition Classes.—Beginning with the high land which extends from the head of the eastern arm of the great lake, nearly to St. Peter's, a great variety of rocks occur: granite, the oldest of the primitive class, occupies a considerable portion. It is generally of a very small grain, and of a grey or red colour, the former being the most prevalent. It passes insensibly into sienite or greenstone, presenting a steep and broken cliff to the edge of the lake, and rising in abrupt precipices from the numerous deep ravines which intersect this part of the island.

The character and appearance of this rock (greenstone) are very diversified. In some places it passes imperceptibly into a claystone porphyry, of a dull green colour; in others, its structure is slaty, and the crystals scarcely discernible.

Clay-slate has only been noticed in one instance, namely, on the south shore of the harbour of Arichat, where it occurs, stratified in vertical beds, traversed by numerous small veins of quartz and calcareous spar. Its superficial extent is very inconsiderable, and it appears to be surrounded with greywacke, which occupies nearly the whole of

the Isle of Madame. There is probably no place of equal extent that can afford such numerous specimens of greywacke as this small island; it may be seen passing from clay slate, through an endless variety of gradations, into old red sandstone. Between great and little Arichat, immense weather-beaten masses of a very coarse kind, protrude above the surface, which is consequently rugged and barren; proceeding hence to L'escou, it gradually becomes more compact and granular, and it may be seen in its last stage at that place, where it passes into old red sandstone.

Greywacke and greywacke-slate also occupy an extensive tract, between the Red Islands and St. Peters, stretching out towards the head of the Grand River in an easterly direction. Associated with this formation, there are several beds of transition limestone, both in the Isle of Madame and opposite the Red Islands; at the latter place a deposit of shell limestone, apparently unstratified, may be seen almost in immediate contact with several vertical beds of a reddish-brown limestone, which is translucent on the edges.

Secondary Class.—Proceeding geologically upwards, the next formation is the *old red sandstone*, which reposes upon the greywacke, and is intimately connected with it. From the great entrance of the Bras d'Or Lake, it ranges in a south-eastern direction across the island of Bouladrie, passing to the southward of the town of Sydney, and underlying the carboniferous limestone, which forms the south-west boundary of the Sydney coal field. The remark made by Conyheare on the agricultural character of this rock, is strikingly verified in the preceding localities; for instance, in Lennox Passage, where the sandstone beds exclusively prevail, the soil is sandy and barren, affording support only for mosses, ferns, and brushwood; but where the sandstone alternates with argillaceous beds, the soil is, on the contrary, fertile and productive, as the luxuriant groves of hardwood on the island of Bouladrie bear ample evidence.

The carboniferous limestone which rests upon the old red sandstone, is a rock of the greatest importance, for it determines the boundaries and extent of the coal fields which it surrounds, constituting the basin or trough in which the coal veins and strata associated with them, are deposited.

The Eastern Coal District of Cape Breton commences on the northern head of Miram Bay on the east coast and continues

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to the great entrance of the Bras d'Or Lake. It is in length 35 miles, and averages five miles in width, and deducting the harbours, bays, and numerous indentations in the coast, comprises 120 square miles of land containing workable veins of coal. The carboniferous limestone which forms the base of the Sydney coal field, may be traced from Cape Dauphin, crossing the Island of Bouladrie in a continuous line to the town of Sydney, the course being about S.S.E., and dipping to the N.E. If a line be drawn from Seatari Isle to Sydney, and thence to Cape Dauphin, it will form the S.W. boundary of the Sydney coal field; the general dip of the veins being towards the N.E., we cannot therefore determine their boundary in that direction. Judging from the comparative inclination of the highest and lowest strata on the western shore of Spanish River, where there is a cliff three miles in length, crossing the beds in the direction of their dip, we should suppose that the lower veins crop out in the sea 10 or 12 miles from the shore. The high cliffs which form an extended line of mineral precipices along the whole coast, exhibit very satisfactory and interesting sections of the strata, from the shale and grit beds overlying the limestone to the highest veins of coal. In these cliffs, 14 veins of bituminous coal of excellent quality, none of which are under three feet in thickness, have been observed. Richard Smith, Esq., detailed a singular fact connected with these coal mines. In his evidence before Parliament some years ago respecting accidents in mines, he said—

"When we first struck the coal at the depth of about 180 feet, it was highly charged with water; the water flew out in all directions with considerable violence; it produced a kind of mineral fermentation immediately. The outburst of the coal crossed the large river which passed near the coal-pit. We were not exactly aware of the precise outcrop, on account of a strong clay paste eight or ten yards thick. It is rather difficult to find the outburst of coal, when clay paste is thickly spread over a country. At the river the water boiled similarly to that of a steam engine boiler, with the same kind of rapidity; so that on putting flame to it on a calm day, it would spread over the river, like what is commonly termed setting the Thames on fire; it often reminded me of the saying. It is very common for the females, the workmen's wives and daughters, to go down to the river with the washing they have to perform for their families. After digging a hole in the side of the river, about ten or twelve inches deep, they would fill it with pebble stones, and then put a candle to it; by this means they had plenty of boiling water without further trouble, or the expense of fuel. It would burn for weeks and months unless put out. I mention this to show how highly charged

the coal was with gas. What I am now going to describe, may be worth a little attention. There was no extraordinary boiling of water, or rising of gas, before we cut the coal at the bottom of the pit, more than is usually discernible in a common pond of stagnant water, when a long stick is forced into the mud. As soon as the coal was struck at the depth of 180 feet, it appeared to throw the whole mine into a state of regular mineral fermentation. The gas roared as the miner struck the coal with his pick; it would often go off like the report of a pistol, and at times I have seen it burst pieces of coal off the solid wall, so that it could not be a very lightly charged mine under such circumstances. The noise which the gas and water made in issuing from the coal was like a hundred thousand snakes hissing at each other."

The total thickness of the strata constituting the coal measures on the W. side of the harbour of Lingan amounts to 1,740 feet; that of the millstone grits and shale, probably 1,200. The thickness of the carboniferous limestone has not yet been ascertained.

Western Coal District.—This includes the coal field on the River Inhabitants, and those of Port Hood and Mabou.

New Red Sandstone.—The last, but by no means the least important of the regular consolidated formations which occur in this island, is the new red sandstone, which is undoubtedly the most extensive deposit we have to notice. It commences beyond the outcrop of the old red sandstone, and is seen reposing in horizontal beds almost immediately upon the baset edges of the highly inclined strata of that rock in the great entrance to the lakes, about 10 miles S.W. of Cape Dauphin; covering an extensive area, it would be impossible to describe its different characters; in general, it is of a deep red colour, and very coarse description, containing immense beds of conglomerate.

In a commercial point of view, the new red sandstone ranks next in importance to the coal fields of the island, for it contains immense deposits of gypsum, of a very superior quality for agricultural purposes, and is becoming an article of considerable traffic with the United States, where its value is appreciated. It constitutes a cliff several miles in extent, and in some places 30 feet in height. The gypsum in the lower part of the cliff is sufficiently compact for architectural purposes, and that near the surface appears well adapted for potters' moulds, stucco, flooring, &c. It is very conveniently situated for exportation, as vessels of great burthen may approach close to the cliff. It occurs abundantly in various other places.

The numerous salt springs which have

their source in the new red sandstone, will be found well worth the attention of capitalists. Placed so near the veins of coal, essential in the manufacture of salt, and situated in the very heart of the best fisheries of North America, they promise fair to become, at a future day, a productive source of wealth to the proprietors, and of incalculable benefit to the fisheries.

St. Paul's Island appears to be quite unconnected in a geological sense with the strata constituting the northern part of Cape Breton, and would seem to have been originally formed by a submarine volcano. The basalt found on it is of a black colour, with a greenish shade, and apparently contains a large proportion of oxide of iron. This island rises like an immense cone from the bottom of the ocean, the sloping sides becoming nearly vertical at the surface of the water, and forming an abrupt cliff. The depth of water is very great close to the shore, and, at only three miles distance from the northern extremity, a line of 140 fathoms did not reach the bottom. Connected with the geology of the country are its metallic minerals; copper, iron, and lead are found in great variety, the two former in abundance.

The Soil is light, on a sandstone rock, thickly covered with huge boulders of granite, in many places alluvial, presenting extensive tracts of land fit for the cultivation of any crops. On the N.W. coast, in the valleys and along the banks of the small rivers a deep rich soil prevails. There is a good deal of wet, mossy bog land, which, as the country becomes cleared and peopled, will yield excellent crops.

Climate.—Cape Breton in some respects resembles the neighbouring peninsula, with perhaps more moisture from its insular position. The fog, which is swept along the shores of Nova Scotia by the S.W. wind, and along the S.E. coast of Cape Breton, as far as Scatarie, is then blown off to sea: it never extends far inland, being dissipated by the reflected heat. The climate is exceedingly healthy, and the water excellent—two things of paramount value to the settler. The seasons may be thus indicated:—in June the blossoms of the indigenous shrubs appear; apple trees are in full bloom in the beginning of July, when strawberries are in perfection; hay is made in July and August; in the latter months raspberries and oats ripen, as do also currants and gooseberries, wheat in September, and apples and plums

hang on the trees until the approach of winter in October and November.

Animal Kingdom.—All the usual domestic animals, besides the moose and cariboo; the former are now comparatively scarce, owing to an indiscriminate massacre which took place for the sake of the hides, soon after the English settled in the country. So great was the destruction of these fine animals that hundreds of carcasses were left scattered along the shore from St. Ann's to Cape North, creating a stench so powerful as to be perceptible to vessels a considerable distance at sea.

Remains of huge animals are found, which it would appear formerly ranged in the vicinity of the Bras d'Or. Enormous bones, resembling thigh bones, six feet in length, are reported to have been seen lying at the bottom of the lake. In the bed of the Wagamatcook, shortly after the settlement on that river, an extraordinary skull was discovered. One of the teeth which was taken to Sydney, resembled, in general appearance, the molars of the human jaw: its greatest measure was about eight inches; but whether that length had been transversely or longitudinally situated in the jaw, could not be determined by those who had not seen the skull from which it had been taken. The thickness from the root to the crown of the tooth was four inches, and the width across the crown about the same. There were ten processes upon the crown; five on either side. I give this statement on the authority of Mr. Haliburton; but a Nova Scotia newspaper of the year 1837, has the following more extraordinary statement:—"The tooth of an extinct species of animal has been recently found at Cape Breton, measuring 17 inches in length, eight inches round the thickest end, and weighing two pounds fifteen ounces; though partially decayed, a large portion is in an excellent state of preservation."

The Indians have a story, that a huge animal once raised its head out of the water of the Middle Barrasoi of St. Ann's Bay, near Cape North, and set them on fire, that it was long before any would venture thither again.

POPULATION.—The number of mouths is estimated at 50,000, of whom the greater part are emigrants from the Highlands of Scotland and their descendants. They are chiefly employed in agriculture. The next most numerous race are the original European colonists, or French Acadians; an

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industrious people, employed in the fisheries, and in building small vessels. The remaining colonists consist of English and Irish settlers, disbanded soldiers, and American loyalists, who were located here after the American war. The Mic Mac tribe, whose ancestors once tenanted the whole island, are now reduced to about 300, many of whom have embraced the Roman Catholic religion, and are becoming civilized to some extent: they have lands assigned to them amounting to 10,000 acres.

Products.—Coal, fish, gypsum, and timber. The rivers, creeks, and bays teem with every variety of the finny tribe. The extent of coal and gypsum has been already stated: timber of excellent quality grows in immense forests: live cattle, butter, cheese, potatoes, oats, &c., are becoming increased articles of export to Newfoundland.

The coal trade is increasing, and forms a lucrative traffic for Cape Breton as well as for Nova Scotia. The following is a return of the quantity of coal sold at the mines of the "General Mining Association" in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, now open and in course of working:—

Sold in the Years	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
	Ch.	Ch.	Ch.	Ch.
For the British Provinces	44,412	45,165	48,710	54,762
" United States . .	59,998	57,570	91,477	76,017
Total . .	104,410	102,735	140,187	130,779

It will be seen from the above, that the United States consume a larger quantity of coal from Nova Scotia and Cape Breton than the British American provinces. By the exertions of T. B. Foord, Esq., the able London secretary of the Mining Association, markets for their coal have been opened in all the seaports of the United States. The Pieton coal, being free from sulphur, is most used for manufacturing purposes, such as the smelting of iron and for gas; the Cape Breton coal for domestic use and for steam-vessels: both are equally applicable for the latter purpose, though more so when burned together. The Liverpool and Halifax steamers burn the Cape Breton coal on their voyages from America to England. In proportion to the progress of manufactures and population in the United States, the demand for coal from the British American provinces will increase, as Nova Scotia and Cape Breton are the only districts in North America in which this valuable mineral has been found of superior quality. It has been

erroneously supposed that the "General Mining Association" have a monopoly of all the coal and iron in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton. By the lease granted to the Duke of York, for 60 years, from 1825, of all the mines and minerals in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, an exception was made or such lands in the province as had been previously granted to individuals, over which the Crown had reserved no mineral rights. Wherever, therefore, coal or iron can be found in Cape Breton or Nova Scotia thus situated, the proprietors, or their lessees, may work the mines; and, indeed, a company is now being formed in the province for this purpose, termed the "Londonderry Coal and Iron Company." The "General Mining Association," as sub-lessees of the late Duke of York, at a fixed rent of £3,000 per annum, have expended a million and a-half of money in the province, from which great benefit must have accrued to the colony. The Royalty is two shillings per chaldron on every chaldron shipped above 26,000 chaldrons Newcastle measure.

The Sydney and Bridgeport coal mines are both in the island of Cape Breton. The Sydney mines are situated on the north-west entrance of Sydney harbour, a harbour unsurpassed by any in British America, and accessible in all winds. This coal field is similar in quality to that of Newcastle. It is well suited for all the purposes of good fuel, especially for domestic use. It is highly bituminous, ignites readily, gives a strong lasting heat, and leaves but little ash. A railroad has been made from the pits to a point of the harbour, where vessels of any burthen can load with ease, and are well sheltered from the prevailing winds. The establishment at the Sydney mines consists of about 150 persons, who occupy 50 houses, including the buildings required for the works.

The Bridgeport mines are situated on the southern shore of Indian Bay, one mile and three quarters from the harbour where vessels load, and which is perfectly secure for shipping in the most boisterous weather. The southern head of Indian Bay, which is called Cape Table, bears by compass from Fluit Island N.W. by W., distance eight miles and a-half, and the northern head of the Bay bears from the light-house on Plat Point at the entrance of Sydney harbour S.E., distance four miles. Vessels may run safely into four fathoms water between the northern and southern heads.

The coal from these mines is of excellent

quality, of the same description as the Sydney, and little inferior to it. A railroad has been laid from the pits to the shipping place, and along which the coal is carried and deposited at once in the holds of the vessels.

This establishment employs about 100 persons: the houses and buildings exceed 20 in number, exclusive of wharfs, saw-pits, &c. The island is valuable in an agricultural as well as in a mineral point of view: In 1839, '40, and '41, the quantity of land sold was 13,840 acres, at an average price of 2s. 4d. per acre.

The indifference too long manifested con-

cerning Cape Breton is gradually passing away, because its importance and capabilities are becoming better understood. It is to be hoped that the improvement now taking place in the social condition of the people may steadily progress, and that the blessings of religion and education may be, ere long, extensively diffused among them. They well deserve the hearty co-operation and goodwill of Britain, for their attachment towards her, and the readiness they have evinced to defend their island against the enemies of the vast empire of which they form a small but valuable and *valued* part.

CHAPTER V.

SABLE ISLAND, THE MAGDALEN ISLANDS, AND BRION ISLAND.

SABLE ISLAND, famous for the disastrous attempt at colonization, made on its inhospitable shores by the Marquis de la Roche in 1598, has since acquired a still more painful notoriety from having been the scene and occasion of very many shipwrecks, from its lying in the direct track of vessels to and from Europe. It is about 85 miles distant from Cape Canso, and is included in the province of Nova Scotia. Its length is about 30 miles, its breadth varies greatly from its irregular outline, which is somewhat in the form of a bow. The W. end is in N. lat. 43° 56' 42", W. long. 60° 71' 15"; the E. end in N. lat. 43° 59' 5", W. long. 59° 42'. A considerable sum of money is annually appropriated for the maintenance of an establishment on the island, consisting of a superintendent and assistants, with abundant supplies of every article likely to be required in case of shipwreck. This establishment was formed in 1801, and kept up at the expense of the province until 1827; but in the latter year the British government undertook to furnish a sum equal to that voted by the province, and the establishment has consequently been greatly enlarged, and its usefulness much increased. Its necessity is sufficiently attested by the melancholy fact, that 40 vessels were wrecked there in a few years, and in a single winter 200 people are stated to have perished on its coasts. The surface of the island (according to the state-

ments furnished to Judge Haliburton) is undulating; and the colour is also very similar to that of the sea, from which it is not easily distinguishable. Throughout its whole extent there is not a single tree or shrub, and the only productions to be found upon it are a strong coarse grass, commonly known by the name of bent grass, or sea matweed, wholeberry, and cranberry bushes. The grass is indigenous, and grows near the shore, or in low places; and the cranberry bushes are confined to the deep hollows, which the violence of the wind has formed by scooping out the sand, and driving it into the sea. With these exceptions, the soil, if such it can be called, consists of a naked sand, which is easily acted upon by the tempest, and drifts like snow. In some places it has formed conical hills, one of which is 100 feet high; and notwithstanding its exposure, and the looseness of its texture, continues to increase in bulk. After a gale of wind, human skeletons are sometimes exposed to view, and timber and pieces of wrecks are disinterred, which have been buried for years.

Those who have not personally witnessed the effect of a storm upon this place, can form no adequate idea of its horrors. The reverberating roar of the sea, when it strikes this attenuated line of sand, on a front of 30 miles, is truly appalling, and the vibration of the island under its mighty pressure

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seems to indicate that it will separate eventually, and be borne away into the ocean. The whole of the S. end is covered with timber, which has either been drifted thither by the current or torn from wrecks, and driven on shore by the violence of the sea. At each extremity there is an extensive and dangerous bar. The N.W. bar is 16 miles long, and from a mile to a mile and-a-half wide, on the whole of which the sea breaks in bad weather. That on the N.E., which is of the same width as the other, extends 28 miles, and in a storm forms one continued line of breakers. The currents are variable, one especially but little known to seamen, is stated to have been a chief cause of the numerous disasters. There seems reason to believe, that the gulf stream at 42° 30', running E.N.E. occasions the waters of the St. Lawrence, running S.S.W., to glide to the westward. The strength of the current has never been noted, and three-fourths of the vessels lost are supposed to have thought themselves to the eastward of the island, when, in fact, they were in the longitude of it.

The island is said to be decreasing in size. The spot where the first superintendent dwelt is now more than three miles in the sea, and two fathoms of water break upon it. Although it must occasionally vary, according to the violence of storms and the action of the waters, yet it is thought that the effect of these is perceptible rather on the bars and shoals, than on the island itself, which is diminished by the wind faster than it is supplied by the ocean.

During the summer months, the S.W. wind is so prevalent as to be almost a trade wind, and is attended with the inconvenience to the party residing on it, and the danger to strangers, of being always accompanied by fog. In winter the rigour of the climate is abated by the sea breeze; and snow, though it sometimes falls in heavy showers, is almost immediately blown off into the water. Although the island is a mere strip of sand, it contains a pond 18 miles long, and nearly a mile wide, denominated Lake Wallace, between which and the sea, on the south side, there is a narrow ridge or sea wall, of about 200 yards. This lake, when the island was first discovered, appears to have had the same form as at present; but very many years afterwards a breach was made into it by the sea on the north side, and an inlet formed, which converted it into a very commodious harbour for small coasters. A tem-

pest, similar to that which opened it, closed it again, and blockaded two small American shallops that had sought shelter within it. About the centre of the north side of the lake is the house of the superintendent, which is one story in height, and 40 feet in length by 20 in breadth, near it stand the stores and a large barn. On an adjoining hill is a flag staff, made of the spritsail-yard of the French frigate l'Africane, wrecked in the year 1822, from which signals are made to vessels in distress. At each end of the lake is a hut, furnished with provisions, apparatus for striking fire, and directions for finding the house of the superintendent. Two small kitchen gardens are attached to the house, and one place has been found where cabbages can be reared. Rye, oats, and Indian corn, have been frequently sown, but they have never arrived at maturity. The stock of cattle consists of a few horses, some cows and oxen, hogs and poultry. But though the attempt to raise sheep has been often made with every possible care, it has hitherto failed, the climate or the food not being congenial to them. Besides the barn adjoining the house, there is another at the east end of the lake, which is filled with hay made of the beach grass. The family of the superintendent are supplied with firewood by the drift timber found on the south end of the island, which is hauled to the lake and there formed into a raft, and towed to the dwelling-house, for which purpose they are furnished with two excellent whale boats. The water of the island is brackish and of yellowish colour, but is everywhere attainable in the hollows by digging from three to five feet. From an early period there appears to have been a herd of wild cattle upon it. The Portuguese were the first who made this humane provision for the unfortunate, by landing some calves, which increased in a few years to such an extent, as to induce unprincipled men to hunt them for the sake of their hides and tallow, and in some instances to remove them alive. The disputable nature of the employment, and the danger attending a protracted visit on the island, were such, that they were not exterminated for more than a century. After this it was again stocked, but the cattle shared the same fate as those which had been previously placed there. At a subsequent period, a French clergyman, at Boston, named Mr. le Mercier, who called himself an Englishman by naturalization, sent cattle thither, and proposed to remove there

himself. Among the records of the province, there is an application from him to lieutenant-governor Armstrong, at Annapolis, for a grant of the island, but as he declined to accept it on the terms proposed, of paying a quit rent to the king, it was finally withheld. A proclamation, however, was issued by the governor, forbidding people to kill these animals, and they continued there for many years, but at what time they were destroyed and succeeded by the horses now upon it, is not known, nor is it ascertained whether the latter are the descendants of some sent there by him, or of others which have escaped from wrecks. Since the formation of the establishment, and the protection afforded them by it, they have greatly increased in number. They are small, but strong and active, and endure, with surprising hardihood, the inclemency of the weather in winter, without any other shelter than that afforded by the hillocks of sand. The south end of the island is their general resort, on account of the quantity of grass on its shores, and its remoteness from the house of the superintendent. They have increased beyond their means of subsistence, and although many are killed every year to supply fresh provisions for the crews of wrecks, who are detained there until an opportunity offers for conveying them to Nova Scotia, yet several of the aged and infirm are generally found dead every spring. They are exceedingly wild, and it is no easy matter to approach within gun-shot of them. As it is desirable that no ineffectual efforts should be made to shoot them, and that they should not be unnecessarily maimed or wounded, great care is taken by the marksman to cretate himself in a suitable place, until an animal approaches within a convenient distance, when one shot usually suffices to kill him. The young male horses are selected for slaughter, and are easily distinguished from the aged by their superior condition, and by the size of the mane, which in the old horses is of extreme length, reaching nearly to their knees. The meat is said to be tender and by no means unpalatable. The island is also well stocked with English rabbits, which make an agreeable variety in the food of the residents. The nature of the soil is so peculiarly adapted to the habits of these animals, that they have multiplied astonishingly, and are prevented from becoming too numerous only by a similar increase of rats, the progeny of those that have escaped from wrecks. Great numbers of the latter perish

in the course of the winter, and during the rainy weather of the spring and autumn. Until within the last 15 years, there was a small herd of wild hogs, that became exceedingly fierce. The climate, however, which had always restricted their increase, finally overcame them altogether, for the whole perished during an unusually severe winter. Since that time it has not been thought advisable to renew this species of stock, which, considering the nature of the food that shipwrecks must sometimes have unfortunately furnished them, must always have been objects of horror and disgust. During the early part of the summer, gulls, ducks, divers, and other wild fowl, lay an immense quantity of eggs on the southern point, and a party from the house frequently sail up the lake and fill their boat with them. At the approach of winter these birds migrate to the continent.

Soon after the settlement of the New England colonies, this place became a favourite resort of fishermen for the purpose of killing morse and seal. The former are nearly exterminated, but the latter still afford, during the season, a favourite employment to the people of the superintendent. They are of the species "*Phoca Ursina*;" the male is sometimes eight feet long, and 800 pounds in weight; but the female is much smaller. The colour of the former is nearly black, and of the latter a dark speckled brown. Their hair is long and rough, and on the neck of the male is upright, and a little longer than the rest. The fore legs are about two feet long, and the hinder ones twenty-two inches, the feet being divided by five toes, separated by a large web, and spreading to the extent of twelve inches. They are prodigiously strong, swimming at the rate of seven miles an hour, and are very tenacious of life, often surviving the most severe wounds. When on shore they live in families, each male being attended by several females, whom he guards with great jealousy. The young ones, at twenty days old, are nearly white, and their flesh bears a resemblance to that of sucking pigs. The males, when old, are deserted by the females. They then live apart from the rest, and become exceedingly fierce and quarrelsome. Their contests are often violent and sanguinary, and they inflict wounds on each other, not unlike the cuts of a sabre. At the termination of one of these battles, they throw themselves into the sea to wash away the blood. Although by no means so numerous as they were in for-

mer years, they still resort to the island in great numbers. They arrive on the north-east bar about the middle of January, for the purpose of whelping, and remain there for the space of a month; when the puppies are about twenty-five days old, preparations are made for attacking them. Each person is armed with a club five or six feet in length, made of oak or ash, the butt being transixed with a piece of steel, one end of which is shaped like a spike, and the other formed into a blade. As the seals seldom advance beyond the summit of the bar, so as to avail themselves of its declivity to facilitate their descent into the sea, the assailants approach with great caution and silence, and when within about 200 yards, rush in between them and the water, and commence the attack. Each man selects the largest as the object of his particular pursuit, and strikes him, on the back part of the head, several blows with the steel spike. He then applies the blade, in the same manner, to the wound thus inflicted, and repeats the blows till the animal is brought to the ground. The strength and fierceness of this species of seal is so great, that this attempt is not unaccompanied with danger, and when they turn on their pursuer, they often ward off the blow with much dexterity, and have been known to seize the club in their mouth and escape. An ordinary hand-spike would be altogether unavailing, and a musket equally so. When driven off this shoal, they land again on the north-west bar, where they are pursued in the same manner, after which they disappear altogether until the ensuing year. The chief value of the seal consists in the oil. When the animal is killed, the fat is peeled off with knives. The skin of a full-grown seal is worth about five shillings, and that of a whelp about one shilling and sixpence. The proceeds of the sale, both of the skins and the oil, go towards the funds of the establishment.

THE MAGDALEN ISLANDS are situated 18 leagues N.W. of Cape Breton, the same distance northward of Prince Edward Isle; 36 leagues from the nearest point of Newfoundland; 75 leagues from the French settlements of Miguclon and St. Pierre, and 180 leagues eastward of Quebec. With four exceptions they form an almost continuous chain of land, about 42 miles long, in a

nearly N.E. and S.W. direction. Amherst Island, the most southerly of the chain, is nearly oval in form, having about five and-a-half and three and-a-half miles for its axis, with an isolated hill about 260 feet above the level of the sea. Its harbour is the best in the chain, with a narrow but straight entrance over a soft ooze bar, fit for vessels drawing 11 to 12 feet water. Numerous spots of sand almost connect Amherst with Grindstone Island, whose diameter is about five miles. Cape Abright, the next in succession, is about nine miles long and three broad. Then follows Entry and Coffin Islands. The population consists of about 200 families, the greater part of whom are French Acadians—fishermen. Lieutenant Baddely, who examined these islands, thinks them of igneous origin;—first, by reason of the form of the hills of which they are composed;—secondly, on account of their porphyritic, amygdaloidal, vesicular, or lava-like structure;—thirdly, the geological appearances of the sandstone, clays, &c., shown in their displacement, in their redness, and even in their friability. In some places the soil is a rich black mould, as at St. Vincent's, and other volcanic islands in the West Indies.

BRION ISLAND AND THE BIRD ISLANDS, north of the Magdalen islands, have been recently visited by the distinguished ornithologist, Audobon, who thus describes the "Great Gannet Rock," which derives its name from the numerous birds which breed there. Mr. Audobon says:—

"For several days I had observed numerous files proceeding northward, and marked their mode of flight while thus travelling.—At length, about ten o'clock, we discerned at a distance a white speck, which our pilot assured us was the celebrated rock of our wishes. After a while I could distinctly see its top from the deck, and thought that it was still covered with snow several feet deep. As we approached it, I imagined that the atmosphere around was filled with flakes, but on my turning to the pilot, who smiled at my simplicity, I was assured that nothing was in sight but the Gannets and their island home. I rubbed my eyes, took up my glass, and saw that the strange dimness of the air was caused by the innumerable birds, whose white bodies and black-tipped pinions produced a blended tint of light-grey. When we had advanced to within half a mile, this magnificent veil of floating Gannets was easily seen, now shooting upwards, as if intent on reaching the sky, then descending as if to join the feathered masses below, and again diverging toward either side and sweeping over the surface of the ocean."

BOOK III.—NEW BRUNSWICK.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION, BOUNDARIES, AREA, AND HISTORY.

POSITION AND AREA.—New Brunswick forms an eastern section of the American continent, and is situated between $45^{\circ} 5'$ and $48^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat., and between $63^{\circ} 50'$ and 68° W. long. It is bounded on the N. by Chaleurs Bay, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence (which separates it from the district of Gaspé), and by the Ristigouche River, which, in its whole course, from its source to its estuary in Chaleurs Bay, divides the province from the county of Bonaventure in Lower or Eastern Canada;* on the S. and S.E. by the Bays of Fundy, Chignecto, and the narrow peninsula which prevents Nova Scotia from being entirely insulated; the county of Westmoreland in New Brunswick being divided from that of Cumberland in Nova Scotia only by a boundary line drawn from Fort Cumberland to Bay Vert in Northumberland Straits (an arm of the Gulf of St. Lawrence); on the E. by Northumberland Straits, which separates it from Prince Edward Island and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and on the E. by the territories of the United States. The boundary line is so often a matter of discussion, that it may be acceptable to give verbatim the first article of the treaty of 1842 (commonly known as the Ashburton Treaty) by which it was finally arranged.

"It is hereby agreed and declared, that the line of boundary shall be as follows:—Beginning at the monument at the source of the River St. Croix, as designated and agreed to by the commissioners under the Fifth Article of the Treaty of 1794, between the governments of Great Britain and the United States; thence north, following the exploring line run and marked by the Surveyors of the two Governments in the years 1817 and 1818, under the Fifth Article of the Treaty of Ghent, to its intersection with the river St. John, and to the middle of the channel thereof; thence up the middle of the main channel of the said river St. John to the mouth of the river

* The boundary between New Brunswick and Canada is imperfectly defined. From the western extremity of Chaleur Bay, the river Ristigouche was adopted instead of "a line along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into

St. Francis; thence up the middle of the channel of the said river St. Francis, and of the lakes through which it flows, to the outlet of the Lake Pohenagamook; thence south-westerly, in a straight line, to a point on the N.W. branch of the river St. John, which point shall be ten miles distant from the main branch of the St. John, in a straight line and in the nearest direction; but if the said point shall be found to be less than seven miles from the nearest point of the summit or crest of the highlands that divide those rivers which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the river St. John, then the said point shall be made to recede down the said N.W. branch of the river St. John, to a point seven miles in a straight line from the said summit or crest; thence in a straight line, in a course about S., eight degrees W., to a point where the parallel of latitude of $46^{\circ} 25'$ N., intersects the S.W. branch of the St. John's; thence southerly by the said branch, to the source thereof in the highlands at the Metjarmette Portage; thence down along the said highlands which divide the waters which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the head of Hall's Stream; thence down the middle of said stream, till the line thus run intersects the old line of boundary surveyed and marked by Valentine and Collins previously to the year 1774 as the 45th degree of N. latitude, and which has been known and understood to be the line of actual division between the States of New York and Vermont on one side, and the British Province of Canada on the other; and from said point of intersection W. along the said dividing line, as heretofore known and understood, to the Iroquois, or St. Lawrence River."

The province is in form an irregular square, contains about 26,000 square miles, and has a sea coast 500 miles in length.

HISTORY.—The early history of New Brunswick is comprehended in that of Nova Scotia. Under the dominion of France it formed a portion of Acadia or New France, and its first settlements (of which the records are in general vague and unsatisfactory) appear to have been almost entirely confined to military posts on the St. John, and those at Chignecto and Bay Verte. Dr. Gesner,

the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea, to a point in the 45th degree of N. latitude." But the Ristigouche River divides into two streams, which have different sources. [See Map of New Brunswick on Map of Eastern Canada.]

in his recent and valuable "History of New Brunswick," from which I have obtained much interesting detail, says, that the first attempt at the colonization of the northern part of New Brunswick was made in 1639. In 1672 a number of French families emigrated to the river Miramichi, and soon after several small settlements were formed in different places, and a fortified town called Petite Rochelle, was commenced near the mouth of the Ristigouche. At Beaubair's Point, on the island of that name (so called by the governor or superintendent, Monsieur Beaubair), considerable settlements were formed, and some traces of civilization still remain. The settlers employed themselves chiefly in hunting and fishing, and had an extensive export trade, which continued prosperously until 1757, when it was greatly interrupted by English cruisers on the coast. In the same year their crops failed, and the succeeding winter they were reduced to a state of starvation. To the horrors of famine were added those of a pestilence, supposed to have been introduced by a vessel wrecked near the mouth of the Baie des Vents River, the remains of which are still to be seen. Two transports were despatched from France with supplies, for the relief of these unhappy people, but the vessels were captured by the British fleet, and 800 of the inhabitants perished. From the wearing away of the banks of the river at Beaubair's Point, where great numbers of them were buried, many graves have been opened; and in 1842 the bones of the early French emigrants were seen protruding from the soil, where, at present, a highway descends to the ferry crossing the N.W. branch of the river. Most of the habitans who survived fled to Chaleur Bay, St. John's Island, and Memnancook on the Peticodiac. Only a few colonists remained at French Fort Cove, Canadian Point, and Nequaak, which were the principal rallying points for the savages.

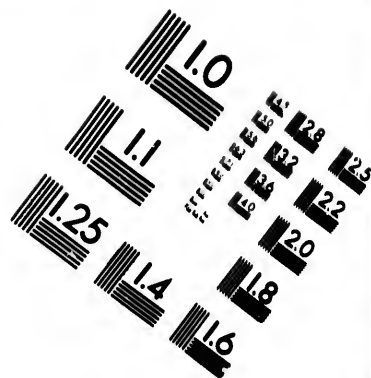
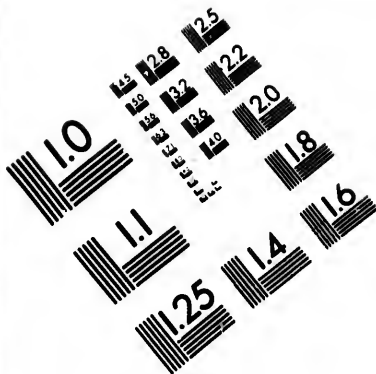
After the conquest of Quebec, a vessel, having on board the remains of General Wolfe, was driven, by stress of weather, into Miramichi river. The captain sent a boat and six men on shore to procure water. The boat landed at Henderson's Cove: the men were suddenly surrounded by a party of armed Indians and soldiers from the fort, and murdered upon the spot. The captain of the vessel, on being informed by the pilot of this barbarous massacre, retaliated with almost equal brutality. After silencing

the battery at the Cove, he destroyed the settlement at Canadian Point, and, it is said, he there put to death the miserable survivors of the famine and the pestilence. In proceeding to sea he landed at Nequaak, and set fire to a large church, from which circumstance the settlement has been ever since called Burnt Church.

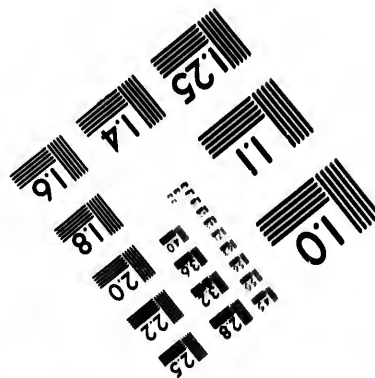
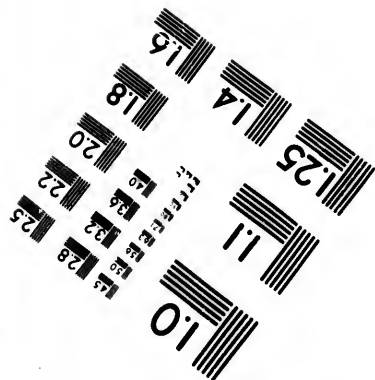
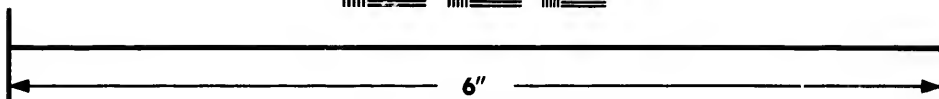
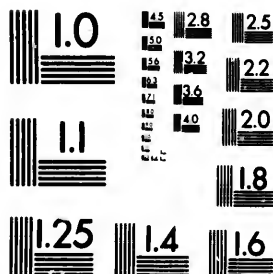
In 1760 a French fleet was sent to attempt the recovery of Canada, when being pursued by the British, the French took refuge in the Ristigouche, at the town of Petite Rochelle, where there were two batteries. Captain Byron, the British commander, having with difficulty worked his ships up the river, forced the enemy to an engagement, and succeeded in capturing and destroying the whole fleet. He then demolished the town, and razed the fortifications to the ground. The remains of two French vessels may still be seen at low-water near Mission Point, where several pieces of cannon are partially buried in the sand. At the site of Petite Rochelle, muskets, swords, bombshells, with a variety of other warlike instruments, have been found; and among the ruins of the town, china, silver forks and spoons, and other articles of luxury, have been discovered, evidencing the advanced state of civilization of its former inhabitants.

About 1761, settlers from Great Britain and the adjoining colonies began to flow into the province. In 1764, the first British settler, a Mr. Davidson, emigrated from the north of Scotland to Miramichi, and in the following year obtained from the British government a grant of 100,000 acres, situated on the south-west branch of the Miramichi. He was afterwards joined by a Mr. Cort, from Aberdeen, and they soon established a valuable trade. The fishery annually yielded them from 1,400 to 1,800 tierces of salmon, and they lived upon good terms with the Indians until the commencement of the American revolution, when the savages declared themselves in favour of the revolutionists, plundered their stores, and decreed the death of every individual belonging to the infant settlement. The arrival of the Viper sloop-of-war prevented the contemplated massacre. Thirty of the Indians attempted to capture the vessel, part of whom perished in the attempt, and the remainder were taken prisoners and sent to Halifax. On a subsequent occasion the colony was saved from destruction by the exertions of a Roman Catholic priest, named Cassanette. The first English settlement on





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the St. John was formed by some families from Massachusetts, who, having obtained from government the grant of a township on that river, immediately established themselves in the district now known as the County of Sunbury. At different times during the war they were joined by American loyalists and refugees. The first commission of the peace for this settlement is dated 11th of August, 1766, and the Courts of Common Pleas were held in Sunbury until 1783, when Fredericton was made the seat of government. The population at this period amounted to 800 souls.

In 1783 several thousands of disbanded troops were removed from New England to New Brunswick, and a number of Acadians who had established themselves at Fredericton were removed to Madawaska to make room for them. Even here the Acadians have not escaped the vicissitudes of fortune; for according to the boundary line laid down in 1842, one part of Madawaska district is assigned to Great Britain, and the other to the United States, and the divisional line has consequently placed the same people under two different governments.

In 1784, New Brunswick was separated from Nova Scotia, and made a distinct province. General Carleton was appointed governor, and by his judicious—his paternal administration—for nearly 20 years, he raised the country from almost the state of a wilderness to comparative civilization. In the year 1809, the duty on Baltic timber was advanced to £2 14s. 8d. per load, while that from the colonies was left free. The exportation from New Brunswick thereby received a great stimulus, and rapidly increased until 1825, when, from speculative over-trading, it experienced a severe check, from which, however, it recovered, and became as thriving as before. It has recently been again depressed.

In 1826, the east coast of Miramichi was visited by an awful conflagration, of which the following description, by an eye-witness (Mr. Cooney), may probably be acceptable to those who, never having been out of Europe, have probably but little idea of the fury and rapidity with which fires rage after a continuation of hot seasons in North America and New Holland, when the dry underwood and fallen leaves, in addition to the resinous quality of the timber, afford combustible materials in the greatest abundance:—

“The summer of 1825 was unusually warm in both hemispheres, particularly in America, where its effects

were fatally visible, in the prevalence of epidemical disorders. During July and August, extensive fires raged in different parts of Nova Scotia, especially in the eastern division of the Peninsula. The protracted drought of the summer, acting upon the aridity of the forests, had rendered them more than naturally combustible; and this facilitating both the dispersion and the progress of the fire that appeared in the early part of the season, produced an unusual warmth. On the 6th October, the fire was evidently approaching Newcastle; at different intervals fitful blazes and flashes were observed to issue from different parts of the woods, particularly up the N.W., at the rear of Newcastle, in the vicinity of Douglstown and Moorfields, and along the banks of the Bartibog. Many persons heard the crackling of falling trees and shrivelled branches, while a hoarse rumbling noise, not dissimilar to the roaring of distant thunder, and divided by pauses, like the intermittent discharges of artillery, was distinct and audible. On the 7th of October the heat increased to such a degree, and became so very oppressive, that many complained of its enervating effects. About 12 o'clock a pale sickly mist, lightly tinged with purple, emerged from the forest, and settled over it.

“This cloud soon retreated before a large dark one, which occupying its place, wrapt the firmament in a pall of vapour, and the heat became tormentingly sultry. There was not a breath of air—an irresistible lassitude seized the people; and a stupefying dullness seemed to pervade every place but the woods, which trembled, and rustled, and shook with an incessant and thrilling noise of explosions rapidly following each other, and mingling their reports with a discordant variety of loud and boisterous sounds. At this time the whole country appeared to be encircled by a fiery zone, which gradually contracting its circle by the devastation it made, curved as if it would not converge into a point while anything remained to be destroyed. A little after four o'clock an immense pillar of smoke rose in a vertical direction, at some distance N.W. of Newcastle, and the sky was absolutely blackened by this huge cloud; but a light northerly breeze springing up, it gradually distended, and then dissipated into a variety of shapeless mists. About an hour after, or probably at half-past five, innumerable large spires of smoke, issuing from different parts of the woods, and illuminated by flames, that seemed to pierce them, mounted to the sky.

“The river, tortured into violence by the hurricane, foamed with rage, and flung its boiling spray upon the land. The thunder pealed along the vault of heaven: the lightning appeared to rend the firmament. For a moment all was still, a deep and awful silence reigned over everything. All nature appeared to be hushed, when suddenly a lengthened and sullen roar came booming through the forest, driving a thousand massive and devouring flames before it. Then Newcastle, and Douglstown, and the whole northern side of the river, extending from Bartibog to the Naashwaak, a distance of more than 100 miles in length, became enveloped in an immense sheet of flame, that spread over nearly 6,000 square miles! That the stranger may form a faint idea of desolation and misery which no pen can describe, he must picture to himself a large and rapid river, thickly settled for 100 miles or more, with four thriving towns, two on each side of it, and then reflect that these towns and settlements were all composed of wooden houses, stores, stables, and barns; that these

barns and stables were filled with crops—and that the arrival of the fall importations had stocked the warehouses and stores with spirits, powder, and a variety of combustible articles, as well as with the necessary supplies for the approaching winter. He must then remember that the cultivated, or settled part of the river, was but a long narrow stripe, about a quarter of a mile wide, lying between the river and almost interminable forests, stretching along the very edge of its precincts, and all round it. Let him then animate the picture by scattering countless tribes of wild animals; hundreds of domestic ones; and even thousands of men through the interior. Having done all this he will have before him some idea of the extent, features, and general circumstances of the country, which, in the course of a few hours, was suddenly enveloped in fire. A more ghastly, or a more revolting picture of human misery, cannot be well imagined. Nothing broke upon the ear but the accents of distress; the eye saw nothing but ruin, and desolation, and death. Newcastle, yesterday a flourishing town, containing nearly 1,000 inhabitants, was now a heap of smoking ruins; and Douglastown was reduced to the same miserable condition. Of the 260 houses and storehouses that composed the former but 12 remained; and of the 70 that composed the latter but 6 were left. The confusion on board of 150 large vessels then lying in the Miramichi, and exposed to imminent danger, was terrible—some burnt to the water's edge—others burning—and the remainder occasionally on fire. Dispersed groups of half-famished, half-naked, and homeless creatures, all more or less injured in their persons; many lamenting the loss of some property, or children, or relations and friends, were wandering through the country. Of the human bodies some were seen with their bowels protruding, others with the flesh all consumed, and the blackened skeletons smoking; some with needless trunks and severed extremities—others reduced to ashes—many bloated and swollen by suffocation, and lying in the distorted position of their last agonizing convulsions. Brief and violent was

their passage from life to death: rude and melancholy their sepulchre—unknelled, uncoffined, and unknown. Upwards of 500 human beings perished. Thousands of wild beasts, too, had been destroyed in the woods, and from their putrescent carcasses issued streams of effluvia and stench. Domestic animals of all kinds lay dead and dying in different parts of the country; myriads of salmon, trout, bass, and other fish, which poisoned by the alkali formed by the ashes precipitated into the river, now lay dead, or floundering and gasping on the scorched shores and beaches; and the countless variety of wild fowl and reptiles shared a similar fate. Such was the awful conflagration at Miramichi, which elicited the prompt benevolence of very many philanthropists in the Old and New World, who subscribed £40,000 for the relief of the survivors, whose property, to the extent of nearly a quarter of a million, was destroyed."

Administrators of the Government of New Brunswick.

T. Carleton, Governor-in-Chief	1784
G. G. Ludlow, President	1786
E. Winslow	1803
Lieutenant-Colonel G. Johnston	1808
General M. Hunter	1809
General W. Balfour	1811
General M. Hunter	1812
General G. S. Smyth	1813
General Sir T. Saumarez	1814
General G. S. Smyth	1816
Lieutenant-Colonel H. W. Hailles	1817
General G. S. Smyth, Lieutenant-Governor	1823
Ward Chipman, President	1824
J. M. Bliss	1829
General Sir H. Douglas, Lieutenant-Governor	1831
W. Black, President	1837
General Sir A. Campbell, Lieutenant-Governor	1841
General Sir J. Harvey	1843
Colonel Sir W. E. Colebrook	1848
Sir E. W. Head, Bart.	

CHAPTER II.

TOPOGRAPHY, DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTIES AND CHIEF CITIES, GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, SOIL, TIMBER TREES, AND CLIMATE.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—New Brunswick presents much variety of scenery, and is marked by several distinguishing features. The greater part of its surface undulates boldly, forming several continuous ridges of high land, as, for instance, that which extends from Maine, in the United States, to Mars Hill, and from thence stretches across the country in a N.E. direction, and sending off a branch to the Ristigouche, nearly reaches Chaleurs Bay. The elevations in this and other ranges are seldom of any considerable height,

yet their precipitous acclivities, sharply defined outline, and deep ravines, give them an Alpine character, while the rich valleys, sheltered plains, and noble forests, through which rivers and lakes wind in every direction, offer many a cheering prospect to the eye of the intending settler, by the promise they offer of speedy and abundant return to diligent labour. The greater part of New Brunswick is still an uncultivated, though beautiful wilderness, containing abundance of fine timber and extensive prairies; of its

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general aspect it is therefore difficult to form, much more to convey, any satisfactory idea, except by describing the leading features of the counties, which are in general marked by natural, rather than artificial limits.

The chief river, the St. John, which rises in the territory of the United States, near the source of the Connecticut, and entering New Brunswick in or near 47° N. lat., flows in a semicircular form through the province until it disembogues in the Bay of Fundy in $45^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat., and 66° W. long. For 85 miles, up to Fredericton, it is navigable for vessels of 50 tons; thence barks of 20 tons can ascend to the Grand Falls, which are 125 miles higher, above them it is only useful for boats. The Miramichi is second only to the St. John in extent and importance, and with its numerous tributaries drains a vast tract of country. Three of the N.W. branches spring from a chain of lakes in the Upper Tobique country, and descending with rapidity traverse the forests of the S.W. for nearly 200 miles, then uniting the Miramichi becomes navigable for large vessels, and, at length, falls into the fine bay of the same name in 47° N. lat., and $64^{\circ} 53'$ W. long. The Ristigouche is also a fine stream, and will be noticed when examining the district which it waters. New Brunswick now contains 13 counties, and as the population increases others will doubtless be created; according to Dr. Gesner, there is still sufficient space for a county in the vicinity of the Grand Falls, one on the Tobique River, and one or two in the district of the Ristigouche. The names of the counties are, Gloucester, Northumberland, Kent, Westmoreland, St. John's, Charlotte, King's, Queen's, Sunbury, York, Carlton, Ristigouche, and Albert. Gloucester, Northumberland, and Kent, originally formed one county, called Northumberland, which extended over an area of 8,000 square miles, and possessed a river frontier from the source of the Ristigouche to Dalhousie Harbour, at the head of Chaleurs Bay, and from thence a seaboard along the S. side of the bay to the gulf coast of Shediac Island. Other counties have also been re-divided.

St. John's County extends along the northern shore of the Bay of Fundy for nearly 90 miles, its average breadth being about 10 miles. It contains the parishes of Portland, Carlton, Lancaster, St. Martin's, and Simonds. The coast line is almost entirely composed of barren rocks, especially in the

large parish of St. Martin, but owing to the vicinity of the city of St. John, the land in this county has been very carefully cultivated, and in the valleys and less elevated parts, good crops of oats, potatoes, and turnips are raised, and considerable advance has been made in the culture of wheat. Some excellent samples of turnips were exhibited in 1846, and the produce of the fields where they were grown, was stated to be at the rate of 800 bushels per acre.

The city of St. John in $45^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat., $66^{\circ} 3'$ W. long., is built on a rocky peninsula projecting into the harbour at the mouth of the noble river of the same name, and from its favourable position is the emporium of the inland trade of a great part of New Brunswick. Much labour has been employed in levelling the streets, but several of them are still inconveniently, and in winter even dangerously steep. That division of the city nearest the entrance of the harbour, is called Lower Cove. The principal wharfs, docks, and warehouses are situated farther to the north. The whole shore is lined with timber ponds, booms, and ship-yards, which receive the numerous rafts floated down the river. It is an incorporated city, divided into six wards, governed by a mayor, recorder, aldermen, sheriff of the county, coroner, common clerk, &c. St. John's has risen into opulence with as much rapidity as any city in North America. But little more than 60 years ago, the site of St. John was a rocky headland covered with cedar thickets. By the patronage of American loyalists, the foundation of its present prosperity was established. The streets are regularly, and on the whole well built. The numerous public buildings of stone, brick, and wood are many of them remarkable for their excellent structure. In 1837, a destructive fire consumed 115 houses and stores. The loss was estimated at £250,000. Several severe fires have occurred since, and whole streets, including the north and south market wharfs, and a new market-house, have been laid in ruins. The extreme point of the peninsula is occupied by two batteries, military stores, and barracks. Steam-boats ply night and day between St. John's and Fredericton.

Carlton, a town on the W. side of the harbour, is included in the city, and contains several good streets. The harbour of St. John is safe, commodious, and open at all seasons of the year. At its mouth lies Partridge Island, on which is a battery, light-house, and hospital for the reception of the

sick emigrants and sailors on their entering the quarantine station. Between the island and the mainland, is a long narrow bar, dry at low water, and on the bar is fixed a beacon crowned by an excellent light. The fishery here is very productive. The population of the city of St. John in 1840, was 20,716, but the suburb of Portland would add at least 5,000 to that number.

Portland continues to increase, and Mr. Perley, in his official returns, dated January, 1847, estimates the city of St. John with the suburb of Portland, at 30,000, and the rest of the county at 8,000 souls, in all 38,000 souls—about equal to one-fifth of the whole population of the province. The river St. John, before its entrance into the harbour, passes through a fissure in the solid rock, which exhibits every appearance of having been occasioned by some convulsion of nature. The volume of water collected in a course of many hundred miles being compelled to pass through a channel only 150 yards wide, rushes downwards with extreme velocity, forming the falls, which are simply a sluice on a grand scale. Dr. Gesner says, "that the ordinary tides of the harbour rise below the falls 26 feet; above the falls, their common elevation is only about 18 inches; therefore, the height of the fall outwards is 24 feet 6 inches. But the entrance of the river at the gorge is too narrow to admit the sea on the flood-tide to flow in freely, and therefore there is the singular occurrence of a fall inwards at high water, and a fall outwards at low water. The time for vessels to pass through the narrow opening or fall, is fixed at three quarters of an hour at each ebb and flood, or when the sea and river are both at the same level." Musquash Harbour, to the S.W. of St. John's, is a safe and beautiful haven, two miles long, and half a mile wide.

Charlotte County occupies the S.W. angle of New Brunswick, and is separated from the United States by the River St. Croix. It contains ten parishes; viz., St. Andrew's, St. Stephen's, St. David's, St. George's, St. Patrick's, St. James's, Pennfield, Grand Manan, West Isles, and Campo Bello. It is a hilly country, with ridges of granite rocks along its northern boundary; but it possesses much good land, especially in the valleys of the numerous streams by which it is intersected. The principal parish, St. Andrew's, contains the shire town of the same name, which is conveniently situated for commerce, on a narrow slip of low land at the N.E.

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extremity of Passamaquoddy Bay. St. Stephen's, at the head of the navigation of the St. Croix, is a thriving town. The parish of St. George is intersected by the Magaguadavic, and has an excellent harbour called L'Etang. Pennfield parish is chiefly settled by Quakers. Grand Manan Island is situated 12 miles S. of the main land of the United States. It is 25 miles long, with a mean breadth of five, having a number of islets on its N.E. side. A great part of the island is cultivated: the herring fishery is extensively prosecuted on its shores; and, in consequence of its important situation, commanding the entrance to the Bay of Fundy, is extremely valuable, being so far fortified by nature, that a little assistance from art would render it invulnerable. The perpendicular cliffs are, in some places, 600 feet high. Campo Bello Island is, in length, from N. to S., eight miles, with an average breadth of two. It is, for the most part, in a state of cultivation. The harbour De Lute, on the west side, near the north extremity, is large and safe, with a spacious entrance.

Deer Island is twelve miles long and three miles broad. It is partially cultivated, and surrounded by a multitude of small islets. The spacious and beautiful inlet of Passamaquoddy Bay, which separates the sea-coast of New Brunswick from the United States territory of Maine, is studded with numerous islets, some of which are richly wooded. This noble bay has the advantage of being free from ice to a greater extent inland than any other harbour north of New York. The fisheries in this county, in the vicinity of West Isles, Campo Bello, and Grand Manan, are of much importance.

The County of Westmoreland, until 1845, included the district south and west of the river Peticodiac, now crected into the county of Albert. It is eminently an agricultural and grazing county, containing extensive dyked marshes, a few small lakes, and occasional pent bogs and swamps. The coast is deeply indented by Shepody Bay and Cumberlan Basin; the former receives the Peticodiac, a fine stream, navigable for vessels of 100 tons burden 33 miles. It was called by the French, Petit Coude, (Little Elbow,) from its making, 26 miles from its mouth, a sudden turn at a right angle called the Beud, where the tide flows in and ebbs off in six hours. The east side of the Peticodiac, for 12 miles above its entrance, is occupied by Mic Mac Indians. Dorchester,

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the shire town, is well built and thickly populated. A pretty village in its vicinity is called after a Monsieur Believaux, who died at the advanced age of 110 years. Sackville parish borders upon Cumberland Basin. The great Tantamarre marsh is situated on both sides of the river of that name, and is one of the largest collections of fertile sea alluvium in British America, being twelve miles long, and four miles wide. The overflowing of the sea is prevented by dykes thrown up on the margin of the river and across the creeks. Westmoreland extends from the boundary between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and across the peninsula. A swelling ridge of land, called Point de Bute, separates a small stream called the Aulac, from the Missiguash, and forms the boundary line between the provinces. Fort Beau Sejour, now called Fort Cumberland, was erected on the south-western termination of the ridge, where it commands the entrance of both streams. On it stands a church and chapel, surrounded by fine farms and rich marshes. Bay Verte (so called from the salt-water grass that grows in the mud and floats on the surface,) is a narrow and shallow estuary, especially at its inner extremity. Shediac parish has a good harbour, near the mouth of which are two beautiful islands. The turn of the tide in the Bay of Fundy exhibits that peculiar phenomenon termed the Bore, which takes place on a much grander scale at the mouths of the Ganges, Indus, and Mississippi. The waters seem to accumulate without advancing, until the waves attain a considerable perpendicular height, and then dash forward with extreme velocity and irresistible force, the loud roar striking terror into the animals on the shore, who fly towards the highlands trembling with alarm.

Albert County.—From its recent organization this county requires but a brief notice. It contains 433,560 acres, of which 233,700 are granted and located. Its population is estimated at 5,660. Its productions are similar to those of Westmoreland. The parish of Hopewell stretches along the shore of Chignecto Bay. Shepody Mountain (as it is called) is the termination of a ridge of high land, extending along the boundary of the St. John from the S.W. The small river of that name ends in a lake, between which and the sea an opening has been made, to allow the tide to flow in and cover a large boggy tract with alluvium.

King's County has a mountainous aspect, being thickly interspersed by hills, steep declivities, and narrow ravines walled in by rocks. The western portion, with the exception of the flourishing parish of Greenwich, is almost in a wilderness state. Kingston, the shire town, is situated on a peninsula, between the Kenebecasis Bay (a branch of the St. John) and Belle Isle Bay, and communicates with the main-land, only in a northern direction, where it adjoins the parish of Sussex; improvements are making rapid progress, particularly in the latter named place, which, from a forlorn and dreary desert, has been rapidly transformed into a lovely and luxuriant valley, smiling with abundant harvests and rich pastures, whilst roads, bridges, and public works attest the enterprising spirit of its inhabitants. The Kenebecasis river is navigable 20 miles for vessels of any burthen, 30 miles for vessels drawing seven feet water, and 30 more for flat-bottomed boats. It has four small branches, the Mill Stream, Smith's Creek, Salmon River, and Trout Creek, which afford facilities for transporting timber, and sites for flour and saw-mills. The parish of Westfield has numerous lakes and streams, and abounds with fine timber. The Nerepis, after passing for 12 miles through marsh and intervalle land, falls into the St. John, which then bends abruptly to the N.E., and runs in a nearly direct line for 16 miles. This straight section of the river is called the Long Reach, and at its head are valuable quarries of excellent granite, which are now being largely worked.

Queen's County lies on both sides of the St. John, and is intersected by two important tributaries of that river, namely, the Washadamoak, the lower part of which may be called a lake from the stillness of its waters, and the Salmon, which empties itself into Grand Lake. This lake is a beautiful sheet of water, 30 miles long, and from 3 to 9 broad, connected with the St. John by a narrow and deep channel called the Gemsec (so often mentioned in the early histories of the province), and with French and Maguapit Lakes by channels opened through the alluvium forming the intervalles. All these lakes and channels are navigable. Gagetown (the shire town) is pleasantly situated at the mouth of the Gemsec, and is the shipping place for the produce of the district. Long Musquash and other islands in this part of the St. John, are planted after the subsidence of the spring freshets, and produce fine crops.

The parish of Wickham has increased greatly within the last few years. The western portion of the country is almost wholly uncultivated. The parish of Brunswick contains a few settlers at the north-eastern extremity, but almost its entire surface is shaded by a trackless forest; yet this part, and, indeed, the whole county, has great agricultural capabilities, besides possessing coal fields of considerable extent, and abundance of fine timber, of which it has furnished to the port of St. John large supplies for many years.

Sunbury County lies between Queen's and York, and like them crosses the St. John. The parishes of Manguerville and Sheffield are considered the most productive tracts in the province, in consequence of their being annually overflowed. It is impossible to conceive a scene more luxuriant than they exhibit in the season of harvest; for upwards of twenty miles below Fredericton there is scarcely an unimproved spot on the banks of the St. John, through which run a chain of islets as fertile as the mainland. Burton and Lincoln parishes are situated on highlands, with valuable slips of intervalle, the whole of which are in a high state of cultivation. At Manguerville the first British settlement in New Brunswick was planted, and another very early one was formed at the mouth of the Oromucto, where there is now a large village, formerly a resort of the Indians, whose graves are sometimes exposed by the operations of the plough. Shipbuilding, to some extent, is carried on here. On the north and south branches of the Oromucto are many thriving settlements.

York County occupies the higher banks of the St. John for about 50 miles, and contains Fredericton, the capital of New Brunswick, which is situated in the parish of the same name, in 45° 57' N. lat., 66° 45' W. long.; 85 miles distant from the sea coast at St. John's. It was formerly called St. Ann's, and was made the seat of government by Sir Guy Carleton, in 1785. The town stands on a plain fronting the river (here three quarters of a mile wide), which, curving boldly, encloses it on two sides; on the S. a range of hills two miles long and half a mile wide surround it; and from the opposite coast, the Nashwaak rolls its broad, and sometimes rapid, stream into the St. John, which to this point is navigable from the sea upwards for vessels of 50 tons burthen.

Fredericton is laid out in blocks of a quarter of an acre square, of which there are

18: the streets are disposed rectangularly, some of them being a mile long, and, for the most part, continuously built on with wooden houses. The public edifices are the Province Hall (where the provincial assembly and courts of justice assemble), the court-house, barracks, government-house, library, church, chapels, and kirk, and many other structures. The population of the parish of Fredericton in 1840, was 4,002 souls; but the city of Fredericton alone, in 1847, was supposed, by Mr. Perley, to contain 6,000 souls.

Above Fredericton, are the parishes of Kingsclear on the S. and St. Mary on the N., both settled by disbanded soldiers. Queensbury parish was laid out originally for the Queen's Rangers, and has prospered well; but Prince William, settled by the King's American Dragoons, has not been equally thriving, the land being much less favourable. An average crop of oats in this county, of the best quality, is said to be 30 bushels to the acre; but in 1846, there were fields in and near Fredericton, which yielded 60 bushels to the acre. The land (comprising 550,000 acres), purchased from the crown by the New Brunswick and Nova Scotia Land Company, is chiefly situated between the St. John and the S.W. branch of the Miramichi. The company have spent large sums in making roads, clearing land, and building houses, mills, and bridges. The greater part of their tract is of excellent quality, much of it consisting of upland intervalle, and they offer liberal encouragement to emigrants. The town of Stanley, formed by this company, is, according to Dr. Gesner, yearly increasing in population and prosperity. It is situated on the borders of the Nashwaak, 35 miles above its confluence with the St. John. Douglas parish on the N. side of the St. John, is intersected by the Keswick River.

Carlton County includes all the upper part of the St. John, so far as it flows through British territory. A portion of it containing, by estimate, 2,700,000 acres, has been claimed by the province of Canada, since the settlement of the disputed boundary with the United States. The first parishes, after leaving York, are Woodstock on the W., and Northampton on the E., both granted to provincial regiments disbanded in 1815. The lands of these settlements are well cultivated and exceedingly productive. At the north-western extremity of Woodstock, the Meduxnikag (a broad, rapid stream, with almost innumerable branches)

empties itself into the St. John; both banks of which, from Woodstock to the mouth of the Tobique, 50 miles above, are more or less in progress of cultivation.

Wakefield parish contains, and is surrounded by flourishing farms. The thriving village of the same name, 12 miles from Woodstock, is very picturesquely situated. The extensive parish of Kent comprises the remaining and least settled part of the course of the St. John. The Presqu'île is a considerable stream; but from its numerous rapids, scarcely navigable, even for canoes. One of its branches bends along the base of Mars Hill, and receives the brooks descending from the side of the mountain. Mars Hill is about five miles and-a-half west of the river St. John, and one hundred from Fredricton; and has a degree of interest attached to it, from the circumstance of its being the point fixed on by the British commissioners as the commencement of the range of highlands forming the boundary of the United States. The mountain is about three miles in length, with a base of upwards of four miles, an elevation of two thousand feet above the sea, and one thousand two hundred above the source of the St. Croix; near the summit it is almost perpendicular. As it is the highest point in its vicinity, the prospect commands a great extent of territory: immediately beneath stretch the vast forests, whose undulations, clothed with the funereal green of the fir, and the brilliant verdure of the birch, resemble stupendous waves, the more elevated spots rising above the others, like towers on the ocean. The mountain chain, of which Mars Hill is only an insulated point, pursues its course to the northward, leaving within its range Bear Mountain and Moose Mountain. Blue Mountain, near the Tobique, is the next eminence of any considerable altitude in this portion of the Alleghany chain. In this county, the St. John receives its largest tributaries, the Tobique from the E., the Ristook or Aroostook from the W. About eighty miles from its mouth, the Tobique divides into four branches. The extreme sources of this river wind "among naked mountains far in the interior, where the native wild animals find a retreat, and the beaver lives in safety within his dwelling." Formerly there were large forests of the valuable white and red pine in the vicinity of this stream, but most of them have been destroyed by fires. Spruce, cedar, larch, are still abundant, and there are also groves

of beech, birch, and maple. The mouth of the Tobique is occupied by an encampment of Melicete Indians. The Aroostook falls into the St. John two miles above the Tobique, and, with its branches and contiguous lakes, will afford a water communication equal to four hundred miles in extent. Fifteen miles above the Tobique, Salmon River (so named from its having formerly abounded in that fish), flows into the St. John. About five miles above are the Grand Falls. The St. John, in the midst of its stately course, is suddenly compressed into a narrow gorge, three quarters of a mile long, flanked by steep and overhanging cliffs, from 100 to 150 feet high, at the termination of which, a ridge of rocks changes the hitherto unbroken volume into one vast body of turbulent foam, which thunders over a perpendicular precipice, 58 feet in height, into a deep vortex among huge black rocks, whence the river rolls out impetuously through a channel still more confined in width than the previous one, forming a succession of cataracts for about a half a mile, the picturesque effect being increased by crags of every form, which, in several places, shroud the water from sight. A sudden turn in the river, at the Grand Falls, forms a little pinnacle, on which a pretty village has been built, which is interesting from its romantic position. The isthmus of the falls is one of the oldest military posts in the province; and since the settlement of the boundary question, the government has commenced clearing land and fortifying this important part of the frontier. Twelve miles above the fall, Grand River, enters the main stream, which, a few miles higher, receives the Madawaska, on whose banks is an Acadian settlement of that name. The soil is fertile, and the population is steadily increasing. It is stated by Dr. Gesner, to include both sides of the St. John, from the Grand Falls to the mouth of the St. Francis, upwards of 40 miles; and he adds, that there are a few groups of farms and clearings beyond these limits. Having briefly surveyed the counties bordering on the Bay of Fundy, upon the St. John and the United States frontier, we proceed to examine those on the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Chaleurs Bay.

The New Brunswick shore, along the gulf of St. Lawrence, is low and sandy, covered with trees of a stunted growth, and skirted with extensive marshes, large deep mosses and long sand beaches, formed by the conflicting currents of the gulf, and the different

rivers that pierce the shore. The coast line of the magnificent Chaleurs Bay, which is 85 miles long, and from 16 to 30 broad, commencing in $47^{\circ} 58' N.$ lat., $64^{\circ} 30' W.$ long., is similar to the Gulf shore, but in several places there are perpendicular cliffs of some height.

Kent County, so named in honour of his royal highness the Duke of Kent, extends from Shediac harbour to the south extremity of Miramichi Bay, having about 50 miles of coast, with several small but good harbours. The settlements are chiefly confined to the Gulf shore and the banks of the rivers along the tide-way. The Acadian-French constitute a considerable proportion of the population, and have formed themselves into numerous compact villages. The *Richibucto*, on which is built the shire town of Liverpool, is about 65 miles long, and rolls into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, through a safe and capacious harbour, 43 miles S. of Point Escuminac. In its greatest width at the entrance it is not more than a mile, and often does not exceed 200 feet. The tide flows 22 miles from its mouth, affording a sufficiency of water for large vessels; canoes navigate to its source, whence there is a small portage to the Salmon River, whose source is unknown, but which flows for 80 miles to the S.W., and falls into Salmon Bay, at the head of the Grand Lake in Queen's County. The banks of the Richibucto, for nine miles from the sea, are low and sandy, but further inland the country assumes an easy and gradual elevation, indicating by a better growth of timber a more fertile soil. The *Chcubouche* rises also in Kent County, is 36 miles long, falls into the gulf 20 miles to the south of Richibucto, and is navigable for schooners 12 miles from its mouth, to which extent the tide reaches. This river is remarkable for its abundance of large and excellent oysters. The county is divided into nine parishes, two of them are quite uninhabited, and the others but scantily populated; yet much of the land is of good quality, and well adapted for the cultivation of grain. The whole surface is exceedingly level, and, on an average, its elevation does not exceed 20 feet above the sea. The coast affords valuable fisheries. Herring and mackerel are sometimes so abundant, as to be employed in manuring the soil. In the parish of Dundas is the fine harbour of Cockayne; in that of Wellington is Buctouche harbour.

Northumberland County, although those of Kent and Gloucester have been taken from it, is still the largest in the province. The principal river is the Miramichi, which, 40 years ago, was only known to a few fur traders, and is now of considerable importance, owing to the timber trade and fisheries carried on by its hardy and enterprising inhabitants. The Miramichi falls into the Gulf of St. Lawrence in $47^{\circ} 10' N.$ lat., $64^{\circ} 40' W.$ long., forming at its estuary a capacious bay, enclosing several islands. Chatham, the county town, is situate on the south bank of the Miramichi. On the opposite banks are the towns of Newcastle and Douglas, which have, phoenix-like, risen from their ashes, they and other villages having been entirely destroyed in the terrific conflagration of 1825, (described in p. 222.) Two miles below Douglas town, on the opposite side, is the prosperous village of Nelson, in the parish of that name. Seven miles above Chatham the Miramichi divides into two branches, one running S.W., and the other N.W. The tide extends about 15 miles up the S.W. branch, beyond the point of junction, and the banks are settled nearly 45 miles from the tide-way, up to which point large-sized vessels can load and unload: from hence to the river Tauck, (45 miles,) small craft, lighters, and barges arrive from Chatham and Newcastle, and proceed through the New Brunswick Company's territory, for 40 miles further; the S.W. branch of the Miramichi containing more water, from the junction of the Tauck when it again ascends to the northward, than the Thames from London upwards. The N.W. arm of the Miramichi is more rapid and rocky, and consequently less navigable than the S.W. branch: there is, however, little obstruction to canoe navigation for about 80 miles, to where it meets the tide, 17 miles above the harbour. The source of the S.W. branch is in the county of York, near the Tobique, 12 miles from the St. John: the commencement of the N.W. branch is not known, the country being there little explored. The former is about 189 miles long before reaching the latter (which is 100 miles in length), each of them receive several streams of from 20 to 40 miles long. The sea-coast of the Miramichi is low, but inland the country rises in some places, consisting of extensive and rich intervals; in others of a rugged rocky description. The country in general has scarcely yet recovered from the deso-

lating effects of the great fire, but the establishment and operations of the New Brunswick Company will, it is to be hoped, facilitate the settlement of so fine a territory.

Gloucester County joins Northumberland on the E. and S., and is bounded on the N. by Chaleurs Bay. From its extensive sea-coast and numerous rivers, this county has great facilities for fishing and lumbering; but its soil and climate are both favourable to agricultural pursuits, especially to the growth of grain. Bathurst (formerly called St. Peter's), the shire town, is pleasantly situated on a beautiful bay of the same name. It was formerly the boundary between the Mohawk Indians of Canada and the Mic Maes of Nova Scotia, and was the scene of many a sanguinary conflict. Four rivers empty themselves into Bathurst harbour, of which the Nepisiguit is by far the most important. This river descends from some lakes near the head waters of the Tobique (with which it is connected by a short portage), and flows in a deep and broad stream for about 20 miles, when its channel, which is of granite, forms a perpendicular cliff 140 feet high, over which it descends by four leaps or steps with great violence. For the rest of its course (about 80 miles) it is a rapid and tumultuous stream, unnavigable except for canoes and rafts. The parish of Sumarez comprises the headland and islands situated between Miramichi and Bay Chaleurs. At the entrance of the bay are the islands of Shippegan and Miscou. The former is 20 miles long, has a tolerably fertile soil, and is inhabited by Acadian French; the latter, forming the extremity of the cape, is 21 miles in circumference. When visited by Mr. M'Gregor in 1819, it was tenanted by a disbanded Highland soldier and his family, three of whom were drowned in attempting to cross to Shippegan. Miscou, Poksudie, and Caraqueette Islands, are inhabited by foxes; the two last form a safe entrance to Caraqueette Harbour. The coast is low, flat, sandy, and lightly covered with spruce and fir for two or three miles inland. From Miscou to Miramichi, and indeed to Shediac, the coast is skirted by large lagoons, some of them twelve miles long by three miles wide, which facilitate the coast navigation of small craft.

Ristigouche County occupies the most northerly portion of the province. The Ristigouche, or Big River, which rises near Temisquata Lake, and is supposed to be more than 220

miles long, with a general course E.N.E., nourished by numerous tributary rivers and streams, and forming, at its estuary, a large and commodious harbour. The entrance of the Ristigouche is about three miles wide, formed by two high promontories of red sand stone, with a bold opening unencumbered by bar or shoal, and containing upwards of nine fathoms water. Two miles from the mouth is the town of Dalhousie, with a broad river channel six or seven fathoms in depth, which may be said to extend for 18 miles, thus forming a safe and commodious harbour for the largest class ships. About 116 miles from Dalhousie is the compact village called Campbelltown. At upwards of 200 miles from its embouchure whither the tide flows, the Ristigouche is above a mile wide, and from thence, to within 40 miles of its source, it is navigable for barges and canoes. For 70 miles from Chaleurs Bay, the Ristigouche is flanked on either side by two stripes of high but level land, extending generally a mile back with a few prominent elevations, occupying the very edge of the water, and maintaining a position somewhat like the bastions of a fortress. The scenery in this county is exceedingly impressive; wherever the eye wanders nothing is to be seen but an almost incalculable number of lofty hills, interspersed with lakes, rivers, and waterfalls, glens and valleys; some of the mountains are clothed with the tall and beautiful pine—others sustain a fine growth of hard wood; many have swampy summits, and several terminate in rich meadows and plains; in form some are conical, others exhibit considerable rotundity; many lank and attenuated, and not a few of the most grotesque shapes. Sometimes the precipitous banks of the river are 300 feet above its bed, and at every bend, which is about once in six miles, the voyager is deceived with the appearance of entering a well sheltered lake; but at about 70 miles from the sea, the country becomes comparatively level, and all the way to the head of the Ristigouche is a fine, bold, open territory, consisting of a rich upland, skirted with large tracts of intervalle, and covered with a dense and unviolated growth of mixed wood, in which large groves of pine are very conspicuous. This fine county is but very thinly settled, a large portion is yet unexplored. Mr. Perley, the active and intelligent government emigration agent for New Brunswick, in a Report dated the 10th of November,

1845, thus speaks of the province as a field for emigrants:—"If the difficulties attendant upon the settlement of a new country be taken into consideration there can be no doubt that much has been effected in New Brunswick, within the brief period which has elapsed since its first settlement by British subjects; yet all that has been done is but comparatively trifling when considered with reference to the extent of country yet ungranted and uncultivated, and the abundant resources it possesses. As a field for the pursuits of agriculture, the prosecution of commercial enterprise, and the formation of flourishing settlements, this colony offers powerful inducements. It is blessed with a rich and productive soil; it abounds with trees of the greatest utility and value, and it is watered by innumerable rivers and streams. It rejoices in climates that are bright and cheerful, and a climate salubrious in the extreme, congenial to the growth not only of the necessaries but many of the luxuries of life: above all, it has the happiness to enjoy British institutions and forms of government modelled upon their prototypes in the mother country, which secure British laws and British freedom to all its inhabitants."

GEOLOGY.—New Brunswick presents the same general course which the principal formations of North America assume; namely, a direction of the rocky strata from S.W. towards the N.E., or *vice versa*, or on lines parallel to the border of the Atlantic. A spur of the Alleghany chain of mountains enters New Brunswick, crosses the river St. John, forms Mars Hill and other eminences, extends in a N.E. direction to the sources of the Miramichi, and other rivers, and gradually disappears towards the Chaleur Bay. Another slightly elevated ridge crosses the Schoodic river and Cheputneticook lakes, to the Full Moose Hill in King's County. Mr. Gesner says, these elevations form anticlinal ridges, against which the stratified masses lean, or they border immense troughs, containing the secondary and tertiary formations. They are chiefly composed of granite, sienite, trap rock, and porphyry.

In a country so little cleared, its minute geological features must necessarily be imperfectly known. A granite ridge crosses the Cheputneticook river and lakes, and sends off a branch that finally reaches the St. John. Granite also occupies large tracts in Northumberland and Gloucester, and ap-

pears on the banks of the Nepisiguit. A belt of sienite and trappean rocks—ten miles in breadth, and at a distance of ten miles from the Bay of Fundy reaches from the Kennebecasis along the northern boundary of the county St. John, to the new county of Albert. The Silurian rocks, which include red and dark-coloured flags and slates, sandstone, freestone, shelly, and compact limestone, black and lead-coloured shales, concretionary limestone, and grey micaceous sandstone are found in various places, generally running from S.W. to N.E., and highly inclined.

Mr. Gesner enumerates the following as the principal useful rocks and minerals of New Brunswick:—

Granite, sienite, roofing slate, porphyry, mica slate, talcose slate, limestone, hydraulic limestone, marble, alum slate, coal, graphite (or plumbago), ochres, iron ores (abundant), manganese ores, galena (or lead ore), grindstone, freestone, sulphuret of copper, amethyst, agate, jasper, hornstone, thompsonite, stilbite, apophyllite, hornblende, feldspar, chlorite, garnets, talc, asbestos, magnesite, carbonate of lime, sulphate of barytes, gypsum, potter's clay, fire clay, sulphate of iron, tourmaline, serpentine, iron sand, iserine.

Springs.—Salt, sulphurous, carburetted hydrogen, ferruginous.

The Silurian rocks frequently contain organic remains, and in a section on the Ristigouche River and Chaleur Bay, Mr. Gesner noted the following features in descending order:—

STRATA.	ORGANIC REMAINS.
Impure grey and blue limestone	Producta spirifera, orthocera, trilobites.
Calcareous and argillaceous shales	Crinoida, Cyathophyllum turbinium.
Earthy rotten shale	Atrypa aspera, with numerous testacea and corals.
Wenlock limestone.	
Compact blue limestone.	
Friable sandstone.	
Shelly limestone.	
Compact blue and grey impure limestone in black, blue, and red shale	Producta, terebratula, Cyathophyllum turbinium, Cyathophyllum hexagonum.
Grey and brown sandstones	Encrinural remains.
Compact limestone	Tentaculites ornatus, producta, terebratula, corals.
" sandstone	
Argillaceous and calcareous slates	Encrinural remains.
Coralline marbles	Corals.
Conglomerates	No organic remains.
Clay slate	No organic remains.

The carboniferous series, viz.; conglomerates, sandstones, shales, limestone, clay-iron stone, coal, and trap, similar to those of the coal-fields of Great Britain, extend along the

coast in nearly horizontal strata, and in the interior, especially at Westmoreland, are inclined in angles varying from 20° to 40°.

MINERALS.—New Brunswick possesses an extensive coal-field, which commences at Bay Verte, and crosses the isthmus between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It occupies the whole of the counties of Kent and Sunbury, the chief part of Queen's, York, and Northumberland, a part of Albert County, and nearly all Westmoreland: on its S. side it is 145 miles in length; on its N.E. about 110 miles: the area is estimated at 7,500 to 10,000 square miles, or nearly one-third part of the whole area of the province. This immense coal-field presents a low and level surface, excavated by water-channels, and, in general, not elevated more than 40 feet above the level of the sea. The coal, so far as known, is bituminous. A variety of cannel coal has been found in Albert County. The contemplated line of railway from Halifax to Quebec would intersect this coal-field, and open a vast tract of country for settlers.

A deposit of copper ore has been discovered on the banks of the Nepisiguit River, in the county of Gloucester, by Mr. Stevens. The metal, a green carbonate, is seen cropping out at the surface, nearly in a horizontal bed, about eight inches in thickness. A specimen, assayed in Cornwall, produced 53 per cent. of very fine pure copper. Mr. Frederick Burr states, that the green carbonate is most singularly intermixed with, or disseminated through, a thin stratum of imperfect coal or lignite, much in the same manner that the metallic ores are usually blended with their accompanying veinstones. An approach may, however, be observed to parallelism between the carbonate of copper and the enclosing layer of coaly matter. The specific gravity of the ore differs, of course, in proportion to the quantity of copper contained in the specimen, which is generally full one-half of the entire mass, but appears to vary from rather more than two and-a-half to about three.

Both the upper and under surfaces of this remarkable bed are very distinct and well defined, exhibiting the fibrous and vegetable structure of the lignite. It is covered by a few feet of alluvial soil, and rests on a thin stratum of conglomerate, containing rolled pebbles, which, at this point, covers the prevailing formation of the tract, a reddish sandstone, which probably rests upon the granite which Mr. Stevens describes as being

seen within about half a mile of the spot. Clay slate is also known in the same neighbourhood, some of the beds being used for roofing.

It is well known, that water charged with copper in solution, is, by the introduction of iron, made to precipitate the metal. The deposit of lignite occurring with the copper, is evidently derived from drifted vegetable matter; and from the mode in which the copper is interspersed throughout the mass, it would appear that the water on which it floated was, at the same time, saturated with a solution of copper, and that both the organic and mineral matter subsided to the bottom together, forming the singular compound now under consideration, and over which, probably, at a subsequent period, the alluvial covering was drifted.

Fossils are numerous in the coal-fields of New Brunswick; many are of great size. "In general," says Mr. Gesner—

"Every vestige of their leaves has disappeared, and nothing remains but the simple impression; but sometimes the leaf is seen in a thin paper-like lamina of coal, and even in the centre of clay-ironstone balls every fibre of the original vegetable texture is beautifully delineated.

"The fossil trees are of different kinds, and occur under a variety of circumstances. At the South Joggins, on the shore of Cumberland Basin, and in the face of a cliff, they are situated at right angles to the planes of stratification, or stand perpendicular to the strata; and as their roots are sometimes found attached, they evidently flourished on the spot. The only relic of the former living tree is the bark, which has been converted into coal, and still bears the original flutings, furrows, and leaf-scars of the plant. The cylindrical trunks have been filled up with sandstone, shale, &c., and now represent the original trees in solid stony columns, from 20 to 60 feet in length, and sometimes upwards of 4 feet in diameter.

In New Brunswick these fossil trees lie prostrate in and between the strata, so far as they have yet been observed. In some instances they have been changed into coal; in others, this change has been partial; and parts of many trunks on the shores of Chignecto Bay are composed of sandstone, iron pyrites, sulphate of barytes, and other minerals. At Bathurst, Carriboo River, and other places, the trees have been mineralized by copper, and their trunks have been worked out of the rocks and disposed of for copper ore, yielding 75 per cent. of pure metal. Large stems are found composed altogether of sandstone, apparently run in a mould like that of the iron-founder. In some of the large stems the ligneous fibre remains perfect and distinct: these are often mineralized by sulphate of barytes, or calcareous spar; they resemble rotten ash, and split lengthwise very readily. There is still another variety of large fossil trees in which the whole of the trunk has been changed into a compact lignite: the original bark now appears in coal, and when removed from the fossil, the tree resembles a peeled oak.

"*Stigmaria* are very numerous; and they are frequently found with their leaves attached and ex

tending in all directions from their trunks into the shales and sandstones. *Lepidodendra*, *calamites*, *sigillaria*, *asterophyllites*, *Pecopteris lonchitica*, and other well-known fossils, are abundant. The fire-clays beneath the coal are most frequently loaded with *stigmuria*, as observed by Mr. W. E. Logan in South Wales, and in the underlays of the coal of Pennsylvania. Among the coal-bearing strata there are sometimes thin layers of limestone containing shells, of which the *modiolus* and *cypria* are most common; with them fossil fish have been found; these remains are of fresh water, and occasionally of marine origin. Sulphurous springs are common in the coal-field, and their waters are used by the inhabitants in the cure of cutaneous diseases."

There are 19 limestone quarries in St. John's, and 2 in Carleton. Freestone quarries—2 in Westmoreland; 1 in King's County; 2 in Sunbury; 3 in York; 1 in Carleton; 4 in Northumberland; 3 in Gloucester; 3 in Kent. There are 7 grindstone quarries in Westmoreland, and 2 in Northumberland; a slate quarry in Gloucester; 2 coal mines in Queen's, and 1 in Westmoreland; a manganese mine in Gloucester, and a salt manufactory in King's county.

Soils vary according to the two great classes into which rocks are divided, i. e., those formed by the agency of fire, or of water. The disintegration of these rocks as stated in Nova Scotia, afford various soils, differing from each other in their chemical combinations, and adapted to the growth of various vegetable products. There are extensive deposits of alluvial matter scattered by currents over New Brunswick, generally from N. towards the S., often far distant from the place whence they were separated from the mountain rocks. In Westmoreland, Sussex Vale, and the Grand Lake districts, there are red and claret-coloured soils, covering plains that would otherwise have been far less favourable to vegetation. The counties of Charlotte, St. John, and King's, contain tracts of granite, sienite, and trap rocks, which, when decomposed and finely pulverized, yield wheat, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. The trap rock soil contains much potash, and almost always produces hard wood, such as beech, birch, oak, maple, ash, and butter-nut.

Kent and Sunbury have a rich, mellow covering of earth. Along the coast of the Bay of Fundy the soil produced from greywacke or grauwack, talcose slate, and limestones, yields groves of cedar, fir, spruce, haematack, and small pines, with laurel bushes and cranberry bogs. The soils derived from limestones, gypsum, conglomerates, red marl sandstone, and shales, are very fertile, and

of various degrees of tenacity. The alluviums forming the best intervals, are a dark brown mould, from 1 to 20 feet in thickness, and never require manure. They are called "beaver meadows," from having frequently been formed by these industrious animals constructing dams across the rivulets to supply water, where they could be protected from their enemies. From the American frontier across the river St. John, between Woodstock and Madawasca, in a N.E. direction to the Ristigouche and Chaleurs Bay, a superior soil is derived from the extensive groups of calcareous, argillaceous, and silicious rocks. The shores of New Brunswick contain abundance of marine plants and shells, which furnish excellent manure, and some of the soils where slightly subjected to the action of fire when burning off the timber, are thereby improved.

Climate.—New Brunswick, like other portions of the North American continent, partakes of the extremes of heat and cold; the thermometer sometimes rising to 100° F. during the day, and falling in the forest during the night of the same day to 50°. The North Pole, overspread to a vast extent with perpetual ice and snow, sends forth a W. and N.W. wind, which, even in the hottest months of the year, produce a freezing effect. The S. wind is always warm; a S.W. wind produces during the summer, dense fogs along the shores of the Bay of Fundy, which do not extend above 15 or 20 miles into the interior, where they are dispersed by the warm air. A shift of wind during winter or summer, will produce in 24 hours a totally different temperature; and wherever the land is not cleared the melting of the snow is retarded in spring, and the ice appears in autumn sooner than in the open and cultivated country. The climate of the coast, which is humid, differs from that of the interior, which is dry. At St. John's the range of the mercury is from 23° below zero to 88°; at Fredericton from 35° below zero to 95°. The climate of New Brunswick differs but little from that of the state of Maine, Eastern Canada, the north shores of Lake Huron, and part of the Michigan territory. In summer, twilight is seen after nine o'clock in the evening; and daylight begins at two in the morning. The Aurora Borealis is brilliant at all seasons. The following table and the appended remarks indicate the extremes of temperature, the daily average of temperature, the prevailing winds and weather throughout the year:—

Meteorological Table for Fredericton, N. Brunswick,
Lat. 45° 57', Long. 66° 45'.

Monthly.	Fahrenheit Thermometer.				Days of Wind.				Days of Weather.				
	Highest.	Lowest.	Daily Average.	Greatest Variation.	E.	S.	W.	N.	Variable.	Fair.	Rain.	Fog.	Snow.
January	22	12	17	24	4	—	7	6	14	24	2	1	4
February	29	19	24	34	2	4	4	2	16	23	1	—	4
March	36	30	33	20	23	2	5	—	1	22	2	—	5
April	44	36	40	14	12	4	11	—	3	22	7	—	1
May	49	44	47	10	20	1	7	—	3	18	8	—	—
June	59	49	54	28	19	7	10	—	3	15	6	—	—
July	73	58	65	14	20	—	7	2	2	18	3	—	—
August	75	64	69	12	17	—	9	4	1	23	3	—	—
September	69	56	61	16	17	—	10	2	1	17	6	—	—
October	53	42	47	20	14	—	6	—	9	22	7	—	—
November	34	28	31	16	11	5	—	14	—	16	8	—	4
December	16	11	13	24	—	—	—	9	14	8	20	—	2
Mean and Total.	45	37	41	22	165	17	87	44	58	245	62	47	21

1st. The severest cold of the winter usually continues from the 21st of December to the 21st of March, when the common range of the mercury is at sunrise between 20° and 19°; and at two p.m. between 5° and 30°; though changing towards the middle of March, to 37° and 43° in the heat of the day. It is worthy of observation, that there are, during this season, fifteen days in which the mercury remains below 14°; and only five days in which it does not freeze: a remarkable instance of the severity of an American winter in latitude 46°, which is the parallel of the central parts of France, and the north of Italy.

2nd. From the 21st March to the middle of April, the thermometer ranges at sunrise between 10° and 35°, and at two, p.m. between 35° and 46°. From the middle to the end of April, a great increase in the temperature is evident: although it sometimes freezes slightly in the mornings, yet the mercury frequently reaches to 55° and 64° in the heat of the day.

3rd. During May, the mornings continue cold, (being in five cases below freezing, and only two at temperate,) yet the change in the temperature at mid-day is remarkable, being often 62° and 72°.

4th. June, July, and August are very similar in their temperature. The range in the morning is commonly from 55 to 66, and at mid-day, from 71 to 84. In these three months, and until about the 15th September, the thermometer is, during thirty-eight days, at two p.m. above summer heat, exhibiting a singular contrast to the extreme cold of the winter, such as is scarcely to be found in any other part of the world.

5th. After the middle of September there is a rapid decrease in the heat of the mornings. The thermometer in October at sunrise, on eight or ten days, is below freezing. From the 15th or 20th November to the same time in December, it freezes regularly, though not severely, in the mornings. In the latter month indeed, it mostly remains below freezing.

The prevailing summer winds are from the W.S.W. and South.

The winter season is firmly established at the end of December or beginning of January, but the deepest snows fall in February, or early in March, to the depth of 8 to 12

inches, when boisterous storms sweep the snow with great fury along the face of the open country, leaving some places bare, and raising in others immense drifts or banks. These violent storms seldom last more than one or two days. The vernal equinox generally brings strong gales from the S., accompanied by a thaw. Ice disappears in the bogs, lakes, and rivers, soon after the first of April; ploughing begins at the end of the same month, when summer wheat and oats are sown; in May vegetation rapidly advances, gardening is commenced; potatoes are planted, and barley sown before the end of May. Turnips are sown in the middle of July, when hay-making commences. Barley is reaped in August, wheat and oats in September. Potatoes and turnips are left under ground until the middle or end of October, and pumpkins are best if not dug up until spring. Cucumbers, salads, cabbages, cauliflowers, asparagus, and indeed all the culinary vegetables known in England, arrive at perfection; as do also apples, peaches, pears, plums, damsons, currants, gooseberries, strawberries, and raspberries. Grapes when sheltered ripen in the open air. These products indicate that the climate offers no impediment to emigration.

Mr. Hooper, after 13 years' experience in the North American colonies, speaking of New Brunswick, says:—

"The climate is yearly mellorating its rigours; the winters are by no means so severe, or of the same duration, as ten years since, and the reason, to a philosophical mind, is obvious. The rapidity with which settlers are clearing the forest, and opening to the light of heaven the face of the earth, gives to the sun's influence a much greater space of country annually; and, as a natural consequence, the snows melt more early and rapidly, the winters are consequently shorter than formerly. Twenty years since, the winter commenced early in November, and continued generally till the end of April, making nearly a six months' winter; but within the last five or six years there has been no dead winter until Christmas, and the spring has usually opened in the early part of April, making the winter of little more than three months' duration. It cannot, with all the variations of climate, be said with propriety that the full duration of winter is more than four months. Though the cold is intense for nine or ten weeks, the air is dry and elastic, and free from the chilling moisture of a British winter."

The remarks as to amelioration of climate must be considered applicable to the interior, rather than to the sea-coast or adjacent districts; for the following table of the opening and closing by ice of the river St. John for 24 years, does not indicate any favourable change.

Opening and Closing of St. John River at Fredericton.

Years	Opened.	Closed.	Days open.	Remarks.
1825	Apr. 15	Nov. 20	219	
1826	" 17	" 14	211	
1827	" 6	Dec. 3	241	
1828	" 20	Nov. 19	213	
1829	" 17	" 15	212	
1830	" 18	" 29	228	{Dec. 26, moved and closed again.
1831	" 10	Dec. 1	235	{Dec. 6, opened and closed; Ap. 10, ice jam.
1832	May 3	Nov. 15	199	{Nov. 19, moved; 22, closed.
1833	Apr. 10	" 5	219	{Nov. 19, opened; 29, closed.
1834	" 11	" 17	220	Nov. 16, men crossed.
1835	May 1	" 23	206	
1836	Apr. 28	" 19	205	Ap. 21, moved; 24, jam.
1837	" 17	" 0	200	{Nov. 24, opened and closed.
1838	May 1	" 25	208	
1839	Apr. 25	" 23	238	{Nov. 25, moved; Dec. 19, closed.
1840	" 16	" 23	221	
1841	" 27	" 27	214	{Nov. 27, Steamer Fredericton sailed.
1842	" 24	" 22	212	
1843	" 26	" 14	202	{Nov. 21, moved; Jan. 21, moved.
1844	" 14	" 27	227	
1845	" 23	Dec. 4	225	
1846	" 6	Nov. 28	238	Mar. 29, moved; ice jam.
1847	" 2	" 20	254	{Nov. 24, opened; Dec. 15, Steamer arrived; Dec. 16, closed again
1848	" 19	" 13	208	Steamer St. John sailed.

Note.—The average period during which the river remains open is 218 days: it will, therefore, be shut 147 days, or two-fifths of the whole year. In 1832, the river was open for the shortest, and in 1847, for the longest period of which we have any notice.

But whatever may be the duration of winter, or the heat of summer, the salubrity of the province is unquestionable. In the Journal of the House of Assembly for 1846, there is a return of the pensions allowed by the province to old soldiers and their widows during the year: the number thus pensioned from the revenues of New Brunswick is small; but the longevity of the pensioners is remarkable. The return is dated March, 1846, is made for each county, and gives the name, residence, and age of every pensioner. In Carlton County, 20 pensioners—one of 112 years of age (George Sinnett); one 98; one 92; and the others averaging from 70 to 90. York County, 36—three of 90 and upwards; 11 of 80 and upwards; 12 of 70 and upwards. Charlotte County, 36—one 101 years of age (Susanna Watman); 16 ranging from 80 to 97 years of age; and 12 from 70 upwards. The other counties present similar

instances of longevity, such as would not probably be found in any other country among an equal number of persons of the same class. The salubrity of the climate is thus forcibly attested.

The autumn in New Brunswick, as in other parts of the North American continent, is a season of great beauty and delight. Every tint of colour is observable in the woods, the air is dry and clear; and in November that peculiar change termed the "Indian summer," with its serenity and blandness, its expansive and brilliant aurora at night, and highly charged electrical state of the earth, breaks what would otherwise be a long winter. Shocks of an earthquake were felt in 1663, in 1827, and in 1830. Diseases are few and comparatively simple.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—*Timber Trees.*—The lumber trade is so considerable a source of wealth, that a brief description of the principal forest-trees of British America may be useful. For more detailed accounts, Sir A. B. Lambert's splendid work on American Pines, Mr. Perley's "Report," and the *Canadian Naturalist*, by Mr. Gosse, may be advantageously consulted. The chief American timber for commercial purposes is of the genus *pinus*, which includes the resinous evergreens termed pines and spruces, mostly to be found between the 43rd and 50th parallel of latitude in great perfection, where they generally cover the low grounds and valleys, forming what is termed "soft woodlands." Among the principal of this class are the white pine (*pinus strobus*); the red pine (*pinus rubra*); the black pine (*pinus nigra*); hemlock (*pinus Canadensis*); the spruce (*pinus nigra and alba*); the balsam, or fir (*pinus balsamea*); the tamarack (*pinus pendula*); the cedar (*thuya occidentales*). About ten species of pines exist in Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward's Island, and Newfoundland. The difference between the pine and the spruce is in the arrangement of their foliage. In the pine, two, three, or five thread-like leaves are united in the same sheath: in the spruce, the shorter leaves are attached singly round the branch, or upon its opposite sides.

The *pinus strobus*, or white or yellow pine, known in England as the Weymouth pine, is a majestic and beautiful tree, of which some specimens have been found on the Columbia river, 250 feet high, and 50 feet in circumference. When growing in open situations it is feathered to the ground, and

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ries in the form of a pyramid. In Canada and New Brunswick it is occasionally found 150 feet high, with a diameter of five to six feet, at three feet from its base. In New Brunswick and Nova Scotia the white pine is the first tree to take possession of barren, deserted lands, and the most hardy in resisting the impetuous storms of the ocean. The age these trees attain is not known: 1,500 annular divisions have been counted. The colder the situation the slower the growth, and the harder the timber. For nearly three-fourths of its height the trunk is single, the limbs short, and disposed one above another; the head is formed by a few upright branches. The wood is soft, light, of fine texture, easily wrought, durable, and not liable to split when exposed to the sun. On dry and elevated lands the wood is harder, of a coarse grain, and marked by more distinct concentric circles. When seasoned, it may be thus compared with the larch and spruce, taking for a standard the oak at 100:—

Woods.	Weight of a cubic foot.	Stiffness.	Strength.	Toughness.
	lbs.			
White Pine . . .	28	95	99	92
American Larch . .	35 to 41	79	103	134
Black Spruce . . .	29	72	86	102

The white pine is equally adapted to furnish masts for the largest ships of war, or to be applied to the most ordinary purposes in our dwellings. If properly seasoned before use, it has no tendency to dry rot; and the unqualified assertion, too frequently made, that all British American pine is bad, and all Baltic timber good, is not supported by facts.

Mr. Perley states, that at "one of the public docks in England, a very extensive granary of four floors, of 9,200 square feet in area, and which contains about 9,000 quarters of grain, has been built entirely of colonial white pine, with the exception of the uprights, which are of red pine. It has now stood 20 years, and is stated to be in every respect perfectly sound and unwarped. It was allowed to remain five years to dry before painting, and up to this time has been painted but thrice. The architect states, that he considers it likely to stand 90 years. An extensive outside fence of white pine was put up in England 23 years since, and is still perfectly sound; it also was allowed to remain five years to dry before painting. All experience,

both in England and America, has shown, that when used for outside purposes, it should be allowed to dry thoroughly before being painted; and that unless sufficient time be given for the vegetable juices to evaporate, white pine will suffer from the dry-rot in the same manner as other timber under like circumstances. An instance is mentioned of a church in Hertfordshire being fitted up with the choicest oak, and instantly painted with several coats before the vegetable principle had exuded. In a very few years, the beautiful work in the chancel was obliged to be taken down, perfectly rotten; and, at this time, the greater part of the pews are in a similar state."

The value of this description of pine for masts of large ships is very great. In Murray's "British America," mention is made of two masts for 74-gun ships in the dockyards at Plymouth, which measured 108 feet in length, and a roller that was everywhere 3 feet in diameter. Such a tree must have been 200 feet long, with a diameter of 5 or 6 feet.

It is essential to the durability of timber that it be cut at the period of the dark moon. There appears to be an ascent and descent of some sap or vegetable life in trees thirteen times in the year, rising and waning with the moon. This has been specially noted with timber growing in tropical countries. The American government are so well aware of the influence of the moon, that the timber supplied for their ships of war is required to be girdled or felled at the dark moon, between the 20th October and 12th February. White pine logs, if stripped of their bark, will remain uninjured thirty years; if not, they are attacked by large worms. Stumps left in the ground resist the influence of heat and moisture many years.

Larix Americana.—A larch—*hacmatack* of the Indians—*tamarack* of the Dutch—termed also *pinus larix*. Leaves deciduous, cones oblong, margin of the scales bent in, bracts fiddle-shaped. Mr. N. Gould, an American merchant of high scientific acquirements, who has travelled extensively in the United States and British America, informs me, that the *hacmatack* grows generally throughout the North-Eastern States of the Union and British America, but is found in the largest quantities in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island. The timber is straight-grained and fitted for small spars of ships; Mr. Gould.

however, mentions having the mainmast of a vessel of 659 tons made of it—and states that it works roughly—is rather given to warp—is hard, strong, and very durable. In the colonies it is generally used as a building timber, both for houses and small craft; it is particularly approved for knees to fasten the beams of ships, and the butt of the stem, one of the principal roots forming the angle required. Treenails made of it are also considered to be of very superior quality. It is not a timber of commerce, nor is it used to any extent, but for house and ship-building in the colonies. It is sometimes sawn into deals, but never shipped as hachmatack deals, being occasionally called juniper, or red spruce, though more generally confounded with spruce and hemlock, and shipped as inferior goods. Hard working and warping deals, however valuable on the score of strength and durability, are not esteemed in the home market, where softness of grain, freedom of working, and absence of warping, have given a preference to the white or yellow deal of America. The wood burns with a crackling noise, and though not so easily ignited as most of the pine tribe, when once blazing, burns with great briskness, giving out fervent heat; and, therefore, in great request for the fuel of steamboat engines in Canada and the United States. Colonial vessels built of this wood are notoriously durable, inferior to none but teak or British oak; and excepting in one instance, (the *British Merchant*,) there is no record of such vessels having been destroyed by dry rot; whilst in several cases, the oak and other material surrounding, and attached to the hachmatack, has been found destroyed by dry rot, while the larch has remained perfectly free.

Sir A. B. Lambert, in his splendid work on the pines, describes two species of American larch—*larix Americana* and *larix microcarpa*—the latter characterised by smaller cones and more drooping branches. Mr. Perley thinks there is no real foundation for the distinction, and *larix microcarpa* is not now considered a distinct species, but merely a variety of the *larix Americana*, the difference being occasioned by the influences of soil and situation, which so much affect all the resinous trees. Linnaeus states that larch trees live to the age of four hundred years; but, judging from the number of concentric circles in large trees, they would seem to attain even a greater age in New Brunswick.

Michaux the younger says, "The wood of the American larch is superior to any species of pine or spruce, and unites all the properties which distinguish the European species, being *exceedingly strong and singularly durable*." Tredgold says it is extremely durable in all situations, failing only where any other wood would fail. Tiberius caused the Naumachiarian Bridge, constructed by Augustus, and afterwards burnt, to be rebuilt of larch planks brought from Rhaetia. Among these was a trunk 120 feet in length, which excited the admiration of all Rome. Wrieheking, in his celebrated work on bridges, says that larch is preferable to the pine, the pincaster, or the fir, for constructing the arches of wooden bridges. In some parts of Kamschatka it arrives at a considerable size, and is there used for ships, which last extremely well. Painters, from the time of Pliny to that of Raphael, trusted their works to this wood, which the Roman naturalist styles *immortale lignum*. For ship planks it is much used; and few descriptions of wood, if any, are superior to it for this purpose. It is exported largely to Great Britain for railway sleepers, for which it would seem to be admirably adapted, not only from its strength and durability, but because it bears the driving in of bolts and nails better than any other kind of resinous wood. It is peculiarly adapted for flooring-boards in situations where there is much wear, and for staircases; in the latter, its fine colour when rubbed with oil, renders it greatly preferable to any painted wood, not for reasons of economy alone, but also from its appearance. It is equally well suited on the same account for doors, window shutters, and many other purposes. It makes excellent treenails, little, if at all, inferior to those of the acacia, or locust tree. The wood of the larch tree is said to be much improved in hardness by barking the trees in spring, and felling them late in the autumn. The wood becomes very hard by seasoning, burns with difficulty, and does not readily absorb water. It is stronger and much tougher than oak, but not so stiff; and it has been recommended by Tredgold that, with a view to improve the stiffness of the wood for joists and beams, further experiments should be made of barking trees some time before they are felled. From the form of the tree, barking could be easily accomplished as far as necessary.

The Duke of Athol's celebrated larches

were planted in 1736. In 1831, at 95 years of age, one of the Athol larches is said to have contained 368 feet, or seven loads eighteen feet, which, at the present price of Baltic fir (*pinus Silvestris*, or Scotch fir), would be worth about £43. The duke who planted them was buried in a coffin made from the largest, which measured 106 feet in length. He planted about 8,000 acres with this tree, in the neighbourhood of Dunkeld and Blair Athol.

In Switzerland the larch abounds, and the dwellings of the peasantry attest its durability as a building timber. The Romans when first acquainted with the larch, during their German wars, lost no time in bringing it down from the Alps by the river Po, thence to be conveyed to Rome for building purposes. Vitruvius bears evidence of its value, as building timber. Pliny says, "This tree is the best of the kind that bears resin; it rots not, but endures a long time." And this assertion of Pliny's is well borne out by what is stated as a fact—that the immense floating palace or ship, built by the emperor Trajan, as a summer residence on Lake Nemi, of cypress and larch, having been weighed up, the timber was found sound after 1,400 years' immersion. It is worthy of remark, that this vessel appeared to have been sheathed with lead, fastened with copper nails, double planked, and caulked with linen rags, payed over with Greek pitch (*asphaltum*). In Russia, whilst the exportation of oak is permitted, the larch is a government monopoly, for the national purpose of ship building, and its exportation prohibited. Of the applicability of larch to purposes of ship building, and of its durability, we find the following notices:—"In the year 1809, larch timber, grown by his grace the Duke of Athol, was first used for the British navy in building, at Woolwich dock-yard, the *Serapis* store-ship; the *Sybille* frigate; the bottom of a lighter; and for piles driven into the mud alternately, wet and dry; and in all the various situations, proved a strong and durable timber." The Athol, of twenty-eight guns, was also built entirely of larch of the same growth; and, at the same time, the *Niemen*, of Riga timber. After their first courses of service they were both examined, when the *Niemen* was found in a decayed state, and condemned accordingly, whilst the Athol was again put into commission, and after a second course of service again examined, and again found sound; and she has ever, from that to the

present day, endured the incessant wear and tear of a store-ship, in every climate for 30 years. It was also observed, that during the period that this timber lay in Woolwich dock-yard, exposed to the weather, neither the heart nor the sap-wood exhibited decomposition, nor did lichen or fungus grow thereon.

Pinus Nigra.—The black spruce, sometimes called red spruce, most abundant between the parallels of 41° and 53°, constitutes a thin part of the forests of New Brunswick, and of Prince Edward Island, grows 70 to 80 feet high, with a diameter of 18 to 24 inches, regularly diminishing from base to summit. Leaves four-sided, scattered on all sides of the branches, erect, straight, cones ovate, scales oval, with undulated margins, close-toothed at the apex, trunk smooth, (that of the pines is rough) branches horizontal, not declining like those of the true Norway spruce; distinguishing properties, strength, lightness, and elasticity. It furnishes fine yards and topmasts, and is frequently used for the knees of vessels, which are formed of the base of the trunk and one of the principal roots, and are said to possess great strength and much durability. By many, the wood of the black spruce is preferred to that of the white pine; for flooring, it furnishes the spruce deals of commerce, which now constitute one of the largest and most valuable exports of New Brunswick. These deals are of the uniform thickness of 3 inches, not less than 12 feet in length, and 9 inches in breadth. The most usual dimensions are 9 and 11 inches in width, and lengths of 12, 14, 16, 18, and 21 feet. Spruce battens are 12 feet long, 7 inches in width, and 2½ inches in thickness. The manufacture of spruce deals commenced in New Brunswick about the year 1819, and has since been increasing. The erection of steam saw-mills within a few years, has greatly increased this branch of business, and enhanced the value of spruce logs.

From the young branches of the black spruce is made the salutary drink known by the name of "spruce beer," which in long voyages is found an efficacious preventative of scurvy. The twigs are boiled in water, a certain quantity of molasses or maple sugar is added, with a little yeast, and the mixture is left to ferment. The essence of spruce is obtained by evaporating to the consistence of an extract, the water in which the summits of the young branches have been boiled.

The leaves and buds of the black spruce

are not known to be eaten by any living thing except the "spruce partridge," which picks the buds in the spring of the year, whence it derives its name, and its bitter flavour.

Abies Alba, the white spruce, is found in the same countries as the preceding, but not quite so far north. From the unpleasant smell of the foliage, it is sometimes called "cat" spruce.

The leaves of both encompass the branches, but those of the white spruce are less numerous, longer, more pointed, at a more open angle with the branches, and of a pale bluish-green; the cones are also peculiar, being of a lengthened and oval form, above 2 inches in one direction, and 6 or 8 lines in the other; the dimensions vary according to the vigour of the tree, but the form is unchangeable. Scales loose and thin, with entire edges unlike those of the black spruce; the seeds are rather smaller, and ripen a month earlier; trunk more tapering than the black spruce, inferior in stature, rarely exceeding 50 feet in height, and 18 inches in diameter at three feet from the ground; bark lighter coloured. Wood used for the same purposes as the black spruce, but inferior in quality. Fibres of roots used by the Indians for stitching their bark canoes. Branches not used for beer on account of their unpleasant odour.

Both the black and the white spruce are easily propagated by their seeds, or by transplanting into proper soils; they afford one of the most dense and compact screens, or shelters from the wind, that can be made by trees. They are cleanly, comparatively of slow growth, durable, and live to a great age. They abound in thick masses, of stunted growth, on the rocky shores and inlets of the Bay of Fundy. Their fine dark green, conical tops, contrast strongly with the snow during the cold season, and they form one of the most striking characteristics of a winter scene on the seaboard, living and thriving as they do, where other trees could scarcely obtain foothold, and seeming to bid defiance both to the ocean and the storm, even during a combination of their utmost strength. The white spruce was the most northerly tree seen by Dr. Richardson on the Coppermine River, within 20 miles of the Arctic Ocean; it attains a height of 20 feet.

Pinus Rubra.—The red pine, called by the Hudson's Bay people the Juniper, extends from beyond Lake Superior, to the 42nd parallel; it is chiefly found mingled with the

white pine, or in small tracts by itself. Dr Richardson found it in swampy situations, from York Factory to Point Lake, in 65° N., but very dwarfish, seldom exceeding 6 or 8 feet in length. The leaves are of dark green, in pairs, 5 or 6 inches long, and collected in bunches at the extremity of the branches; flowers bluish the first month of their appearance; cones ovate, conic, rounded at the base, about half as long as the leaves, without thorns, scales dilated in the middle, shed their seeds the first year; height of trees, 70 or 80 feet; diameter, 2 feet and upwards; trunk uniform in size for two-thirds of its length. Wood, a fine compact grain, heavy from the resinous matter with which it is impregnated; highly esteemed for strength and durability in ship-building. Deck planks have been procured 40 feet in length without a knot. The Canadian red pine differs from the Norway pine, with which it is sometimes confounded; the Norway pine is a species of spruce.

Abies Canadensis.—Hemlock spruce is found as far N. as 51°, and is natural to the coldest regions of North America; leaves, 6 or 8 lines long, flat, numerous, and irregularly disposed in two ranks, and downy at their unfolding. Height, 70 to 80 feet; diameter, 2 to 3 feet; uniform for two-thirds of its length; and if the concentric circles in the wood are to be considered as an indication of age, it requires two centuries to reach full growth. It is used for sleepers of railways, for wharfs, or mines, where it is constantly wet; and for lath-wood. The bark is extensively used in tanning.

Abies Balsamifera—*Pinus Balsamea*.—A beautiful evergreen tree, in open situations feathered to the ground, and rising in a pyramidal shape to the height of 30 feet or more; and on these accounts, much planted for shrubbery and park scenery in Great Britain. The body tapers from a foot in diameter at the surface of the ground, to 7 or 8 inches at the height of 6 feet. When standing alone, and developing itself naturally, its branches, which are numerous and thickly garnished with leaves, diminish in length in proportion to their height, and form a pyramid of perfect regularity. The leaves are 6 or 3 lines long, and are inserted singly on the sides, and on the top of the branches; they are narrow, rigid, and flat, of a bright green above, and a silvery white beneath, whence the name of the tree is probably derived. The cones are nearly cylindrical, 4 or 5 inches long, and an inch in diameter, and always directed

upwards; this characteristic also belongs to the silver fir of Europe, and distinguishes these species from others of the fir tribe, whose cones are turned towards the earth. The famous *Canada Balsam* is procured from this tree; it is found in small blisters or vesicles in the bark, extracted by incision, and received in a limpid state, as a greenish transparent fluid, acrid, into a shell or cup. The Indians use it for fresh wounds, and also take it internally. Perhaps there is not a better varnish for water-colour paintings, than that which is prepared from this liquid resin. The branches of this, as well as the hemlock, are used by the Indians, and Canadian voyagers, to sleep upon. In their winter voyages, they scrape the snow into heaps with their snow-shoes, making a kind of snow wall on each side of their lair, then strewing the ground with young branches, properly laid down, wrap themselves in their blankets; and thus sleep, when the thermometer is many degrees below zero.

Pinus Banksiana or *Rupestris*.—The gray chipmunk, or scrub pine, is found farther N. than any other pine. Michaux says, "in the environs of Hudson's Bay, and the great Mistassin lakes, the trees which compose the forests a few degrees farther S., disappear almost entirely, in consequence of the severity of the winter, and the sterility of the soil. The face of the country is almost everywhere broken by innumerable lakes, and covered with large rocks, piled upon each other, and usually overgrown with large black lichens, which deepen the gloomy aspect of these desolate and almost uninhabited regions. Here and there, in the intervals of the rocks, are seen a few individuals of this species of pine, which fructify, and even exhibit the appearances of decrepitude, at the height of three feet. One hundred and fifty miles further S., its vegetation is more vigorous, but it is still not more than eight or ten feet high: and in Nova Scotia, where it is confined to the summit of the rocks, it does not exceed this stature." The leaves are united in pairs in the same sheath, but disseminated over the branches, instead of being collected in bunches at the extremity; about an inch long, flat on the interior, and rounded on the exterior face. The cones commonly in pairs, of a gray or ashy colour, about two inches long, always point in the same direction as the branches; naturally assume an arching shape, which gives them the appearance of horns; are extremely

hard, and do not open to release the seeds until the second or third year.

A pine of gigantic size has been discovered by Mr. D. Douglas, W. of the Rocky Mountains; one specimen (not the largest blown down,) was measured by him, and found to be 215 feet in length; circumference, 3 feet from the ground, 57 feet 9 inches; and 134 feet from the ground, 17 feet 5 inches. Cones, 12 to 16 inches in length, and 11 in circumference. They are two years acquiring their full growth; when the trunk is partly burned, the resin which exudes is sweet and used as sugar. The seeds are roasted for food, and made into cakes. This magnificent pine is termed *Sambertiana*.

Thuja Occidentalis.—White cedar, a handsome and useful tree, which grows chiefly in marshes to the height of 40 or 50 feet, and 2 feet in diameter; leaves evergreen, small and curiously imbricated or lopped over each other; branches slender and usually pendant, bark fibrous and stringy; flowers scarcely visible; cones very small, rugged, of a greenish, and subsequently, bluish tint. Michaux states that he counted 277 annual layers in a trunk 21 inches in diameter, at 5 feet from the ground; and 47 in a plant only 8 inches thick at the surface, which proved it to be then 50 years old. Wood—white, light, soft, fine-grained, and easily wrought. When sufficiently seasoned, and exposed some time to the light, it is of a rosy hue; and has a strong aromatic odour, which it preserves as long as it is guarded from humidity. The perfect wood resists the succession of dryness and moisture for a great length of time, and this constitutes its great value for fencing. Rails of split cedar have been known to last from 50 to 60 years *when deprived of the bark*. Shingles of white cedar have been known to last upwards of 30 years; when sawed into very thin boards, used for the construction of light boats, especially for those used in the whale fishery.

Mr. Perley says, that the superior fitness of this wood for various household utensils, has given rise in the United States to a distinct class of mechanics, called "cedar coopers," who principally fabricate large and small tubs, pails, churns, and other household utensils, as well for export as for home consumption. This ware, instead of becoming dull, like that of other wood, becomes whiter and smoother by use. It is esteemed the best wood in which to preserve oils. Charcoal, highly esteemed in the manufacture of

gunpowder, is made of young stocks about an inch and-a-half in diameter, deprived of their bark. The seasoned wood affords a beautiful lamp-black, lighter and more intensely coloured, though less abundant than that obtained from the pine.

Arbor Vita—American—A species of thuya, abounding in favourable situations, such as sedgy swamps and borders of lakes, between the parallels of 45° and 48°. Two varieties, the "striped-leaved" and the "sweet-scented:" height, 40 feet; diameter, about 2 feet: growth, extremely slow. The valuable properties of the wood are well known.

The cedar generally escapes the ravages of the *bostrichus piniperda*, the most destructive of the insects which commit great ravages on the fir tribe. "This little animal," says Mr. Perley, "introduces itself into the cellular integument of the bark, and succeeds in dividing it from the trunk. The separation of the bark prevents the circulation of the sap, and hence results the inevitable death of the tree. In dense groves of trees of the fir tribe, where only a few are felled, these insects multiply rapidly on the tops and branches which are left after the removal of the trunk, and they thence extend to the standing timber, attacking generally the oldest trees, and those which have any defective part. Young and thrifty trees resist their attacks."

The leafy trees of British America are composed chiefly, of the *quercus*, two species—gray and red oak; of *juglans*, one—the walnut, or butternut; of *acer*, five—the white, red flowering, sugar or rock, moose wood, and low maple; of *cornus*, one—the dogwood; of the *betula*, four—the canoe, white, yellow, and black birch; of *alnus*, two—common and black alder; of *cerasces*, two—the wild and the northern cherry; of *populus*, two—the balsam poplar (balm of Gilead), and the American aspen; of *fagus*, two—white and red beech; *carpinus*, two—American horn-beam and iron wood; of *fraxinus*, two—white and black ash; of *salix*, three—the black, champlain, and shining willow; *ulmus*, two—the white and red elm; and of the *zilia one*—the American lime, or bass wood.

I am indebted for the following interesting description of these several trees to H. M. Perley, Esq. :—

Gray Oak—*Quercus Borealis*, seldom, if ever, exceeds 40 feet in height, or 2 feet in diameter. It

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blooms annually. A cubic foot of the gray oak from the Grand Lake, in Queen's County, New Brunswick, weighed 52 pounds when well seasoned.

Red Oak—*Quercus Rubra*, a tall, wide-spreading tree, of larger size than the gray oak. Leaves are smooth and shining on both sides; in the autumn they change to a dull red, and turn yellow before they fall. The acorns are large and abundant, rounded at the summit, compressed at the base, and contained in flat cups, covered with narrow compact scales. They are voraciously devoured by wild animals, and by cows, horses, and swine, when ranging the woods after the herbage has perished. Wood reddish and coarse-grained, and the pores are often large enough for the passage of a hair. Tolerably strong, but not very durable, and it is chiefly used for the staves of barrels and casks, in which to contain dry wares. A cubic foot of this wood, well seasoned, weighed 44 pounds. A cubic foot of English oak, when seasoned, weighs from 50 to 54 pounds.

Butternut—*Juglans Cathartica*, frequently attaining the height of 80 feet, and the diameter, at 4 feet from the ground, of 6 to 8 feet. The roots of a large-sized tree, often extend even with the surface of the ground, in a serpentine direction, and with little variation in size, to the distance of 40 feet. The trunk ramifies at a small height, and the branches, seeking a direction more horizontal than those of other trees, and spreading widely, form a large and tufted head, which gives the tree a remarkable appearance. The fruit is commonly single, and suspended by a thin, pliable foot-stalk, about three inches in length; its form is oblong oval, without any appearance of seam. It is often two and-a-half inches in length, and five inches in circumference, and is covered with a viscid adhesive substance, composed of small transparent vesicles, which are easily discovered with the aid of a glass. The nuts are hard, oblong, rounded at the base, and terminated at the summit in an acute point; their surface is very rough, deeply and irregularly furrowed. They are ripe in New Brunswick in October, and in some seasons are so abundant, that one person may gather several bushels of them in a day. The Indians, in former times, pounded and boiled the kernels, and separating the oily substance which swam upon the surface, mixed it with their food. These kernels are very oily, and hence the name of 'butternut.'

"When the fruit has attained about half its growth, it is sometimes used for making pickles, being first plunged into boiling water, then thoroughly wiped to clean it of its down, and afterwards preserved in vinegar. If the trunk of the butternut is pierced in the month which precedes the unfolding of the leaves, a pretty copious discharge ensues of a slightly sugary sap, from which, by evaporation, a sugar is obtained of a quality but slightly inferior to that of maple sugar. An extract of butternut bark in water, or even a decoction sweetened with honey, is acknowledged to be a very excellent cathartic. Its purgative operation is stated to be always sure, and unattended, in the most delicate constitutions, with pain or irritation. On a live tree, the inner bark, when first exposed, is of a pure white; in a moment it changes to a beautiful lemon colour, and soon after to a deep brown. The bark of the butternut tree is very commonly used in the country for dying yellow, and many fine trees are annually destroyed by the recklessness of the backwoodsman, who strip the bark from the trunk for this purpose.

"The butternut wood is light, of little strength, and of a reddish hue, but possesses the great advantage of lasting long, and of being secure from the ravages of worms; and it will long resist the effects of heat and moisture. On the Ohio, it is sawn into boards for the construction of small skiffs, which, on account of their lightness, are in request for river navigation. It is also used for the panels of coaches and carriages, for which it is found well adapted, not only from its lightness, but because it is not liable to split, and receives paint in a superior manner. For corn shovels and wooden dishes, it is preferred to the red flowering maple, because it is lighter and less liable to split. Very considerable quantities of furniture are now made at Frederickton of butternut wood, which is becoming in great request for a variety of purposes. For wainscoting, and for fitting up libraries, it is well adapted, being easily worked, of a pleasing colour, and susceptible of a good polish, which throws out the graining, and shows the wood to advantage.

"*The Maples*, in general, are lofty and beautiful trees, deciduous, and sufficiently hardy; they grow quick, are easily transplanted, and bear cropping. The grass flourishes under their shade. They prefer a free, deep, and loamy soil; rich, rather than sterile, and neither wet nor very dry. The situation that suits them best is one that is sheltered and shady, rather than exposed. They are seldom found on the north side of lofty mountains, or on mountains at all, except among other trees; but on the plains they are found by themselves. The wood of the maples differs so widely in quality in different species, that it is difficult to characterise it by general observations. Maple wood speedily ferments and decays when exposed to the weather. It is liable to be injured by worms, and hence is unfit for building. It possesses, however, other qualities which in part compensate for these defects, and which render it useful in the arts, and in domestic economy.

"*White Maple—Acer Ericarpum*. Trunk low, and divides itself into a great number of limbs, so divergent that they form a very spacious head. The leaves are opposite, and supported by long footstalks; they are divided by deep sinuses, into four lobes, and are toothed on the edges, of a bright green on the upper surface, and of a beautiful white beneath. The foliage is scattered, and leaves an open thoroughfare to the sunbeams. Wood, very white, and of a fine grain; but it is softer and lighter than that of any other species of the maple, and, from its want of strength and durability, is but little used. When dry, it weighs 38 pounds to a cubic foot, and in seasoning loses nearly half its weight. As it soon changes colour, it is not much used for cabinet work. The charcoal made from it is esteemed for yielding a strong uniform heat of long continuance. The sap of the white maple is in motion earlier in the spring than in the sugar maple. Like the red maple, it yields but half the product of the sugar maple from a given measure of sap, but the refined sugar is said to be whiter and more agreeable to the taste than that of the sugar maple. The inner bark of the white maple rapidly produces a black precipitate, with sulphate of iron.

"*Red-flowering Maple—Acer Rubrum*.—Whether in flower or in foliage, the red maple, like its congeners, is a beautiful tree. It neither attains the size nor the height of the sugar maple. The blossoms, which are of a beautiful purple, or deep red, unfold more than a fortnight before the leaves. The

fruit is of the same hue with the flowers, though it varies in size and in the intensity of its colouring according to the exposure and the dampness of the soil. The extremities of this tree, which are formed by numerous twigs united at the base, have a remarkable appearance when garnished with flowers and seeds of a deep red, before vegetation has begun generally to revive.

"The wood, when dry, weighs forty-four pounds the cubic foot; when green, it is soft, full of aqueous matter, and loses in drying nearly one-half of its weight. It is harder than the wood of the white maple, and of a finer and closer grain; hence it is easily wrought in the lathe, and acquires by polishing a glossy and silken surface. In the United States the wood is principally employed for the lower part of Windsor chairs. It is also used for spinning-wheels and saddle-trees, and in the country is preferred for yokes, shovels, and wooden dishes.

"It sometimes happens in very old trees that the grain, instead of following a perpendicular direction, is unulated; and this variety bears the name of 'curled maple.' This singular arrangement, for which no cause has ever been assigned, is never witnessed in young trees, nor in the branches of such as exhibit it in the trunk. It is also less conspicuous at the centre than near the circumference. Trees offering this disposition are rare, and do not exist in the proportion of one to a hundred. The serpentine direction of the fibre, which renders it difficult to split and to work, produces, in the hands of a skillful mechanic, the most beautiful effects of light and shade. These effects are rendered more striking, if, after smoothing the surface of the wood with a double-ironed plane, it is rubbed with a little sulphuric acid, and afterwards anointed with linseed oil. On examining it attentively, the varying shades are found to be owing entirely to the inflection of the rays of light, which is more sensibly perceived on viewing it, in different directions, by candle-light.

"Before mahogany came into such general use, the wood of the red-flowering maple was much used for furniture; bedsteads are still made of it, which in richness and lustre excel the finest mahogany. It is now sawn into thin plates (veneers) which are used to inlay other woods, in articles of cabinet work, and the finishing of ships' cabins. The red-flowering maple never produces the variety known as 'bird's-eye maple;' that is confined exclusively to the sugar or rock maple. The inner bark of the red-flowering maple is of a dusky red. By boiling, it yields a purplish colour, which, on the addition of sulphate of iron, becomes a dark blue, approaching to black. It is used in the country, with a certain portion of alum in solution, for dyeing black. The wood of this maple is inferior to that of rock maple for fuel. The French Canadians call this tree *plaine*. They make sugar from its sap, but, as in white maple, the product of a given measure is only half as great as is obtained from the rock or sugar maple.

"*Sugar Maple—Acer Saccharinum*.—This is the most interesting of the American maples, and is called rock maple, hard maple, and sugar maple. The first of these is most generally used; but Michaux used the last, as indicating one of the most valuable properties of the tree. The sugar maple frequently reaches the height of 70 or 80 feet, with a proportional diameter; but it does not commonly exceed 60 or 60 feet, with a diameter from 12 to 18 inches. Well-grown, thriving trees are beautiful in their appearance, and easily distinguished by the whiteness

of their bark. The natural *habitat* of the sugar maple is the steep and shady banks of rivers, and elevated situations, where the soil is cold and humid, free, deep, and fertile, and not surcharged with moisture.

"The leaves are about five inches broad, but they vary in length according to the age and vigour of the tree. They are opposite, attached by long footstalks, palmated, and equally divided into five lobes, entire at the edges, of a bright green above, and glaucous, or whitish underneath. In autumn, after the appearance of the first frost, their colour changes from green to all shades of red, from the deepest crimson to light orange. At first the leaves at the extremities of the branches alone change their colour, leaving the internal and more shaded parts still in their verdure, which gives to the tree the effect of great depth of shade, and displays advantageously the light, lively colouring of the sprays. Later in the season, when the tints become more and more gorgeous, and the full beams of the sunshine fall upon the large masses of foliage, the warm and glowing colours of the whole summit possess a great deal of grandeur, and add much to the beauty and effect of the landscape.

"Mr. McGregor, in his work on British America, speaking of the forests, says,—It is impossible to exaggerate the beauty of these forests; nothing under Heaven can be compared to its effulgent grandeur. Two or three frosty nights in the decline of autumn, transform the boundless verdure of a whole empire into every possible tint of brilliant scarlet, rich violet, every shade of blue and brown, vivid crimson, and glittering yellow. The stern, inexorable fir tribes, alone maintain their eternal sombre green; all others, on mountains or in valleys, burst into the most glorious vegetable beauty, and exhibit the most splendid and most enchanting panoramas on earth."

"The wood of the sugar maple when first cut is white, but after being wrought, and exposed for some time to the light, it takes a rosy tinge. Its grain is fine and close, and when polished it has a silky lustre. It is very strong, and sufficiently heavy, but wants the property of durability; when exposed to moisture it soon decays, and is therefore neglected in civil and naval architecture. For many purposes, however, it is preferred to beech, birch, or elm; but it should be perfectly seasoned, which requires two or three years.

"The wood of the sugar maple grown in New Brunswick, when dry, weighs forty-six pounds to a cubic foot; that grown to the southward of New Brunswick weighs much less. It furnishes the best fuel in the province, and its ashes are rich in the alkaline principle. Four-fifths of the pot-ashes exported from Boston and New York to Europe, are made from this maple. The charcoal made from it is preferred to any other; it is one-fifth heavier than the coal made from the same species of wood in the middle and southern states, a fact which sufficiently evinces that the sugar maple acquires its characteristic properties in perfection only in a northern climate.

"There is a great resemblance in appearance between the wood of the red-flowering maple and that of the sugar maple; but the latter is easily distinguished by its weight and hardness. There is, besides, a very certain and simple test. A few drops of sulphate of iron (copperas) being poured on samples of the different species, the sugar maple turns greenish, and the white maple and red-flowering maple change to a deep blue.

"The sugar maple exhibits two accidental forms in the

arrangement of the fibre, of which cabinet-makers take advantage for making beautiful articles of furniture. The first consists in undulations, like those of the red-flowering maple, and is likewise known as "curled maple;" the second, which takes place only in old trees that are still sound, appears to rise from an inflexion of the fibre from the circumference toward the centre, producing spots of half a line in diameter, sometimes contiguous, and sometimes several lines apart. The more numerous the spots the more beautiful, and the more esteemed is the wood; this variety is called 'bird's-eye maple.' It is now beginning to be exported in very considerable quantities to the United Kingdom, where it brings a high price; and as its value is becoming more generally understood, it is to be hoped that hereafter it will not be so lavishly cut and wasted by the lumberers and back-woodsmen as has heretofore been the case.

"The ancients held the maple in great esteem; and tables inlaid with curious portions of it, or formed entirely of its finely-variegated wood, in some instances brought their weight in gold. To such a height did the fondness of the Romans for curious woods carry them at one period of their history, that their tables were even more expensive than the jewels of their ladies. Maple dishes are frequently mentioned by the Latin poets; and Cowper and many modern poets also mention bowls of maple as being used by shepherds and hermits. Virgil celebrates the maple as the throne of the 'good Evander,' and its branches as the canopy under which he received and seated *Jæus*:

"On sods of turf he sat the soldiers round;
A maple throne, raised higher from the ground,
Received the Trojan chief; and o'er the bed
A lion's shaggy hide for ornament they spread."

"Pliny gives an elaborate account of the uses and properties of maples; he enumerates ten different kinds which were known in his time.

"Besides the varieties of 'curled maple' and 'bird's-eye maple,' two other varieties occur in the wens or excrescences which grow on the trunk of the sugar maple. The most valuable of these is known by the name of 'variegated maple knob,' or '*loupe d'érable de couleurs variées*, of the French. It presents an assemblage of shades agreeably disposed, sometimes resembling Arabic characters, which renders the wood exceedingly appropriate for fancy work, and, from its scarcity, it commands very high prices. The other variety, known by the name of 'silver white maple knob,' or '*loupe d'érable blanc argente*, of the French, exhibits a silvery lustre, and is highly prized for the same purposes as the preceding, although more common.

"The Indians of New Brunswick have been accustomed to make their dishes of these maple knobs from time immemorial, and they still continue to use them, for with ordinary care they last a very long time. Some of these rude dishes, when finished and polished by an experienced workman, are exquisitely beautiful, and worthy a place among the most rare and costly specimens of wood.

The extraction of sugar from the maple is a valuable resource in a country where all classes of society daily make use of tea and coffee. A cold and dry winter renders the trees more productive than a changeable and humid season. When frosty nights are followed by dry and warm days, the sap flows abundantly; and from three to five gallons are then yielded by a single tree in twenty-four hours. Three persons are found sufficient to attend 250 trees; each

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tree of ordinary size yields, in a good season, twenty to thirty gallons of sap, from which five or six pounds of sugar are made; but the average quantity, in ordinary seasons, is about four pounds to each tree. Wild and domestic animals are immoderately fond of maple sap, and break into enclosures to sate themselves with it.

"Moose Wood—*Acer Striatum*.—The name of moose wood was given it by the first settlers, from observing that the moose subsisted, during the latter part of the winter and beginning of spring, upon its young twigs. Its ordinary height is ten feet, though individual trees are found more than twenty feet. The trunk and branches of the moose wood are clad in a smooth green bark, longitudinally marked with black stripes, by which it is easily distinguishable at all seasons of the year. The small size of the moose wood forbids its use in any kind of construction; but as it is white and fine grained, cabinet-makers sometimes employ it in forming the white lines with which they inlay mahogany. Its principal advantage to the inhabitants consists in furnishing them, at the close of winter, when their forage is exhausted, with a resource for sustaining their cattle, till the advancing season has renewed the herbage. As soon as the buds begin to swell, the famished horses and neat cattle are turned loose into the woods, to browse on the young shoots, which they consume with avidity. Poor as this resource may appear, it is not wholly inadequate, as the twigs are tender, and full of saccharine juice.

"Mountain Maple—*Acer Montanum*, seldom exceeds 15 feet in height, but it blooms at an elevation of 6 or 8 feet, and even less.

"Flowery Dog Wood—*Cornus Florida*, forms a tree, attaining a height of 30 to 35 feet, with a trunk of 9 or 10 inches in diameter; but in general it does not exceed one-half of these dimensions. The trunk is strong, and is covered with a blackish bark, chopped into small portions, which are often in the shape of squares, more or less exact. The branches are proportionally less numerous than on other trees, and regularly disposed nearly in the form of crosses. The leaves are oval, of a dark green above, and whitish beneath. Towards the close of summer they are often marked with black spots, and at the approach of winter they change to a blood red. The flowers, which appear in May, or early in June, while the leaves are only beginning to unfold themselves, are yellowish, and collected in bunches, which are surrounded with a very large involucre, composed of four large white floral leaves, sometimes inclining to violet. This fine involucre constitutes the chief beauty of the flowers, which are very numerous, and which, in their season, robe the tree in white, like a full-blown apple tree, and render it one of the fairest ornaments of the American forests.

"The berries, which are of a vivid glossy red, and of an oval shape, are always united. They remain upon the tree until the first autumnal frosts, when, notwithstanding their bitterness, they are devoured by the robin (*Turdus migratorius*) and other small birds.

"The wood is hard, compact, heavy, and fine-grained; it is susceptible of a brilliant polish. The sap-wood is perfectly white, and the heart-wood is of a chocolate colour. This tree is not large enough for works which require pieces of considerable size; it is used for the handles of light tools, such as mallets, chisels, and the like. In the United States some farmers select this wood for harrow teeth, for

the hames of horses' collars, and also for shoeing sled-runners; it is also used for the cogs of mill-wheels; but to whatever purpose it is applied, being liable to split, it should never be wrought until it is perfectly seasoned. The shoots, when three or four years old, are found suitable for the light hoops of small casks; and the divergent branches are used for the yokes which are put on the necks of swine, to prevent their breaking into enclosed fields. The arrows of the Indians were formerly made of dog wood, as were also the spears of the ancients, by whom this wood was held in high esteem. Virgil speaks of it—

"bona bello
Cornus."

"The berries dye purple; the inner bark, which is extremely bitter, has proved an excellent substitute for the Peruvian bark. Dr. Walker, of Virginia, in an inaugural dissertation on the comparative virtues of the *Cornus florida*, *C. sericea*, and *Cinchona* officinalis of Linnæus, after detailing a great number of experiments, remarks:—"A summary recapitulation of these experiments shows, that the *Cornus florida*, *sericea*, and Peruvian bark, possess the same ingredients, that is, gum, mucilage, and extracts, which last contain the tannin and gallic acid, though in different proportions. The *florida* has most of the gum, mucilage, and extracts; the *sericea*, the next, which appears to be an intermediate between the *florida* and *cinchona*; while the latter possesses most of the resin. Their virtues appear similar and equal in their residence. The extract and resin possess all their active powers. The extract appears to possess all their tonic powers. The resin, when perfectly separated from the extract, appears to be purely stimulant; and probably the tonic powers of the extract are increased when combined with a portion of the resin, as in the spirituous tincture." The bark also may be substituted for galls in the manufacture of ink. From the bark of the more fibrous roots, the Indians obtain a good scarlet dye.

"Such are the profitable uses of this tree, which merits attention from the value of its wood, its useful properties, and especially from the beauty and brilliancy of its flowers, by which it is better adapted than almost any other of the North American trees, for the embellishment of extensive gardens and pleasure-grounds. In England it is cultivated solely as an ornamental shrub; but from its large white flowers, 'emulous of the purity of snow,' which finely contrast with the 'forest green,' it is said to deserve richly a place in every collection where it will thrive.

"Canoe Birch—*Betula Papyracea*.—By the French Canadians, this tree is called *Bouleau blanc*, white birch, and *Bouleau a canot*, canoe birch. It is known in New Brunswick, also by these denominations, and sometimes by that of 'paper birch,' but that of 'canoe birch' has been deemed most proper, as indicating an important use made of the bark.

"To the inhabitants of these regions, the trees of this genus are highly interesting, and are applied by them, with wonderful ingenuity, to the necessities of life. They employ the wood in the construction of houses and of vessels, and in the works of the wheelwright and the cabinet-maker; of the bark, which is nearly incorruptible, they make boxes, canoes, and more secure covering for their habitations; with the leaves they dye their nets; and from the sap they procure a mild and sugary beverage.

"The canoe birch is most multiplied in the forests of North America, in that portion lying N. of the

43rd degree of latitude, and between longitude 75° W., and the Atlantic Ocean; this portion, though situated 10° further S., is said very nearly to resemble Sweden and the eastern part of Prussia, not only in the face of the country, but in the severity of the climate. Below the 43rd degree of N. latitude, the canoe birch is not found. It attains its largest size, which is about 70 feet in height, and 30 inches in diameter, on the declivity of hills and in the bottom of fertile valleys. Its branches are slender, flexible, and covered with a shining brown bark, dotted with white. The twigs are erect in young trees, but being very slender and pliant, are apt to become pendent in old ones; hence a very beautiful variety, nearly equal in gracefulness to the drooping elm.

"The heart, or perfect wood, when first laid open, is of a reddish hue, and the sapwood is perfectly white. It has a fine glossy grain, with a considerable share of strength; that it is little employed, is owing partly to its speedy decay when exposed to the succession of dryness and moisture, and partly to the existence in its vicinity of several species of wood, such as the maples, the beech, and even the yellow birch, which are far preferable for the uses of the joiner and the wheelwright.

"A section of the trunk of this tree, 1 or 2 feet in length, immediately below the first ramification, exhibits very elegant undulations of the fibre, representing bunches of feathers, or sheaves of corn. These pieces, divided into thin veneers, were formerly much used by cabinet-makers in the United States to embellish their work. The canoe birch affords tolerably good fuel, but is inferior to maple. On trees not exceeding 8 inches in diameter, the bark is of a brilliant white, like that of the white birch of Sweden, and like that, too, it is almost indestructible. Trees long since prostrated by time, are often met with in the forests, whose trunks appear sound, while the bark, which remains perfect, contains only a friable substance like vegetable mould. This bark, like that of the European species, is devoted to many uses. In New Brunswick, large pieces are placed beneath the shingles and clapboards to render the houses dryer and less penetrable to cold.

"The Indians make boxes, dishes, and a variety of ornamental articles, of birch bark; the boxes they ornament very neatly with stained porcupine quills; the ornamental articles for ladies are embroidered with coloured silks, or dyed moose hair. Their wigwams are always built of it, and they use it for water-vessels, drinking-cups, and an almost endless variety of purposes. They sometimes manage to boil water in this bark, when split very thin, and in that state they frequently use it as paper. But the most important use of this bark, and for which no other can be used, is in the construction of canoes. To procure a proper piece for making a canoe, the largest, straightest, and smoothest trunks are selected. After the tree is cut down, a circular incision is made as far up the trunk as the bark is good, that is, just below the branches. A very careful examination is then made to ascertain the best side of the bark, in order that the most perfect portion may form the bottom of the canoe; this being ascertained, a straight incision is made, from the circular incision to the butt of the tree. The edges of the bark are next raised with wedges, and much precaution used to prevent any portion flying off too suddenly, and spoiling the whole. When the edges of the bark are fully cleared from the trunk of the tree, the bark is relieved from the pressure which was kept on it until then, and the whole bark of

the trunk flies off at once. A piece thus obtained was 22 feet in length, 56 inches in width at one end, and 46 inches at the other. It was subsequently formed into a large canoe of the Miillets fashion. These canoes are stitched together with fibrous roots of the white spruce, about the size of a quill, which are deprived of the bark, split, and supplied in water. The gunwales and ribs are formed of white cedar (*Chrysothrix thuyoides*), and the cross-bars of sugar maple; the seams are coated with white spruce gum. The paddles are made either of the red-flowering maple, or the sugar maple; but the latter is preferred.

"White Birch—*Betula Populifolia*, is most frequently found in places scantily furnished with trees, where the soil is dry and meagre; in these situations it commonly rises to the height of 20 or 25 feet, and is generally associated with the aspen or poplar. Single trees which grow accidentally in moist and sheltered places, expand to an ampler size, and are sometimes 40 feet in height, yet not more than 9 inches in diameter. It is less abundant than the other species of the birch tribe, and is rarely found in groups. It is commonly seen by the side of high-ways growing singly on burnt land, or sandy soils which have been exhausted by cultivation, or which are too poor to produce crops. The trunk is clad in a bark as white or whiter than that of the canoe-birch; but its outer bark, when separated from the inner bark, is incapable of being divided like that of the canoe-birch, into thin sheets, which constitutes a very essential and most important difference. The wood is very soft, brilliant when polished, and perfectly white. From its speedy decay, and the inferior size of the tree, it is not employed for any use except for fuel.

"Yellow Birch—*Betula Lutea*, abounds in New Brunswick; it is always found on cool and rich soils, with ash, hemlock, spruce, and black spruce. In these situations it attains its largest size, which is from 60 to 70 feet in height, and more than 2 feet in diameter. It is a beautiful tree; its trunk is nearly uniform in diameter, straight and destitute of branches for 30 or 40 feet. It is particularly remarkable for the colour and arrangement of its outer bark, which is of a brilliant golden yellow, and which frequently divides itself into very fine strips, rolled backwards at the ends, and attached in the middle. The young shoots and the leaves at their unfolding are downy. Towards the middle of summer, when fully expanded the leaves are perfectly smooth, except the foot-stalls which remains covered with a fine short hair. The leaves about 3½ inches long, 2½ inches broad, oval acuminate, and bordered with sharp and irregular teeth. The leaves, the bark, and the young shoots, have an agreeable taste, and similar to those of the black birch, though less sensible, which they lose in drying. The wood is inferior in quality and appearance to that of the black birch; it never assumes as deep a shade, but it is strong, and when well polished makes handsome furniture. It is found by experience to be every way proper for that part of the frame of vessels which always remains under water. It furnishes an excellent combustible. The young saplings are employed in New Brunswick almost exclusively for the hoops of casks. Brooms are made of the twigs, and the Indian women make brooms of the wood by splitting it up. The bark is valuable for tanning. Russian leather is prepared with empyreumatic oil from the bark of this tree, whence its peculiar odour. Yellow birch timber is exported to Europe in considerable quantities, but it is shipped

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with black birch, and passes with that species indiscriminately under the general name of birch.

Black Birch.—*Betula Lenta*.—The agreeable foliage of the black birch, and the valuable properties of its wood, render it the most interesting of the American birches. In Canada it is called cherry birch; in New Brunswick it is always called black birch. It grows in preference in deep, loose, and cool soils; in these situations it obtains its greatest expansion, sometimes exceeding seventy feet in height, and three feet in diameter. Its vegetation is beautiful, and in a congenial soil its growth is rapid. It is stated in the "Annals of the Arts," that a tree of this species attained the height of forty-five feet in nineteen years. The black birch is one of the earliest trees to renew its foliage. The leaves, during a fortnight after their birth, are covered with a thick, silvery down, which disappears soon after. They are about two inches long, toothed, heart-shaped at the base, pointed at the summit, of a pleasing tint, and fine texture like the leaves of the cherry-tree. The young shoots are brown, smooth, and dotted with white, as are also the leaves. When bruised, the leaves diffuse a very sweet odour, and as they retain the property when dried and carefully preserved, they afford an agreeable infusion, with the addition of milk and sugar.

The bark upon the trunk of trees less than eight inches in diameter, is smooth, grayish, and perfectly similar in colour and organisation to that of the cherry-tree. On old trees the outer bark is rough, and of a dusky gray colour; it detaches itself transversely at intervals; in hard, ligneous plates, six or eight inches broad. Michaux the younger calls this birch one of his favourite trees, and recommends it to the lovers of foreign vegetables, as eminently adapted by the beauty of its foliage and the agreeable colour of its leaves, to figure in the parks and gardens of Europe. He strongly recommends the inhabitants of the old world to introduce it into their forests; and particularly mentions the north of France, England, and Germany, as favourable to its growth, from the greater humidity of the climate.

The wood when freshly cut is of a rosy hue, which deepens by exposure to the light. Its grain is fine and close, whence it is susceptible of a brilliant polish; it possesses also a considerable share of strength. The union of these properties render it superior to all other species of birch, whether European or American. The weight of a cubic foot of the wood of the black birch, when seasoned, is forty-five pounds. The specific gravity of water being estimated at 1,000, that of seasoned black birch wood is 720. When green, this wood floats with difficulty, and sinks after a time, unless supported by timber of a less specific gravity. When well seasoned (which can only be done thoroughly under water) it makes very strong and useful articles of furniture, for which it would be more generally used but for its constant tendency to warp. It is much used in New Brunswick in ship-building, for the keel and lower timbers of vessels; and as it is almost imperishable under water, it is well adapted for planking, piles, foundation timber, sluices, and, in general, for any purpose where it is constantly wet.

Black birch wood is now exported in large quantities to the United Kingdom, in the form of squared timber, and sawn planks: the quantity of each is annually on the increase. It has been suggested by a gentleman well acquainted with the timber trade, that bowed birch staves might be made a profitable

article of export to Great Britain, for making herring barrels on the British coasts.

The wood of this species of birch furnishes excellent fuel, second only to that of the sugar maple. The inner bark is full of tannin. The sap, drained by incision in March and April, makes excellent vinegar, and a pleasant weak wine may be obtained from it by boiling and fermentation.

The alder is found everywhere in New Brunswick frequently growing along the sides of brooks, and abounding still more in places covered with stagnant water. As the roots of the alder penetrate to a great distance, it contributes more effectually than most other trees to support the banks at the season of the overflowing of the waters.

The ordinary dimensions of the common alder is about ten or twelve feet in height, and two or three inches in diameter. Its leaves are of a beautiful green, distinctly furrowed on the surface, and doubly toothed at the edge.

The black alder is much larger than the common alder, being sometimes eighteen or twenty feet in height, and three or four inches in diameter. Its leaves are similar in shape, but are easily distinguishable by their different tint and superior size; they are of a pale bluish-green, and a third longer than those of the common alder. The bark of the trunk, and of the secondary branches, is smooth, glossy, and of a deep brown colour, sprinkled with white. Both species grow in cool, moist places, on the banks of rivulets and in swamps. As their trunks are generally straight, tapering gradually from base to summit, garnished with numerous branches, bending rather close around the stock, they grow in great numbers in a small space.

The wood, when first laid open, is white, but it soon becomes reddish by contact with the air. The small size of both species mentioned, prevents their being of any very great use in the arts. The alder takes a better black than any other wood; when polished and varnished, it affords a good imitation of ebony. With sulphate of iron, the bark forms a black dye for colouring wool; it is sometimes used by hatters in the United States for dyeing hats. A cubic foot of alder wood, in a dry state, weighs from 34 to 50 pounds. It soon rots when exposed to the weather or to damp; but it is extremely durable in water or in wet ground.

Cherry.—The trees of this genus are deciduous, with smooth serrated leaves, and white flowers. The two species which have been noticed in New Brunswick are more or less abundant, in proportion to the dryness and humidity of the soil, which are alike unpropitious. They stand less in need of shelter than any fruit-bearing tree whatever, and may often be employed on the margins of orchards, or for surrounding kitchen-gardens to form a screen against high winds. They are said to thrive best when unmixed with other trees, and they suffer grass to grow beneath their shade. According to experiments which have been made, it is stated that no tree of considerable size bears transplanting better than the wild cherry. As to the utility of all large trees which have been recommended, they offer a check by the operation; but from this they generally recover in the course of two, or at most three, seasons. As a tree, one of its valuable properties is the food and protection which it affords to numerous species of birds. This is one reason why the cultivation of the wild cherry is so generally encouraged in the forests of Britain, of Belgium, and of France, as it not only increases the

number of birds by supplying them with nourishment, but is the means of destroying countless insects which these important and useful creatures devour. In all ornamental plantations, hedge-rows, and avenues, wild cherry-trees are desirable objects of culture on this account, as also for their hardihood, and the great beauty of their flowers and fruit, which are produced in the greatest profusion in their respective seasons of the year.

"In France the wild cherry-tree is highly prized for the food it supplies to the poor; and a law was passed, as long ago as 1669, commanding the preservation of all cherry-trees in the royal forests: in consequence of which they became so numerous, that there was no longer room for the underwood to grow; when, as usual, going to the other extreme, most of them were cut down. This measure, it was remarked, was a great calamity to the poor, who, during several months of the year, lived, either directly or indirectly, on the produce of the *merisier* or wild cherry-tree. Soup made of the dried fruit, with a little bread and butter, was the common nourishment of the wood-cutters and charcoal-burners of the forest during the winter. This fruit is much used in Europe at present, to make jelly or *rob*, and in the manufacture of *liqueurs*, such as cherry-brandy and ratafia. *Kirschenwasser*, an ardent spirit much used in Germany and Switzerland, is also made of it; and the famous liqueur *Maraschino*, is the product of a small acid cherry that abounds in the north of Italy, at Trieste, and in Dalmatia.

"*Wild Cherry Tree—Cerasus Virginiana.*—In New Brunswick seldom exceeds 30 or 40 feet in height, with a trunk 8 or 10 inches in diameter. Its bark is so peculiar as to render it distinguishable at first sight, when the form of the leaves cannot be discerned; it is blackish and rough, and detaches itself in narrow, semi-circular, hard, thick plates, which adhere for a time to the tree before dropping off; these are renewed after a considerable period.

"The trunk is usually straight for about one-fourth of its height, where it ramifies into a spreading summit of a handsome outline; but its foliage is too thin to display that massive richness which gives so much beauty to the maples, and many other trees. The leaves are usually about four inches long, toothed, very much pointed, and of a beautiful smooth, shining green, with two or more small reddish glands at the base. The flowers are white, and occur in spikes, which when fully expanded, have a fine effect. The fruit is about one-fourth of an inch in diameter, of a roundish form, purplish black colour, and edible, but slightly bitter to the taste. It arrives at maturity in August or September, when it affords great nourishment to several species of birds.

"There is a variety of the wild cherry tree known in New Brunswick as the 'choke-cherry,' which has been designated *Cerasus Virginiana præcox*. This variety differs from the species in having broadly-oval leaves, abruptly pointed, being sometimes sub-cordate at the base, very sharply, and often doubly-toothed, and generally hairy in the axils of the veins beneath.

"The petals are orbicular; the fruit sub-globose, of a glossy scarlet, red when ripe, sweet and pleasant, but so very astringent that it dries the mouth and throat like the juice of spruce cones when swallowed. It usually ripens its fruit several weeks earlier than the species of which it is a variety, and hence the name *præcox*.

"The wood is of a dull, light, red tint which deepens with age. It is compact, fine-grained, takes a

brilliant polish, and, when perfectly seasoned, is not liable to warp. In the United States, where this tree grows to a very large size, it is extensively used by cabinet-makers for almost every species of furniture; and, when chosen near the ramification of the trunk, it rivals mahogany in beauty. The bark of the branches and of the roots is there collected by herb-vendors, and brought to market in pieces or fragments. The bark of the root is regarded as the best, is destitute of epidermis or outer bark, of a reddish-brown colour, brittle, easily pulverised, and presents, when broken, a grayish surface. When fresh, the odour is prussic, which is lost in a measure in drying, but regained by maceration; the taste is aromatic, prussic, and bitter. It is stated, undoubtedly, to be a useful tonic, and to possess, in some degree, narcotic and anti-spasmodic properties.

"The fruit is employed in New Brunswick to make a cordial, by infusion in rum or brandy, with the addition of sugar; and, when carefully made with brandy, it is superior to the *Kirschenwasser* imported from Copenhagen.

"*Northern Cherry Tree—Cerasus Borealis.*—A handsome small tree, growing to a height of 20 or 30 feet, with a trunk 6 or 8 inches in diameter, and covered with a smooth brownish bark, which detaches itself laterally. Its leaves are from 3 to 5 inches long, oval, toothed, and very sharp pointed. The flowers put forth in May or June, and occur in small white bunches, which give birth to a small, red, intensely-acid fruit, which arrives at maturity in August. The fruit is not very abundant even on the largest trees.

"This tree, like the canoe birch, is said to offer the same remarkable peculiarity of reproducing itself spontaneously, in old cultivated fields, or such parts of the forest as have been burnt over. Of all the trees of North America no one is so nearly allied to the common cherry (*Cerasus vulgaris*) as the present species, and hence it has been recommended as a suitable stock to graft that cherry upon. The wood is exceedingly hard, fine-grained, and of a reddish hue, but the inferior size of the tree forbids its use in the mechanical arts.

"*Poplar.*—At present only two species of trees of this genus have been recognised in New Brunswick. The wood of the European aspen lasts long exposed to the weather, and most poplars are said to be very durable in a dry state, agreeably to the English woodman's adage—

"Cover me well, to keep me dry,
And heart of oak I do defy."

"The wood of most of the species is described as making very good flooring for bed-rooms, and places where there is not much wear, and it has the advantage of not catching fire readily; or, as Evelyn, has it, 'The poplar burns untowardly, and rather moulders away, than maintains any solid heat.' The wood of the Lombardy poplar is recommended for cheese-rooms and farm-houses in general, because neither mice nor mites will attack it.

"*Balsam Poplar—Populus Balsamifera*, best known in New Brunswick by the name of 'Balm of Gilead,' on the rich alluvial lands on the borders of the River St. John, above Fredericton, and along the valley of the Tobique. The largest of the trees of the species reach the height of 80 feet, and are upwards of 2 feet in diameter.

"In the spring, when the buds begin to develop, they are abundantly coated with a yellowish glutinous

substance, of a very agreeable smell, and though this exudation diminishes at the approach of summer, the buds retain a strong balsamic odour. This odour is very much admired; and as this species of poplar grows very rapidly, and is easily transplanted, or propagated from cuttings, it is much in request as ornamental tree. It will grow in all soils, but worst in clay; it impoverishes the land, destroys the grass, and the numerous shoots of the roots spread so near the surface of the earth, that they permit nothing else to grow, but rise in all quarters whether they are wanted or not.

"Hitherto the wood of the balsam poplar has not been brought into very profitable use. It is extremely light, white, smooth, woolly, and soft; and there are, no doubt, many purposes for which it might be advantageously employed.

"*American Aspen*—*Populus Tremuloides*.—The ordinary height of the smaller species of poplar is about thirty feet, and its diameter five or six inches. The larger variety (which has been described as a distinct species, by the designation of *P. grandidentata*, but is believed to be only a variety of this species) grows to the height of fifty or sixty feet, and the diameter of eighteen inches or more; it flourishes as well on the border of swamps as on uplands. The straight trunk of the aspen is covered with a smooth greenish bark, which is rarely cracked, except on the base of the oldest trees, where it becomes furrowed. The catkins which spring from the extremity of the branches are composed of silky plumes, and of an oval form, somewhat more than an inch in length. The leaves are about two inches broad, narrowed at the summit, and supported by long footstalks. On stocks, seven or eight feet in height they are nearly round, and are bordered with obtuse, irregular teeth; on young shoots they are of twice the size mentioned, heart-shaped, and pointed at the summit. Of all the poplars of America this species has the most tremulous leaves; the gentlest air suffices to throw them into agitation.

"The wood of the smaller variety of the American aspen is light, soft, destitute of strength, and of little utility. It is felled only to disencumber lands, which are being cleared for cultivation. As the wood may be divided into very thin laminae, it is sometimes used for the manufacture of ladies' and children's bonnets and light summer-hats, which are very pretty when new, but not very durable. There is great superiority in the wood of the larger variety of this species of poplar over that of the smaller variety. It is white, fine, and strong; it gives a firmer hold to nails, and is not liable to warp or split. The largest and best specimens of this beautiful wood is used for the ornamental work of ships' cabins, in conjunction with birds'-eyes maple. It has a very silky lustre, and, when varnished and polished, bears a very close resemblance to satin wood, to which it is very little, if at all inferior, for ornamental purposes. The weight of a cubic foot of the large variety from Miramichi has been found to be twenty-six pounds.

"The Acadian French inhabitants of the northern coast of New Brunswick, use the wood for their *sabots*, or wooden shoes, and also for bowls, trays, and a variety of purposes in domestic economy. The superior size of this poplar renders it easily recognised when met with in the forest by the woodman; and its timber should be preserved, not only for its beauty, but for the variety of useful and ornamental purposes to which it may be applied. The bark of the aspen is the principal food of beavers, who cut

down the smaller trees, as well to procure food, as to build with them their singularly ingenious dams for creating artificial ponds.

"*BEECH*.—In North America, as in Europe, the beech is one of the most majestic trees of the forest. Beech, says White, of Melborne, is one of the most grand and lovely of all the forest trees, whether we consider its stately trunk, its smooth silvery rind, its glossy foliage, or graceful spreading pendulous branches. No tree, says another writer, is more beautiful when standing singly in parks, or ornamental grounds, as it throws out its branches very regularly, and feathers almost to the ground. In woods or groves it grows clear of branches to a considerable height. Virgil was right in choosing the beech for its shade, for no tree forms so complete a roof; but no verdure is found under its shade. The beech is most pleasing in its juvenile state. A light airy young tree, with its spiry branches hanging in easy forms, is often beautiful.

"*White Beech*—*Fagus Sylvestris*, is more slender and less branched than the red beech; but its foliage is superb, and its general appearance magnificent. The leaves are oval, pointed, smooth, shining, and bordered, in the spring, with soft, hairy down. The sexes are borne by different branches on the same tree; the barren flowers are collected in pendulous, globular heads, and the others are small and of a greenish hue. The fruit is in an erect capsule, covered with loose, flexible spires, which divides itself at maturity into four parts, and gives liberty to two triangular seeds. The bark upon the trunk of the beeches is thick, gray, and, on the oldest stocks, smooth and entire. The perfect wood of this species bears a small proportion to the sawwood, and frequently occupies only 3 inches in a trunk 18 inches in diameter. The specific name of "white beech" is derived from the colour of its alburnum or sapwood. The wood of this species is of very little value except for fuel. In Ohio, the bark of the white beech is used for tanning, and the leather made with it is said to be white and serviceable, and inferior only to that prepared with oak bark.

"*Red Beech*—*Fagus Purpurinea*.—This species of beech is almost exclusively confined to the north-eastern parts of the United States, and the provinces of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island. In some parts of New Brunswick, and generally in Prince Edward Island, it is so abundant as to constitute extensive forests, the finest trees growing on fertile, level, or gently sloping lands, which are proper for the culture of grain. Its name is derived from the colour of its wood, and not from its leaves. The red beech equals the white beech in diameter, but not in height; and, as it ramifies nearer the earth, and is more numerously divided, it has a more massive summit, and the appearance of more tufted foliage. Its leaves are equally brilliant with those of the white beech, a little larger and thicker. They become a pale yellow in the autumn, and they frequently remain on the tree during the winter, retaining that colour. The fruit is of the same form as that of the white beech, but is only half as large, and is garnished with firmer and less numerous points. To these differences must be added an important one in the wood. A red beech, 13 or 18 inches in diameter, has not more than 3 or 4 inches of sapwood; while a white beech, of the same size, has 13 or 14 inches of sapwood, and very little heart of any value. The wood is stronger, tougher, and more compact than the white, and it bears a very strict analogy to

the European beech. When perfectly seasoned, it is not liable to warp; and a cubic foot of it then weighs from 43 to 53 pounds.

"Representing the strength of oak by 100, that of beech will be 103; representing the stiffness of oak by 100, that of beech will be 77; representing the toughness of oak by 100, that of beech will be 138. Hence it appears that the oak is superior in stiffness, but neither so strong nor tough. Before iron rails were introduced, much beech was used for railways for the collieries about Newcastle. The red beech is very durable when preserved from humidity, and incorruptible when constantly in the water; but it rapidly decays when exposed to the alternations of dryness and moisture. It is much esteemed in naval architecture for those parts of vessels which are constantly wet, and it is much used in Prince Edward Island. An old and experienced English ship-builder, residing at Richmond Bay, in Prince Edward Island, assured the writer that, on the lower part of vessels, he had known the red beech wood of the island sound at the end of 40 years; in such situations he considered it fully equal to English oak in strength and durability. The wood of the red beech is much esteemed for fuel, and its ashes afford good pot-ash. It serves for shoe-leats, tool-handles, planes, and mallets; and sometimes chairs, bedsteads, and other articles of furniture are made of it.

"Sheep and goats eat the leaves of the beech. When gathered in autumn, before they are much injured by frost, the leaves, on account of their elastic quality, make better *paillasse*s than either straw or chaff, and they last seven or eight years. The nuts of the red beech are produced every second year. They are of a triangular form, with a smooth tough skin, and a fine interior pelliels adhering to the kernel. They are united in pairs, in capsules garnished with points, from which they escape about the 1st of October, the season of their maturity. In France and Germany an oil is extracted from the beech-nut, next in fineness to that of the olive, and which may be preserved longer than any other oil. But they seem to yield little oil in northern countries. Linnaeus says that, in Sweden, very little oil can be expressed from them, and the attempt has not yet been made in New Brunswick. Hogs fatten rapidly on beech-nuts, but the pork is not esteemed; bears, partridges, squirrels, and mice, feed on them largely. In Belgium very solid and elegant hedges are made with young beeches, placed 7 or 8 inches apart, and bent in opposite directions, so as to cross each other and form a trellis, with apertures 5 or 6 inches in diameter. During the first year they are bound with osier at the points of intersection, where they finally become grafted and grow together. As the beech does not suffer in pruning, and sprouts less luxuriantly than most other trees, it is perfectly adapted to this object.

"*American Hornbeam*—*Carpinus Americana*.—Ordinary stature from 12 to 15 feet, but it sometimes reaches 25 or 30 feet in height, and 6 inches in diameter. The trunk of the American hornbeam, like that of the analogous species in Europe, is obliquely and irregularly fluted, frequently through all its length. By its form, and by the appearance of its bark, which is smooth and spotted with white, it is easily distinguished when the leaves are fallen. It sheds its leaves in autumn, about the same time with the elm. During the time of its verdure it makes a good appearance, being well clothed with leaves, which are oval, pointed, finely denticulated, and of a deep,

strong, green colour. Cattle eat the leaves, but no pasture grows under its shade; it is easily transplanted, and bears lopping. The fructification is always abundant, and the aments remain attached to the tree long after the foliage is shed.

"The wood, like that of the European hornbeam, is white, and exceedingly compact and fine-grained. It is in great request among the farmers for axe handles, and for agricultural implements, or for such parts of them as require great strength. Cores for mill-wheels are made of the wood, and are accounted superior to those made of the wood of the sugar maple, which is generally used for that purpose. In Scandinavia, the inner bark of the hornbeam is used to dye yellow; and the Indians of America use it occasionally for a similar purpose.

"*Iron Wood*—*Carpinus Ostrya* nowhere forms masses even of inconsiderable extent, but is loosely disseminated, and found only in cool, fertile, and shaded situations. It rarely reaches thirty-five feet in height, and twelve inches in diameter, and commonly does not exceed half these dimensions. In the winter, this tree is recognised by a smooth grayish bark, finely divided, and detached in strips not more than a line in breadth. The leaves are alternate, oval-acuminate, and finely and unequally denticulated. The fertile and barren flowers are borne at the extremity of different branches of the same tree, and the fruit is in clusters like hops, whence the specific name *ostrya*. The small, hard, triangular seed, is contained in a species of reddish, oval, inflated bladder, covered at maturity with a fine down, which causes a violent irritation of the skin if carelessly handled. The concentric circles of the wood are closely compressed, and their number, in a trunk of only four or five inches in diameter, evinces the length of time necessary to acquire this inconsiderable size. The Canadian-French call iron wood, *bois dur*, hard wood.

"The wood is perfectly white, compact, fine-grained, and heavy. To its inferior dimensions must be ascribed the limited use of a tree, the superior properties of whose wood are attested by its name. It is exceedingly valuable for all purposes to which its small size will permit it to be applied. Near New York brooms and scrubbing-brushes are made of iron wood, by shredding the end of a stick of suitable dimensions.

"*ASH* is a very rapid growing tree, and its wood differs more from difference of soil and situation than that of any other tree. The wood of ash soon rots when exposed either to damp or alternate dryness and moisture, but is tolerably durable in a dry situation. It is said that the best season for felling ash is from November to February; and that when felled in full sap, it is very subject to the worm. In such case, the wood is said to be much benefited by water seasoning. It is very much esteemed for its toughness and elasticity; and in consequence of these properties, it is useful whenever sudden shocks are to be sustained, as in various parts of machines, wheel-carriages, implements of husbandry, ship-blocks, tools, and the like. It has been found as useful in the arts of war as in those of peace, in ancient as well as in modern times:—

"From Felton's cloudy top, an ash entire
Old Chiron fell'd, and slay'd it for his sire."

Pope's Homer.

"The wood is too flexible for the timber of buildings, and not sufficiently durable. Its texture is alternately compact and porous, the compact side of

the annual ring being the lighter coloured, which renders the annual rings very distinct. The drip of the ash is said to be very unfavourable to all other vegetable productions. It exhausts the soil very much; the roots spread widely near the surface.

"*White Ash*—*Fraxinus Americana*, is an interesting tree from the qualities of its wood, the rapidity of its growth, and the beauty of its foliage. It abounds in New Brunswick; a cold climate seems most congenial to its nature. The bark is of a white colour; on large stocks the bark is deeply furrowed, and divided into small squares, one to three inches in diameter.

"The most favourable situations for white ash are the banks of rivers, and the edges and surrounding acclivities of swamps, where the soil is deep and fertile. In such situations, it sometimes attains the height of 50 or 60 feet, with a diameter of 18 inches or more. The trunk is perfectly straight, and often undivided to the height of more than 30 feet.

"The leaves of the white ash are opposite, and composed of 3 or 4 pairs of leaflets, surmounted by an odd one. The leaflets, which are borne by short footstalks, are 3 or 4 inches long, about 2 inches broad, oval, pointed, rarely denticulated, of a delicate texture, and an undulated surface. Early in the spring, they are covered with a light down, of a pale green colour above and whitish beneath. As the contrast of colour between the surfaces is remarkable, and is peculiar to the species, Dr. Mecklenberg has denominated it *Fraxinus discolor*.

"The shoots of the two preceding years are of a bluish-gray colour, and perfectly smooth; the distance between their buds sufficiently proves the vigour of their growth.

"White ash is almost always accompanied by white elm, yellow birch, white maple, and hemlock and black spruce. The wood in young, thrifty trees, is very white, from the bark to the centre; but in large, old trees, the heart-wood is of a reddish tinge, and the sap-wood white. The weight of a cubic foot of this wood, when dry, varies from 34 to 52 lbs.; when the weight of a cubic foot is lower than 45 lbs., the wood is that of an old tree, and will be found deficient both in strength and toughness. Representing the strength of oak by 100, that of ash is 119; representing the stiffness of oak by 100, that of ash is 89; representing the toughness of oak by 100, that of ash is 160. The ash, therefore, exceeds both in strength and toughness, and in young wood the difference is still more considerable.

"The wood of the white ash is highly esteemed for its strength, suppleness, and elasticity. It is superior to every other wood for oars, and second only to hickory for handspikes. Besides its use by carriage and sleigh-makers, it is in very general use for agricultural implements and domestic wares, especially for the handles of spades, hoes, shovels, forks, rakes, and scythes. Cattle eat the leaves of ash greedily, but they are said to give a bad flavour to the butter.

"*Black Ash*—*Fraxinus Sambucifolia* is generally known by the name of 'swamp ash'; in the United States it is called 'water ash.' It requires a moist soil, exposed to longer inundations than the white ash, and is usually accompanied by the red-flowering maple, yellow birch, black spruce, and white cedar. It does not often exceed 40 feet in height, or 12 inches in diameter.

"The buds of the black ash are of a deep blue, and the young shoots of a bright green, sprinkled with dots of the same colour, which disappear as the sea-

son advances. The leaflets are of a deep green colour, smooth on the upper surface, and coated with red down upon the main ribs beneath; when bruised they emit an odour like that of elder leaves.

"The black ash is easily distinguished from the white by its bark, which is of a duller hue, less deeply furrowed, and has the layers of the epidermis applied in broad sheets. It is among the last trees which put forth in spring, and the earliest that lose their leaves in autumn. The very first frost that comes, not only causes its leaves to fade and become yellow like those of other trees, but blackens and shrivels them up, so that they fall in showers with the least breath of wind. The perfect wood is of a brown complexion and fine texture; it is more elastic than that of the white ash, but it is neither so strong nor so durable. It is a wood, therefore, not greatly in request. As it may be separated into thin, narrow strips, it is much used by the Indians for the manufacture of baskets. In the country these strips are also used for chair-bottoms.

"The black ash is liable to be disfigured with knobs, which are sometimes of a considerable size, and are detached from the body of the tree to make bowls and ornamental articles of turnery. The wood of these excrescences has the advantage of superior solidity, and, when carefully polished, exhibits singular undulations of the fibre. Dishes made of these knobs, may be seen in most of the Indian wigwams (especially in remote situations), which have been used for a great number of years, and are highly prized. The ashes of the wood of the black ash are said to be rich in alkali.

"*Willow*.—Many species of willow are found in the colonies, the greater part of which are susceptible of no useful employment. The three species here mentioned are distinguished only by their superior height, but they are all greatly inferior to European willow, in the size and properties of their wood. 1. *Black Willow*—*Salix Nigra*; 2. *Champlain Willow*—*Salix Ligustrina*; 3. *Shining Willow*—*Salix Lucida*.

"The first of these three species (*Salix nigra*) is the most common of the American willows, and the most analogous to that of Europe. It rarely attains a greater height than 30 or 35 feet, and a diameter of 12 to 15 inches. It divides at a small height into several divergent, but not pendant limbs, and forms a spacious summit. The leaves are long, narrow, finely denticulated, of a light green, and destitute of stipules. In the uniformity of its colouring, the foliage differs from that of the European willow, the lower surface of which is whitish. Upon the trunk the bark is grayish, and finely chapt. Upon the roots, it is of a dark brown, whence may have been derived the specific name of the tree.

"The Champlain willow (*Salix ligustrina*) is about 25 feet high, and 7 or 8 inches in diameter. Its first aspect resembles that of the black willow, but its leaves are longer, and accompanied at the base by stipules.

"The shining willow (*Salix lucida*) is best known in New Brunswick by the name of 'red willow,' from the brilliant red colour of the bark on the young shoots. It is found in moist but open grounds, and is more common on the edges of meadows and on the banks of streams than in the interior of the forests. The shining willow attains the height of 18 or 20 feet, but its ordinary elevation is 9 or 10 feet. The wood is white and soft, and the branches of each species are easily broken from the tree. Neither the wood nor the twigs are applied to any useful purpose.

"The long slender branches of the shining or red willow are sometimes used for baskets, for which, however, they are rather brittle, and are therefore of little value. The Melicete Indians scrape the bark from the young twigs, and when dry, mix it with their tobacco for smoking; they are very partial to the admixture, the odour of which is much more agreeable than that of pure tobacco.

"The roots of the black willow afford an intensely bitter decoction, which is considered in the country as a purifier of the blood, and as a preventative, and a remedy for intermittent fever.

"**ELM.**—There are two well-defined species of elm in New Brunswick, known as the white elm and red elm. A third species is supposed to exist, but it is not yet fully determined whether it is merely a variety of the white elm, or a distinct species. Every variety of elm is beautiful, and well adapted to make shady walks, as it does not destroy the grass; and its leaves are acceptable to cows, horses, goats, sheep, and swine. Silk-worms are said to devour the tender leaves of elm with great avidity. Many insects feed upon the leaves, particularly the *Cicada umi* and *Aphis umi*; the latter generally curl the leaves, so as to make them a secure shelter against the weather. The bark of elm, dried and ground to powder, has been mixed with meal in Norway to make bread in times of scarcity. The flowers have a violet smell.

"**White Elm.**—*Ulmus Americana* is found over an extensive tract of the North American continent, but it appears to be the most multiplied and to attain the loftiest height between the 42nd and 47th degrees of north latitude. It delights in low, humid, substantial soils, along the banks of rivers or streams, or on the borders of swamps where the soil is deep and fertile. It will grow, however, on any soil that is not too dry and barren, and in any situation within its natural limits, how much severer exposed. In New Brunswick, the white elm stretches to a great height. In clearing the primitive forests a few stocks are sometimes left standing; and insulated in this manner, the tree appears in all its majesty, towering to the height of eighty or one hundred feet, with a trunk three or even four feet in diameter, regularly shaped, naked, and insensibly diminishing to the height of sixty or seventy feet, where it divides itself into two or three primary limbs. These limbs, not widely divergent near the base, approach and cross each other eight or ten feet higher, and diffuse on all sides, long, flexible, pendulous branches, bending into regular arches, and floating lightly in the air, giving to the tree a broad and somewhat flat-topped summit, of regular proportions and admirable beauty. When growing thus insulated, this tree is often marked by two or more small branches four or five feet in length, proceeding from near the first ramification, and descending along the trunk; and the larger branches or limbs, as also the trunk, are sometimes covered with little ragged twigs, as if clothed with tufts of hair. The bark of the white elm is light-coloured, tender, and very deeply furrowed. The leaves are four or five inches long, borne by short footstalks, alternate, unequal at the base, oval, pointed, and doubly denticulated. They are generally smaller than those of the red elm, of a thinner texture, and a smoother surface, with more regular and prominent ribs. This species differs, also, essentially from the red elm and European elm in its flowers and seeds. The flowers appear before the leaves, and are very small, of a purple colour, supported by short, slender footstalks, and united in

bunches at the extremity of the branches. In 1846, the white elm was noticed in flower, at Hampton Ferry, so early as the 20th of April; there was then no appearance of leaves.

"In autumn the bright golden foliage of the elm kindly mixes with the various hues of the poplar and the maples, which display all shades of red, and from the deepest crimson to the brightest orange. Its tints then contrast agreeably with the pale-yellow, sober foliage of the birch and the beech, with the different shades of brown on the bass wood and the ash, or with the buff-yellow of the larch. At that season, even the gloomy blackness of the resiniferous trees, by throwing forward the gayer tints, is not without its effect.

"The quality of the wood depends, in a singular degree, on the situation in which it grows. The rich 'intervalles' already mentioned are necessary to its perfection; but when grown in open situations, where it is vexed by the winds and exposed to all the influences of the seasons it is still firmer and more solid. The wood has less strength than the oak, and less elasticity than the ash, but it is tougher and less liable to split. It is said to bear the driving of bolts and nails better than any other timber. The wood is of a light brown colour, and is liable to decay when exposed to the alterations of dryness and moisture. It must be either wet or dry, in extreme; accordingly, it is proper for water-works, mills, pumps, aqueducts, and ship-planks beneath the water-line. It makes excellent piles and planking for wet foundations. The piles on which London bridge stands are chiefly of elm, and have remained six centuries without material decay; and several other instances of its durability in water have been noticed. When perfectly dry, the wood of the white elm weighs only thirty-three pounds the cubic foot. If cut transversely, or obliquely to the longitudinal fibres, it exhibits numerous and fine undulations, which are very beautiful when polished. The wood is an excellent combustible, and its ashes yield a large proportion of alkali.

"The bark of the white elm is said to be easily detached during eight months of the year; soaked in water, and supplied by pounding, it is sometimes used for making ropes and for the bottoms of chairs. In France the wood of elm is usually employed for mounting artillery, and for this purpose it is selected with the greatest care. The trees are cut to the proper dimensions, and the pieces are stored under shelter to dry during six or seven years; the precaution is even observed of turning them every six months, that the seasoning may proceed more uniformly. When fully seasoned, the wood is highly esteemed for the carriages of cannon, and for the gun-wales and blocks of ships.

"**Red Elm.**—*Ulmus Rubra*.—This species of elm bears the names of red elm, slippery elm, and moose elm, but the first is most common. The Canadian French call it *orme gras*. The red elm is less multiplied than the white, and the two species are rarely found together, as the red elm requires a substantial soil free from moisture, and even delights in elevated and open situations, such as the steep banks of rivers. This tree is 50 or 60 feet high, and 15 or 20 inches in diameter. In the winter it is distinguished from the white elm by its buds, which are larger and rounder, and which, a fortnight before their development, are covered with a russet down. The flowers are aggregated at the extremity of the young shoots. The scales which surround the bunches of flowers are

downy like the buds. The leaves are oval, pointed, doubly denticulated, and larger, thicker, and rougher than those of the white elm. The bark upon the trunk is of a brown colour.

"The heart-wood is less compact than that of the white elm, coarse-grained, and of a dull red tinge. It has been remarked, that the wood, even in branches of 1 or 2 inches in diameter, consists principally of perfect wood. It is said to be stronger, more durable when exposed to the weather, and of a better quality than the wood of the white elm, although coarser in the grain. In the United States it is accounted the best wood for blocks, and its scarcity is the only cause of its limited consumption.

"*American Lime, or Bass Wood—Tilia.*—Although several species of the lime-tree are found in North America, yet but one species flourishes in New Brunswick, which is usually called bass wood. It is generally found associated with sugar maple and white elm.

"*Bass Wood—Tilia Americana,* is sometimes more than 80 feet high, and 4 feet in diameter; and its straight uniform trunk, crowned with an ample and tufted summit, forms a beautiful tree. The leaves are alternate, large, nearly round, finely denticulated, heart-shaped at the base, and abruptly terminated in a point at the summit. The trunk is covered with a very thick bark; the inner bark, separated from the outer, and macerated in water, is formed into ropes, and also the broad plaited bands used by the Indians for carrying their burthens. They formerly made their fishing lines and nets of this bark. The name bass wood is supposed to be a corruption from *bast*, which is applied to the European lime-tree by the rustics of Lincolnshire, because ropes were made from the bark.

"The twigs and buds of the bass wood tree are very glutinous when chewed, and afford considerable nutriment. In severe winters, when fodder is scarce, the farmers in Maine and Vermont, and sometimes in New Brunswick, drive their cattle into the woods of a morning, and fell a bass wood or other tree, on which they eagerly browse during the day. In winter this tree is easily recognised by the robust appearance of the trunk and branches, and by the dark brown of the colour on the shoots.

"In newly-cleared lands the stumps of the bass wood are distinguished by the numerous sprouts which cover them, whose growth can only be prevented by stripping off the bark, or by fire. The stumps of other large trees, the elm, sugar maple, and ash, left at the same height of 3 feet, do not produce shoots. The wood, when dry, weighs 35 pounds to a cubic foot. It is very white when green, but becomes of a light brown hue when seasoned. It is soft, easily worked, and is used for the panels of carriage bodies, seats of chairs, and the fans of fanning-mills. The wood is useless as fuel, being too full of sap when green, and of but little value when dry."

The following Table may be used for finding the *ultimate* transverse strength of any rectangular beam of timber:—

Rule.—When the beam is *fixed* at one end, and loaded at the other, the weight in pounds which it will support before breaking, will be obtained by multiplying the number opposite the kind of timber in the third column of the above table, by

the breadth and square of the depth of the beam both in inches, and dividing the product by the length, also in inches.

Table of the specific gravity, weight of a cubic foot, and relative transverse strength of different kinds of wood.

Names of Materials.	Specific Gravity.	Weight of 1 cubic foot in lbs.	Transverse Strength.
Ash (English)	0.72	45.	1,500
Ash (American)	0.64	40.	1,800
Ash (American Black)	0.64	33.7	861
Ash (American Swamp)	0.92	57.6	1,165
Beech (English)	0.77	48.2	1,550
Beech (American Red)	0.78	48.7	1,720
Beech (American White)	0.71	44.4	1,380
Birch (English common)	0.71	44.4	1,820
Birch (American Black)	0.67	43.9	2,000
Birch (American White)	0.65	40.6	1,694
Birch (American Yellow)	0.70	47.5	1,335
Cedar (Bermuda)	0.75	46.8	1,443
Cedar of Lebanon	0.33	20.6	1,493
Cedar (Canadian)	0.80	50.0	—
Cedar (American White)	0.36	22.5	766
Elm (English)	0.69	36.9	1,013
Elm (Canada Rock)	0.72	46.0	1,970
Fir (Mar Forest)	0.69	43.1	1,232
Fir (New England)	0.65	34.4	1,102
Hickory (American)	0.83	51.0	2,020
Hickory (American Bitternut)	0.87	54.4	1,465
Iron-wood (Canada)	0.88	55.0	1,800
Larch (Scotch)	0.60	37.5	1,200
Larch (American Tamarack)	0.44	27.6	911
Mahogany (Nassau)	0.81	50.6	1,750
Mahogany (Honduras)	0.83	33.1	1,603
Greenheart (Demerara)	0.98	61.2	2,600
Maple (soft, Canada)	0.68	42.5	1,694
Maple (Rock American)	0.75	46.8	704
Oak (English)	0.84	52.5	1,700
Oak (American White)	0.78	48.7	1,740
Oak (American Red)	0.95	59.4	1,672
Pine (Red)	0.66	41.2	1,500
Pine (American Yellow)	0.46	28.8	1,300
Pine (American White)	0.43	26.9	1,160
Pine (American Pitch)	0.70	43.8	1,700
Spruce	0.50	31.4	1,346
Spruce (American Black)	0.77	48.2	1,036

Note 1. When the beam is *fixed* at one end and loaded uniformly throughout, the result obtained by the rule must be doubled. *Note 2.* When the beam is *fixed* at both ends and loaded in the middle, the result obtained by the rule must be multiplied by 6. *Note 3.* When the beam is *fixed* at both ends and loaded uniformly throughout, the result obtained by the rule must be multiplied by 12. *Note 4.* When the beam is *supported* at both ends and loaded in the middle, the result obtained by the rule must be quadrupled. *Note 5.* When the beam is *supported* at both ends and loaded uniformly throughout, the result obtained by the rule must be multiplied by 8. N.B.—Two-thirds of the foregoing results are reckoned fully sufficient for a permanent load.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, EDUCATION, CRIME, AND INSTITUTIONS.

WHEN New Brunswick was first known to Europeans, it appears to have been inhabited by several different nations or tribes, of whom only two are yet in existence—the Mic-Macs and the Melicetes, or Morrisettes. The Mic-Macs speak a dialect of the Iroquois (or Six Nations), Huron, and other northern tribes. The Melicetes are descended from a Delaware or southern race; but in physical appearance they differ little. Both tribes are of a copper colour, with high cheek bones, hazel eyes, long, straight, coarse, black hair, and scanty beard. They are of rather tall stature, erect, very active, not remarkable for muscular strength, but with great powers of endurance; a journey of seventy miles a-day being not unfrequently performed under a heavy burden; bears, deer, and moose, are pursued, and overtaken by them; in ascending and descending dangerous rapids, no Europeans can compete with the Indians; and the quickness of their perceptions in tracing men and animals by the trail or scent, is surprising. This latter quality the American Indian possesses in common with the Australian and other savages; but he is superior in many respects to other uncivilized races, and his ultimate extinction, which seems now inevitable, is much to be regretted. Long before the introduction of Europeans the savage and exterminating warfare carried on between the different tribes, was fast thinning their numbers; but the small pox and other diseases communicated by Europeans, and the supply of spirits, in the use of which the Indian can exercise no moderation, have caused their rapid and almost complete extermination. The total number in the province was in 1841, of Mic-Macs, 935; of Melicetes, 442 = 1,377. Both tribes are scattered in families in different parts of the province, and many wander about in poverty and wretchedness; 14 tracts of land, containing 61,273 acres of land, have been set aside by government as Indian reserves for their use. Most of them have been nominally converted to the Roman Catholic faith, and no efforts have been spared by the British

government to protect and civilize the aborigines of the country. Although both tribes inhabit the same country, their language is totally distinct. The Lord's prayer in each language is as follows:—

The Lord's Prayer in the Mic-Mac Language.

Nooreh enen waa-soke abin, chip-took, talwee-sin me-gay-day-de mek. Waa-soke-te-lee-daa-nen chip-took igga nam-wit oo-la ne-moo-lek naa-dee la tay se-nen. Naa-tel waa-soke ai-keek chip-took ta-lee-ska-doolek ma-ga-mi guek ay e-mek. Tel-la-moo-koo-he-ne-gal es-me-a gul opch nega-a-tai kees-took igga-nam-win nes-el-co-nen. Ta-lee a-bik-chik-ta-kaa-chik wi-gai-nee-na-met-nick elk-keel-nees-kaam a-bik chic-too-in el-wa-wool-ti-jeek. Mel-kee-nin mnach win-chee-gul mook-ta-gaa-lin hees-e-na waam-kil win-chee-gukil ko qui-ak too-ack-too-in.—*Quebec Version.*

The Lord's Prayer in the Melicete Language.

Me-tox-sen-aa spum-keek ay-e-en saga-mow-oo tel-mox-se'en tel-e-wee-so-teek. Cheeptooke wee-chee-u leek spum-keektaun e-too-cheesauk-too leek spum-a kay-e'en. Too-cep-nankna-meen kes-e kees-kaah-keel wek-a gulceek el-me-kees-kaak keel-mets-min a-woolee. Ma-hate-moo-in ka-tee a-lee-wa-nay-ool-te-ek el mas we-che-a keel meecke-may-keel neme-hate-hum-too-mooin.

Each tribe has laws peculiar to itself, but a grand council is held annually at Pleasant Point, on the St. Croix river, of chiefs and delegates of the Penobscots, Mic-Macs, and Melicetes, where friendly relations are renewed; regulations to prevent collision in hunting and fishing established; and measures for the general weal discussed and adopted. They say that the "Great Spirit" has permitted the "pale faces" to come into the country to kill the game, catch fish, and cut down trees, but that they are the lords of the soil, and the rightful owners of the land, the water, and the sky. Their belief in a resurrection is manifested by their burying with the dead the implements and trinkets he used on earth, and which, they believe, he will require in another world.

The early European settlers in the province were composed of American loyalists, who exiled themselves from their native country, in order to remain subjects of the crown of Britain. In 1783, 3,000 of these meritorious people arrived at St. John's from Nantucket, and joined a few families, who had migrated from New England in 1762, and settled at Mangerville, on the St. John's

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	Transverse Strength
5.	1,500
10.	1,800
15.	801
20.	1,165
25.	1,556
30.	1,720
35.	1,380
40.	1,820
45.	2,000
50.	1,604
55.	1,335
60.	1,443
65.	1,493
70.	—
75.	786
80.	1,013
85.	1,970
90.	1,232
95.	1,102
100.	2,020
105.	1,465
110.	1,800
115.	1,200
120.	911
125.	1,750
130.	1,503
135.	2,600
140.	1,694
145.	704
150.	1,700
155.	1,740
160.	1,872
165.	1,600
170.	1,300
175.	1,160
180.	1,700
185.	1,346
190.	1,036

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river. These were joined by others, and by disbanded soldiers from provincial regiments, and subsequently by emigrants from Europe and by some Acadians. The hardships endured by the early inhabitants were very great—famine and cold caused much misery, but the energies of the Anglo-Saxon race carried them through all difficulties, until, in the language of Dr. Gesner, they have "finally covered the banks of the noble St. John with rich fields, villages, and cities."

The population has thus increased since 1783—

1783	11,457	1824	74,176
1803	27,000	1834	119,457
1817	35,000	1840	156,162

The estimated population of New Brunswick at the beginning of 1848, was 208,012, distributed as follows:—County of Ristigouche, 4,214; Gloucester, 10,334; Northumberland, 19,493; Kent, 9,769; Westmoreland, and Albert, 23,581; King's, 19,285; St. John, 43,942; Queen's, 10,976; Sunbury, 5,680; York, 18,660; Carleton, 17,841; Charlotte, 24,237. Between 1834 and 1848, in the space of 14 years, the population has been nearly doubled; not, however, by births only, but also by emigration. Yet there is abundant room, and, indeed, great lack of fresh settlers, for there are nearly 80 acres of area to each mouth in the province.

Comparative Statements of the Increase of the Population since the Year 1824.

Counties	Total of persons in the year 1824.	Counties.	Total of persons in the year 1834.	Increase.	Counties.	Total of persons in the year 1840.	Increase.
York	10,972	York	10,478	8,999	York	13,995	3,517
Saint John	12,907	Carleton	9,493	7,761	Carleton	13,381	3,888
King's	4,930	Saint John	20,665	4,265	Saint John	32,937	12,269
Queen's	4,741	King's	12,195	2,463	King's	14,404	2,260
Sunbury	3,227	Queen's	7,204	611	Queen's	8,232	1,028
Westmoreland	9,303	Sunbury	8,838	4,902	Sunbury	4,200	422
Northumberland	16,829	Westmoreland	14,205	11,170	Westmoreland	17,686	3,481
		Northumberland	11,170	9,695	Northumberland	14,620	3,450
		Kent	6,031	7,761	Kent	7,477	1,446
		Gloucester	6,223	6,585	Gloucester	7,761	2,689
Charlotte	9,267	Charlotte	15,852		Ristigouche	3,161	
Grand Total in 1824	74,176	Grand Total in 1834	119,457	45,281	Charlotte	18,178	2,326
					Grand Total in 1840	156,162	36,705

The paucity of inhabitants in some counties is remarkable: in Ristigouche there were in 1840, *four hundred acres* of area to each inhabitant; in Northumberland, *two hundred and three*; in York, *one hundred and sixty-four*; in Kent, *one hundred and thirty-eight*; and in Gloucester, *one hundred and thirty-five*. New Brunswick might, with ease, sustain ten times its present population.

The society at St. John's and Fredericton is composed of the civil and military servants of the crown, professional men, and merchants, who constitute the basis of colonial society in all our settlements; and are distinguished by the courtesy and intelligence which mark the same class in England. In the middle and lower classes, the habits and manners of the United States predominate; but all classes unite in loyalty to their sovereign, and attachment to the parent state. The number of charitable institutions—the efforts made for the diffusion of instruction—and the attention paid to the ordinances of religion, indicate the benevolence and piety of the people.

The women of New Brunswick are generally handsome, and of a fair complexion; the higher class are well educated, and often highly accomplished.

Form of Government.—Similar to that of Canada and Nova Scotia. The affairs of the province are administered, for the sovereign, by a lieutenant-governor, aided by an executive council, consisting of 8 members; a legislative council of 17 members; and a House of Assembly of 39 representatives of the people.

The different Assemblies or Parliaments of New Brunswick have been as follows:—

Time of Meeting.	Time of Dissolution.
1786 3rd Jan.	1792 7th Dec.
1793 12th Feb.	1795 24th Dec.
1796 9th Feb.	1802 10th May
1803 9th Feb.	1809 11th July
1810 27th Jan.	1816 20th July
1817 4th Feb.	1819 24th March
1820 2nd Feb.	1820 15th May
1821 13th Jan.	1827 24th May
1828 14th Feb.	1830 13th Sept.
1831 7th Jan.	1834 7th Nov.
1835 20th Jan.	1837 18th Aug.
1837 29th Dec.	1842 1st Dec.
1843 31st Jan.	1840 16th Sept.
1847 28th Jan.	

CENSUS OF NEW BRUNSWICK IN 1840.

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Population of the Province of New Brunswick in the year 1840, according to the latest Census taken by direction of the Provincial Legislature.

City, County, or District.	Inhabited Houses.	Whites.				People of Colour.				Total of Persons.	Church of England.	Places of Worship.				Estimated quantity of cleared Land. Acres.
		Males above 16.	Males under 16.	Females above 16.	Females under 16.	Males above 16.	Males under 16.	Females above 16.	Females under 16.			Presbyterian.	Methodist.	Baptist.	Roman Catholic.	
YORK.—																
Fredericton, City	480	1,061	829	1,166	798	26	43	48	29	4,002	2	2	1	1	1	1,996
St. Mary	318	610	530	460	523	3	3	3	1	2,158	2	2	1	1	1	6,117
Douglas	424	656	650	656	634	30	22	30	13	2,530	1	0	0	0	0	9,038
Kingsclear	292	464	419	386	417	25	28	35	26	1,792	1	0	0	0	0	11,907
Queensbury	182	306	279	234	245	12	15	20	13	1,144	1	0	0	0	0	7,007
Prince William	149	256	254	193	213	6	4	7	10	942	1	0	0	0	0	3,820
Southampton	85	167	146	120	142	0	0	0	0	575	0	0	0	0	0	2,241
Dumfries	116	219	188	158	187	0	0	0	0	762	1	0	0	0	0	3,402
CARLTON.—																
Woodstock	492	906	759	769	745	3	2	2	1	3,186	3	1	1	1	1	9,757
Northampton	76	138	138	124	109	1	0	0	0	608	0	0	0	0	0	1,770
Kent	61	122	133	88	117	6	3	2	2	473	0	0	0	0	0	2,008
Brighton	170	305	337	264	294	0	0	0	0	1,200	0	0	1	1	2	4,842
Perth	64	105	86	74	95	2	0	0	0	362	0	0	0	0	0	1,283
Wicklow	115	209	180	168	198	0	0	0	0	744	0	0	0	0	0	2,500
Wakefield	330	612	611	611	659	8	6	6	6	2,538	0	0	0	3	3	6,850
Andover	87	184	147	119	137	0	0	0	0	687	0	0	1	1	1	2,643
Madawaska	542	975	1,000	862	1,034	2	0	0	0	3,963	0	0	0	3	3	18,500
SAINT JOHN.—																
City of Saint John—North District	700	2,643	1,982	2,920	1,890	20	10	37	14	6,516	2	1	1	1	1	0
South District	719	2,440	2,079	2,784	1,337	73	66	121	63	9,765	0	1	1	1	2	0
Parish of Portland	455	1,733	1,322	1,825	1,339	11	7	15	6	5,207	0	0	1	1	0	1,071
" Carleton	158	387	327	369	327	4	10	7	4	1,435	1	0	0	0	0	9c
" Lancaster	219	426	381	367	351	24	21	25	17	1,602	1	0	1	0	0	4,446
" Saint Martin's	264	640	465	438	460	0	0	0	0	1,373	0	0	0	1	1	4,635
" Simonds—North District	211	345	291	276	253	30	16	46	17	1,274	2	2	0	0	1	5,311
" " South District	176	359	221	254	239	21	23	30	23	1,185	0	0	0	0	0	3,581
KING'S.—																
Kingston	303	545	457	620	465	5	5	8	4	2,009	2	1	1	1	1	7,516
Sussex	342	692	613	622	606	17	12	11	5	2,178	1	0	1	1	0	10,960
Hampton	278	656	478	476	445	10	4	4	0	2,072	2	1	1	1	0	8,914
Norton	159	295	242	256	190	10	9	9	6	1,017	1	1	1	1	0	5,101
Westfield	228	402	454	377	416	5	0	3	4	1,601	1	1	1	1	0	6,298
Springfield	268	426	428	419	423	7	6	4	8	1,733	1	1	2	0	0	9,513
Greenwich	180	287	255	291	236	2	4	2	3	1,080	1	0	0	0	0	6,450
Stutholm	305	685	550	441	409	1	1	0	0	1,988	1	0	1	2	0	12,394
Upham	135	69	250	188	217	1	0	1	0	726	1	1	0	2	0	3,302
QUEEN'S.—																
Gagetown	117	234	192	229	186	6	1	9	8	865	1	0	0	1	0	3,825
Canning	120	265	213	235	238	0	0	0	0	952	1	0	1	2	0	3,366
Wickham	198	306	314	263	318	0	0	0	0	1,201	0	0	2	1	0	8,802
Waterborough	172	354	302	325	322	8	8	4	6	1,329	1	0	0	2	0	7,774
Brunswick	83	62	57	53	48	0	0	0	0	220	0	0	0	0	0	964
Hampstead	131	233	191	190	229	8	11	8	9	879	1	0	0	0	0	6,709
Johnston	155	294	214	243	279	0	0	0	0	1,030	0	0	0	0	1	5,710
Petersville	146	222	232	186	214	0	0	0	0	855	1	0	0	1	0	4,459
Chipman	132	246	239	181	227	1	3	2	2	900	0	0	0	0	0	1,810
SOMERSET.—																
Maugerville	79	145	129	146	135	0	1	0	0	556	1	0	1	1	0	2,205
Sheffield	140	305	275	254	290	4	2	4	1	1,134	1	1	0	0	0	3,234
Burton	157	325	304	264	249	0	0	0	2	1,444	1	0	0	0	1	3,101
Lincoln	78	166	162	138	136	0	0	1	0	693	0	0	0	0	0	2,580
Blissville	119	235	224	163	191	0	0	0	0	833	0	0	0	0	0	1,193
WESTMORELAND.—																
Dorchester	417	760	805	770	733	0	1	1	2	3,067	1	0	1	1	1	17,207
Sackville	329	668	573	581	537	2	1	3	1	2,366	1	0	3	1	0	15,924
Westmoreland	186	343	347	335	365	11	12	6	17	1,436	1	1	2	1	0	10,020
Boxford	265	436	463	406	469	0	2	1	0	1,767	0	1	1	1	2	10,390
Shediac	478	469	614	428	498	0	2	1	6	1,900	1	0	0	1	0	6,470
Moncton	202	391	414	339	385	0	0	0	0	1,629	0	0	0	0	0	7,076
Salisbury	212	378	368	333	347	0	0	0	0	1,426	0	0	1	3	0	7,454
Coverdale	83	167	160	164	130	2	0	2	0	625	0	0	1	0	0	5,110
Hillsborough	145	263	263	245	241	0	0	0	0	1,632	0	0	1	1	0	6,623
Hopewell	132	259	288	230	244	0	0	0	0	1,021	0	0	1	4	0	6,722
Harvey	218	368	405	359	376	0	0	0	0	1,488	0	0	0	2	1	7,908

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18,381 3,288
32,957 12,980
14,494 2,269
1,232 1,028
4,260 422
17,686 3,481
14,820 3,450
7,477 1,416
7,761 2,589
3,161 2,236
18,178 2,326
166,162 36,705

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7th Dec.
24th Dec.
10th May
11th July
20th July
24th March
15th May
24th May
13th Sept.
7th Nov.
18th Aug.
1st Dec.
16th Sept.

PLACES OF WORSHIP, LAND CLEARED, &c.

Population of the Province of New Brunswick in the year 1840, according to the latest Census taken by direction of the Provincial Legislature—(continued.)

City, County, or District.	Inhabited Houses.	Whites.				People of Colour.				Total of Persons.	Places of Worship.						Estimated quantity of cleared Land. Acres
		Males above 16.	Males under 16.	Females above 16.	Females under 16.	Males above 16.	Males under 16.	Females above 16.	Females under 16.		Church of England.	Presbyterian.	Methodist.	Baptist.	Roman Catholic.	Other Denominations.	
NORTHUMBERLAND.—																	
Newcastle	404	833	679	720	779	2	0	0	0	3,013	0	1	1	0	0	0	2,000
Chatham	441	1,118	768	862	749	4	1	1	0	3,693	2	2	1	0	1	0	3,660
Ladlow	81	208	117	131	147	0	0	0	0	699	0	0	0	0	1	0	1,828
Northesk	220	422	394	330	430	1	0	0	0	1,577	0	0	0	0	1	0	3,103
Alnwick	136	288	230	243	257	0	0	0	0	1,027	0	0	0	0	3	0	2,011
Blissfield	68	182	136	105	122	0	0	0	0	645	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,333
Blackville	106	415	347	263	330	2	0	0	0	1,387	1	1	0	1	0	0	3,048
Glenoil	237	389	297	272	289	0	0	0	0	1,351	1	2	0	0	1	0	2,828
Nelson	253	601	426	362	357	2	0	0	0	1,648	0	1	0	0	1	0	3,624
KENT.—																	
Riehubecto	315	582	506	488	511	1	0	0	0	2,088	1	1	2	0	2	0	4,563
Carleton	220	538	413	840	353	0	0	0	0	1,644	0	1	1	0	3	0	3,735
Wellington	237	477	292	374	369	0	0	0	0	1,462	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,729
Dundas	173	281	221	221	303	0	0	0	0	1,182	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,342
Weldford	192	311	289	224	304	0	1	1	0	1,130	1	1	0	0	1	0	4,104
Huskison, (without population)																	
Harcourt																	
GLOUCESTER.—																	
Summers	228	368	43	410	380	0	0	0	0	1,591	0	0	0	2	0	0	1,775
Caracut	206	616	564	561	561	0	0	0	0	2,076	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,295
New Bandon	112	174	196	148	138	0	0	0	0	1,090	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,270
Beresford	168	292	324	283	315	0	0	0	0	1,214	0	0	0	0	2	0	1,558
Bathurst	291	694	491	476	610	0	0	0	0	2,171	1	1	1	0	1	0	2,822
RISTIGOUCHE.—																	
Dalhousie	136	486	233	189	181	4	1	2	2	1,995	0	1	0	0	0	0	2,168
Addington	121	254	190	173	183	2	1	0	1	814	0	0	0	0	0	0	532
Burham	85	164	140	108	136	0	0	0	0	636	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,500
Colborne	76	140	133	109	118	0	0	0	0	690	0	0	0	1	0	0	1,520
Eldon	8	201	6	6	6	0	0	0	0	216	0	0	0	0	0	0	27
CHARLOTTE.—																	
Saint Andrew's	609	912	924	956	847	8	13	17	6	3,682	1	1	1	1	1	0	5,509
Saint Stephen's	496	932	816	864	794	0	0	0	0	3,495	3	1	3	0	1	0	4,225
Saint David	171	495	410	391	465	0	0	0	0	1,959	1	0	1	0	1	0	4,586
Saint George	363	600	569	631	614	0	0	0	0	2,422	1	1	2	1	0	0	4,097
Saint Patrick	224	613	537	411	552	0	0	0	0	2,013	1	1	1	1	1	0	5,260
Saint James	170	327	290	282	256	0	0	0	0	1,166	1	1	0	0	0	0	4,489
Pennfield	168	285	265	233	260	0	0	0	0	1,045	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,255
Grand Manan	164	259	273	238	233	0	0	0	0	1,093	1	0	0	0	0	1	2,671
West Isles	175	226	398	287	304	1	0	2	0	1,128	0	0	0	2	0	0	1,607
Campo Bello	111	170	187	180	173	0	0	0	0	718	1	0	0	0	0	0	1,000
Summary.—																	
County of York	2,006	3,747	3,294	3,341	3,168	104	116	49	92	13,995	10	2	6	10	2	1	44,818
" Carleton	1,917	3,553	3,520	2,970	3,273	22	14	10	8	13,381	3	1	2	4	4	0	40,563
" Saint John	2,806	8,993	7,078	9,223	6,896	133	158	261	145	32,567	8	5	4	4	5	0	10,314
" King's	2,178	3,856	3,637	3,490	3,307	58	43	43	30	14,464	11	3	6	12	2	0	69,452
" Queen's	1,168	2,216	1,954	1,908	2,061	23	23	25	25	9,232	5	0	1	7	2	4	43,089
" Sunbury	573	1,165	1,094	985	1,001	4	3	5	3	4,280	2	1	1	1	0	3	12,262
" Westmorland	2,457	4,486	4,600	4,170	4,360	16	18	14	23	17,688	4	2	11	13	6	0	69,022
" Northumberland	2,937	4,280	3,586	3,238	3,569	11	1	2	0	14,620	4	2	2	3	1	0	25,323
" Kent	1,110	2,189	1,732	1,576	1,876	1	1	2	0	7,477	2	3	2	3	0	0	20,413
" Gloucester	1,086	2,034	2,003	1,778	1,941	0	0	0	0	7,751	1	1	0	0	0	0	11,681
" Ristigouche	462	1,235	706	681	627	0	2	2	3	3,101	0	0	0	0	1	0	6,570
" Charlotte	2,622	4,637	4,576	4,473	4,436	12	13	24	5	18,178	11	6	8	4	9	0	35,135
Total	20,514	42,470	37,393	37,887	38,501	439	389	549	334	150,162	61	52	14	61	51	21	435,861

REMARKS.—County of York—In the estimation of the cleared Land, the Town Plot of Fredericton is not included; there are in the Parish of Douglas three Out Mills. County of Carleton—There is in the Parish of Northampton one Out Mill not included in the above return. County of Westmorland—The Parish of Dochester has three first-rate Out Mills. Of the estimated quantity of cleared land, 4,891 acres are dyked marsh. The Parish of Sackville—of the estimated quantity of cleared land 765 acres are dyked marsh. The Parish of Moncton—of the estimated quantity of cleared land, 1,934 acres are dyked marsh. County of Ristigouche—No return has been made of the Population of the Lumbering Districts, or of a very large portion of the labouring class in this county, which may be safely estimated at from 1,200 to 1,600 Males above 16 years of age. County of Charlotte—Nearly 200 of the Male Population of the parish of West Isles were at sea at the time of taking the census, and are consequently not included in the above return.

Military Defences.—An excellent militia, consisting of a regiment of yeomanry *cavalry*, of 10 complete troops stationed in different counties; 3 separate troops of cavalry; a regiment of artillery, with a lieutenant-colonel, 2 majors, 9 captains, 8 first and 7 second lieutenants and staff; 18 regiments of militia divided into battalions, and including light infantry and rifle corps. The militia commissions comprise 63 field officers, 380 captains, 786 subalterns, 120 staff, 1,030 sergeants, 60 drummers, and 27,200 rank and file.

The militia, by the military act of 17th March, 1825, are liable to be called out three days in each year—one for general muster, and two for company drill. They were only called out one day in 1848. The organization of the militia is complete, and a number of volunteer companies at St. John, Fredericton, and other places, are armed and trained. The sports of the country have made many of the militia excellent marksmen, and, as in Canada, they would be formidable adversaries to an invader.

The annual expenses of the militia are—salary of adjutant-general, £85; quarter-master-general, £150; to each adjutant, £15 (£510); and £7 10s. to each sergeant-major (£250); total, £1,000.

The military posts at New Brunswick are—

Military Posts.	Barracks for—	
	Officers.	Men.
St John	14	632
Fredericton	20	439
St. Andrew's	—	30
Peggle	4	104

The pecuniary allowances, expense for rations, quarters, or other advantages, are provided by the colony. There is a bounty of £5 allowed by the Provincial Legislature for the apprehension of deserters from her majesty's forces, provided the amount do not exceed £100 per annum.

The Judicial Department comprises a Supreme Court, with a chief and three puisne judges; a court of Chancery, one of marriage and divorce, and one for the trial of offences committed at sea—over these three courts the lieutenant-governor presides; a court of vice-admiralty, and one of probate. There are commissioners of bankrupts' estates. The "Barristers Society" numbers 57 members; the roll of barristers and attorneys in 1849 contained 155 names. In British America both branches of the law are practised by the same individual.

Ecclesiastical Department in 1849.

Denomination.	Number of Clergy.	No. of Churches.	No. of Chapels.	No. of Reading Places.	Church Accommodation.	Generally Attending.	Parsonages.	Clebs							
Church of England in 1847	1 Bishop 1 Archdeacon 33 Rectors 8 Curates	61	17,920	Unknown.	20							
Church of Rome in 1846	1 Bishop 24 Priests								60	37,000	32,300	28	21
Church of Scotland in 1847	8 Ministers														
Wesleyan Methodists in 1847	21 Ministers 33 Local Preachers	57	22,500
Baptists in 1846	41 Ministers	65	26,000	19,290								

There are also about 12 ministers of the Presbyterian church in New Brunswick, and of the Reformed Presbyterian church; and there are 4 Congregational ministers. There is a Church and an Auxiliary Bible Society. The protestant diocese of Fredericton was created in 1845. The clergy of the Established Church derive their principal support from the "Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts." The livings are from £200 to £300 currency. There are about 90 parishes and 60 churches, capable of holding 20,000 persons. Dr.

Gesner says, that double the number of clergymen of the Established Church could be advantageously employed. The Roman Catholic diocese includes Prince Edward Island. The Roman Catholics are principally the Irish and Acadians; their clergy are supported by subscriptions, fees, pew-rents, and tithes. The Presbyterian church was established by ministers sent from Scotland in 1817; they have churches in different counties, and with large congregations. The Wesleyans are a numerous and respectable body. Their ministers are paid

by dice-

Estimated quantity of cleared Land.

Acres

0	0	2,000
0	0	3,660
0	1	1,626
1	1	3,103
0	3	2,011
0	0	2,333
1	0	3,049
0	0	3,828
0	1	3,824
0	2	4,563
0	8	3,736
0	0	4,423
0	2	3,162
0	1	4,104
0	0	1,775
0	0	325
0	0	2,270
0	2	1,558
1	1	2,822
0	0	2,168
0	0	832
0	0	1,032
0	0	1,524
0	0	27
1	1	5,509
3	1	4,225
1	0	4,586
1	1	4,097
2	1	5,266
1	0	4,489
0	0	2,255
0	1	2,671
0	2	1,607
0	0	1,060
5	10	44,818
2	4	49,963
3	4	10,154
6	2	69,462
1	7	43,089
1	1	12,262
11	13	99,422
2	2	25,326
4	0	20,418
1	0	11,661
0	0	5,579
6	8	35,135
14	61	214,955,861

is not included: Northampton one three first-rate Det ckville—of the esti- quantity of cleared tion of the Lumber- mated at from 1,200 the parish of West

as highly as those of the Established Church, according to their being married or unmarried, to the number of their children, and to their length of service in the ministry. The Baptists are divided into several sects, but they are generally serious and well-conducted. Their established faith is contained in 17 articles, and they meet annually to adopt regulations for the preservation of harmony. "Camp meetings" are occasionally held in New Brunswick, and on the United States frontier.

EDUCATION is carefully and judiciously extended. The university of King's College, at Fredericton, established in 1828, by Sir Howard Douglas, has for its patron the Queen, and is well supplied with professors in different branches of literature and science. For superior degrees, the terms and exercises correspond with those of the English universities. The religious exercises are those of the Church of England, and candidates for degrees in divinity are required to subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles of the church. The college is endowed with 6,000 acres of valuable land, near Fredericton, has a grant from the crown of £1,000 sterling per annum, and £1,000 from the Provincial Legislature. Scholarships of £20 and £25 have been founded, and are given to students of merit. The expense of tuition and board is about £35 currency per annum. Candidates for matriculation are required to be acquainted with the Latin and Greek languages, and the rudiments of algebra and geometry. The instruction is devoted to the classics, mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, natural history, intellectual philosophy, logic, and the evidences of religion, natural and revealed; moral philosophy, general history, Hebrew, theology, and French. The academical year has four terms; and four years are required for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. There is no distinction in reference to religious profession, age, or otherwise. There is a collegiate school at Fredericton, which educates boys preparatory to matriculation. The Wesleyans and Baptists have each a superior academy for instruction. There are grammar and parish schools in each county: the supervision of the former is vested in a board of trustees, appointed by the lieutenant-governor and council, and the general management of the latter is, by an act of the House of Assembly (10 Vict., ch. 56), vested in the lieutenant-governor and council, as a board of education. Nine

schools is the average number permitted to be established for each parish; but the number may be increased to thirteen, provided the whole number in the county to which the parish belongs does not exceed the established average. The government allowance to teachers in the parish schools is, per annum, £30 first class, £22 second class, and £18 third class. The emoluments of the teachers, exclusive of the government allowance, range from £20 to £100 per annum.

Public Schools in New Brunswick.

Counties.	Gram. Schools.		Parish Schools.				Total Scholars.	
	Number.	Scholars.	Teachers.		Scholars.			
			M.	F.	M.	F.		
York	1	76	60	17	11	944	941	1785
St. John	1	69	48	39	0	1560	960	2510
Charlotte	1	69	69	14	25	1206	920	2132
King's	1	30	64	50	14	1096	835	1931
Queen's	1	15	47	43	4	661	610	1171
Sunbury	1	50	25	17	6	352	334	716
Carleton	1	31	35	30	6	418	338	756
Restigouche	1	38	13	10	3	150	141	291
Gloucester	1	72	24	14	10	324	335	659
Northumberland	2	—	53	46	7	1086	861	1947
Kent	—	—	35	29	6	473	376	850
Westmoreland	—	—	71	56	15	1061	900	1961
Albert	1	42	27	18	9	386	323	709
Total	11	486	571	415	136	9737	7680	17993

The Press.—There are eight printing-offices, whence issue eight newspapers, conducted with ability; but occasionally, as may be supposed, with considerable party acrimony. The *New Brunswick Courier*, and *Royal Gazette*, contain much valuable local and statistical information. All the towns have libraries, more or less extensive. The *New Brunswick Almanack and Register*, prepared under the superintendence of the Fredericton Athenaeum, is one of the fullest and most complete publications of the kind in the British empire. Music and drawing are cultivated to a certain degree; and there are occasionally lectures on astronomy, chemistry, elocution, and the belles-lettres. In St. John's, St. Andrew's, and Fredericton, there are public reading-rooms, where all the leading British and foreign newspapers and periodicals are regularly received.

CRIME.—The number of *felons*, in 1848, in prison, was—of *tried*, whites, males, 31; females, 2; blacks, males, 2; females, 1. *Untried*—whites, males, 5; females, 1; blacks, males, 1. *Misdemeanors*—*tried*—whites, males, 32; females, 14; blacks, males, 2; females, 2. *Untried*—whites, males, 4; females,

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS,—LUNATIC ASYLUM, NEW BRUNSWICK. 259

1; blacks, females, 1. *Debtors*—whites, males, 45; females, 2; blacks, males, 1. The total number of prisoners in confinement at Michaelmas, 1848, was—whites, males, 115; females, 19; blacks, males, 6; females, 4. Greatest number in confinement at any one time in the year—whites, males, 149; females, 27; blacks, males, 3; females, 6. The prisoners are kept at hard labour in and out of gaol. Of the white prisoners, the number who could not read, were—males, 28; females, 1. The number under 18 years of age, were—males, 14; females, 1. There were no deaths in the prisons of New Brunswick during the year. There is a gaol in each county, which is under the jurisdiction of the sheriff and magistrates of the county, who visit the prison from time to time. There is no fixed system of management or discipline.

marine hospital, into which the admissions, during 1847, were—with fever, 223; other diseases and accidents, 230=486. The deaths during the year were 29, of whom 13 were from fever, 6 from inflammation of the lungs, 2 from dysentery, and the remainder from other diseases. 409 patients were discharged cured. The expense of the hospital during the year was £2,116, including £303 for the purchase of land; buildings and mason-work, £536; labour, cartage, &c., £165. There were 10,939 diets during the year, which cost only £301. There is a lazaretto on Sheldrake Island, Miramichi, which costs £600 a-year. There have been, for some time, 9 lepers on the island—4 men, 1 boy, and 4 women.

There is a provincial lunatic asylum, which, in 1847, contained 140 patients, classed as follows:—

Public Institutions.—There is an excellent

Patients.	Age.							Total.
	10 to 20.	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.	70 to 80.	
Males	5	25	23	18	5	0	0	76
Females	0	21	18	14	1	3	1	64
Total	11	46	41	32	6	3	1	140

The Record shows .—

Patients.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Discharged.		Eloped.	Died.	Remaining.
				Cured.	Uncured.			
Old Cases in Asylum 1st January 1847	39	39	78	13	1	2	3	59
Admitted in 1847, and Re-admissions	47	20	73	34	0	1	5	33
Total	86	65	151	47	1	3	8	92

Character of disease on admission—ordinary insanity, 109; epileptic insanity, 7; delirium tremens, 8; imbecility, 4; furious madness, 7; idiocy, 2; hydrophobia, 1; brain fever, 1; paralysis, 1. Total, 140.

The admissions from the different counties were, St. John's, 77; Charlotte, 21; King's, 14; York, 13; Carleton, 7; Northumberland, 7; Westmoreland, 5; Gloucester, 3; Sunbury, 3; Kent, 1. Total, 151. Expenditure for the year, £1,627. Average annual number of patients, 84; keepers, 12. Average cost per head, weekly, of patients alone, including all expenses, 7.5 per head.

Among the institutions of the city of St. John's is a Chamber of Commerce, a Sailors' Home, Mechanics' Institute, a District Committee of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, a Religious Tract Society, an Orphan Benevolent Society, a Sacred Music

Society, Ladies' Benevolent Society, *Young Ladies' Total Abstinence Society*, and St. John's Auxiliary to the New British and Foreign Temperance Society (on the total abstinence principle).

The gradual increase of lunacy, in New Brunswick, is shown by the admissions into the asylum between 1836 and 1846:—

Years.	Admitted.	In Asylum 1st Jan.	Total.	Remaining Dec. 31
1836	31	—	31	14
1837	40	14	61	21
1838	29	21	50	21
1839	39	21	60	24
1840	48	94	72	40
1841	68	40	108	54
1842	43	21	97	52
1843	47	52	99	56
1844	60	56	116	69
1845	50	69	119	91
1846	62	74	136	78

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Scholars.	Total Scholars.	
	M.	F.
4	941	1785
50	909	2510
96	926	2132
96	835	1931
61	510	1171
82	334	718
18	338	756
50	141	291
24	335	650
86	861	1947
73	376	850
661	900	1061
386	323	709
737	7680	17903

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CHAPTER IV.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, TARIFF OF DUTIES, BANKS AND COINS, COMMERCE, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, STAPLE PRODUCTS, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, AND FISHERIES, BANKS, MONIES, PRICES OF COMMODITIES, WAGES OF LABOUR, &c.

REVENUE.—In 1727, the public income of the province was, in round numbers, £742; in 1789, £962; in 1794, £1,569; in 1803, £3,731; in 1814, £25,878; in 1827, £34,000; in 1837, £60,000; and in 1847, £127,000. Estimating the permanent revenue at £120,000, and the present population at 220,000, the taxation is not much more than 10s. per head annually.

Comparative Statement of the Revenue of New Brunswick, and the sources whence derived, in the years 1840 and 1847.

Sources of Revenue.	1846.	1847.
Ordinary revenue	47,774	50,287
Export duty	22,664	16,553
Received from customs	30,961	31,012
Casual revenue	7,600	9,600
Loan fund	8,281	9,571
Supreme court fees	454	792
Auction dues	407	246
Pedlars' licences	45	27
Emigrant duties	2,120	3,250
Light-house ditto	4,817	3,700
Sick and disbanded seamen	2,230	1,566
Total (less shillings and pence)	£127,320	127,410

In 1848, there was a considerable diminution in the revenue of the province, owing to commercial embarrassment, and especially to the depression in the timber and deal trade. The debt of the province is about £80,000. The emigrant tax is levied at the rate of 5s. per head, and appropriated to the benefit of all immigrants. The custom duties are levied under the authority of a Revenue Act, passed in New Brunswick, 30th March, 1848, which imposes a tariff of discriminating duties, in favour of British and colonial produce, growth or manufacture, compared with foreign. This tariff was adopted after the "free import" system of England was enforced, and indicates the desire of the colonists to view England as the parent state. In Canada and Nova Scotia no distinction has been made in the duties levied, on British, and on foreign products. [See Canada Tariff, vol. 1, p. 145.]

It will be seen by the following table, that the discriminating duties are as high as 100, 200, and 300 per cent. in favour of England:—
Tariff of Duties in the Province of New Brunswick, under the Revenue Act, passed 30th March, 1848.

Articles subject to Duty.	On British and Colonial produce, growth, or manufacture.	On Foreign produce, growth, or manufacture.
<i>Specific.</i>		
Apples, per bushel	£ 0 0 0	£ 0 0 6
Butter, per cwt.	0 4 6	0 9 0
Candles of all kinds, except sperm and wax, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 1½
Sperm and wax, per lb.	0 0 3	0 0 4
Cattle of all kinds over one year old	1 0 0	2 0 0
Cheese, per cwt.	0 3 0	0 6 0
Clocks or clock cases of all kinds, each	0 6 0	0 16 0
Coffee, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 1½
Fish of foreign taking or curing, dried or wax, per lb.	Free.	0 2 6
Pickled, per barrel	Free.	0 5 0
Fruit, dried, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 7 6
Horses, mares, and geldings, each	2 0 0	3 0 0
Leather, sole, per lb.	0 0 1½	0 0 2½
Upper leather, per lb.	9 0 1½	0 0 3½
Harness and belt leather, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 2½
Sheep skins, tanned and dressed, per doz.	0 2 6	0 3 0
Calf skins, tanned, per doz.	0 2 6	0 6 0
Malt liquors of every description (not being aqua vita, otherwise charged with duty), whether in bottles or otherwise, per gallon	0 0 3	0 0 6
Meats, fresh, per cwt.	0 4 2	0 6 3
" salted and cured, per cwt.	0 2 6	0 5 0
Molasses and treacle, per gallon	0 0 1	0 0 3
Spirits and cordials, viz. :— Brandy, per gallon	0 3 0	0 3 0
Rum and other spirits, and cordials: For every gallon of such rum or other spirits or cordials of any strength, under and not exceeding the strength of proof of 26 in the bubble	0 1 0	0 1 2
And for every bubble below 26 in number, an additional, per gal.	0 0 2	0 0 2
Lemon syrup, per gal.	0 1 0	0 1 0
Sugar, refined, in loaves, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 2
" refined, crushed, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 10 0
" of all kinds, except refined and crushed, per cwt.	0 2 6	0 0 0
Tea, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 2
Tobacco, manufactured, except Snuff and cigars, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 1
Wines, per gallon	0 3 0	0 3 0
Wheat flour, per barrel	0 1 0	0 2 0
<i>Ad-valorem.</i>		
On the following articles, for every one hundred pounds of the true and real value thereof, videlicet:		
Boots, shoes, and other leather manufactures	4 0 0	30 0 0
Carriages, waggons, sleighs, and other vehicles	4 0 0	30 0 0

TARIFF OF NEW BRUNSWICK. GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE. 261

Articles subject to Duty.	On British.	On Foreign.
Chairs, and prepared parts of or for chairs; clock wheels, machinery and materials for clocks; household furniture (except the property of passengers and emigrants, for their own use, and not intended for sale), looking-glasses, oranges and lemons; whale oil (except the return cargoes of vessels fitted out for fishing voyages from ports in this province); wooden wares of all kinds; matches; corn brooms and brushes; hat and hat-bodies	4 0 0	20 0 0
Piano Fortes; snuff and cigars	10 0 0	20 0 0
Cordage	Free.	10 0 0
Bread and biscuit	4 0 0	10 0 0
All other goods, wares, and merchandise, not otherwise charged with duty, and not hereafter declared to be free of duty, for every hundred pounds of the true and real value thereof	4 0 0	15 0 0

Exemptions from Duty.—Anchors; ashes; baggage and apparel not intended for sale; barilla; beans and peas; books, printed; burr stones; canvases; carriages of travellers not intended for sale; chain cables and other chains for ships' use; coal tar; coals; coins, bullion, and diamonds; composition nails and spikes for ship building; corn, wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, oats, rice, ground and unground, and buckwheat unground, barley meal, rye flour and meal, oatmeal, Indian meal, buckwheat meal, and calavances; cotton wool and cotton warp; copper in sheets, bars, and bolts, for ship building; corn broom brush; dog stones; duck; dye wood; eggs; felt; fishing-craft utensils, instruments, and bait; fruits, fresh roots, and vegetables of all kinds, except apples, oranges, and lemons; furniture, working tools, and implements, the property of emigrants, not intended for sale; gypsum, ground and unground; hemp, flax, and tow; hides, green and salted; iron in bolts, bars, plates, sheets, and pig iron; lines and twines for the fisheries; looking-glass plates; manures of all kinds; mill saws; morocco skins; nets and seines; oakum; oil, blubber, fins, and skins, the produce of creatures living in the sea, the return of vessels fitted out in this province for fishing voyages; oil—seal, cod, porpoise, palm, and rape; ores of all kinds; pitch; plants, shrubs, and trees; poultry of all kinds; printing paper; quicksilver; rags, old rope, and junk; rock salt; rosin; sail cloth of all kinds; salt; seeds of all kinds; sails and rigging saved from vessels wrecked; sheathing paper; ships, ship tackle, and apparel; skins, furs, pelts, or tails, undressed; soap grease; spikes and sheathing nails; steam-engines, boilers, and machinery for mills; stone, unmanufactured; tallow; tar; tin in sheets and blocks; tobacco, unmanufactured; turpentine; varnish of all kinds; wood and lumber of all kinds, except cedar, spruce, pine, and hemlock shingles; wool; zinc.

In addition to the foregoing rates of duty, one per cent. is charged, under the Loan Act, on all manufactured goods, without any exemption, except those of British colonies.

Loan Fund.—This fund has been raised by a duty imposed, in 1843, on British and foreign importations, to provide for the redemption of the debt contracted previous to the year 1841, and which will be liquidated by instalments in fourteen years.

Expenditure.—This is shown in the following statement of disbursements for the past two years. The calculations are in sterling money, and the shillings and pence are excluded in the totals.

Items.	Years.	
	1847.	1848.
Civil list	£12,083	£12,083
Pay, &c., of legislature	7,332	6,576
Collection of revenue, &c.	3,132	5,354
Judicial establishment	2,029	1,987
Provisional contingencies	375	540
College and grammar schools	1,958	1,968
Parish and Madras	10,209	11,808
Printing laws, journals, &c.	1,440	8,823
Great roads	18,541	20,518
Bye-roads, &c.	13,420	11,461
Navigation of rivers	1,187	1,000
Public buildings	873	816
Wharfs and landings	805	575
Couriers and packets	987	1,337
Lunatic asylum	9,404	1,300
Provisional penitentiary	1,201	1,250
Destruction of bears & wolves	187	320
Bounty for erecting oatmills	250	41
Agricultural societies	1,606	5,125
Relief of emigrants	5,098	12,122
Charitable purposes	4,034	2,821
Indians	300	533
Return duties	347	455
Miscellaneous	3,855	2,656
Interest on sums borrowed	4,418	5,106
Light-houses	3,081	3,800
Sick and disbanded seamen	3,145	1,428
" Ordinary "	852	754
Military contingent	104	76
Total	£113,775	£115,353

In 1837, the New Brunswick Legislative Assembly sent two delegates to England to represent that the colonists had not sufficient control over the levying and disbursement of provincial taxes. The crown thereupon relinquished its rights entirely, in consideration of a fixed civil list, of £14,500 currency per an. being guaranteed. Since then, the colonists complain that the British government gave up some of their best timber districts to the United States, under the provisions of the "Ashburton treaty," in 1842, for which deprivation they consider they ought to have received compensation. As the population of the province increases, the amount of the civil list (which is really not large) will be more easily borne by the colonists. Poor-rates are in general moderate throughout the province; county rates are occasionally levied for local purposes, and there is a statute labour for the roads, commuted on a graduated scale of property, trade, or official income. The three days' annual service for the militia,

COMMERCE, RES, AND BOUR, &c.

table, that high as 100, England:— Brunswick, March, 1848.

On Foreign produce, growth, or manufacture.

s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
4 6	0 9 6	
0 1	0 0 14	
0 3	0 0 4	
0 0	2 0 0	
0 30	0 6 0	
0 50	0 15 0	
0 1	0 0 11	
Free.	0 2 6	
Free.	0 5 0	
0 5 0	0 7 6	
2 0 0	3 0 0	
0 0 14	0 0 24	
0 9 14	0 0 34	
0 0 1	0 0 24	
0 2 6	0 3 0	
0 2 6	0 6 0	
0 0 3	0 0 6	
0 4 2	0 6 3	
0 2 6	0 5 0	
0 0 1	0 0 3	
0 30	0 3 0	
0 10	0 1 3	
0 0 2	0 0 2	
0 10	0 1 0	
0 0 1	0 0 3	
0 5 0	0 10 0	
0 2 6	0 6 0	
0 0 2	0 0 2	
0 0 1	0 0 1	
0 3 0	0 3 0	
0 1 0	0 2 0	
4 0 0	30 0 0	
4 0 0	30 0 0	

required of all males between 16 and 45 years of age, is, in the event of non-attendance, compensated by a fine of 10s. for each day's absence.

Banks.—The province possesses several monetary institutions. The Bank of New

Brunswick has a capital of £100,000; Commercial Bank of New Brunswick, capital, £150,000; Central Bank of New Brunswick, capital, £35,000; St. Stephen's Bank, capital, £25,000; Branch of the Bank of British North America, capital, £1,000,000.

Position of the Public Banks.	Central Bank of New Brunswick.	Commercial Bank of New Brunswick.	Bank of New Brunswick.	Charlotte Bank.	St. Stephen's Bank.	Totals.
LIABILITIES:—	£	£	£	£	£	£
Capital stock paid in	35,000	150,000	100,000	—	25,000	310,000
Bills in circulation	42,247	72,270	45,740	0,208	15,000	185,465
Balance due other banks	575	19,028	—	311	3,735	24,670
Cash deposited not bearing interest	23,700	15,727	40,847	24,030	6,350	112,750
Cash deposited bearing interest	482	17,300	—	—	—	17,842
Profits in hand	7,826	—	5,710	1,002	2,555	17,399
Total	112,922	288,174	192,311	34,018	52,847	668,016
RESOURCES:—	£	£	£	£	£	£
Gold, silver, and other coined metals	4,047	12,300	20,500	1,783	4,030	42,825
Bills of other provincial banks	868	8,852	6,383	1,311	177	17,621
Balance due from other banks	3,010	28,181	18,275	31,574	141	82,981
Debts due, including notes, bills of exchange, &c.	102,728	220,975	143,530	—	45,989	522,231
Real estate	1,307	8,705	3,522	—	720	14,404
Total (less shillings and pence)	112,923	288,174	192,311	34,018	52,847	679,162

Coin.—The amount in circulation not ascertained.

Paper money consists of the notes of the banks of New Brunswick, British North America, Central, St. Stephen's, and Charlotte County. The total amount in circulation, in 1848, about £198,000.

Sir W. M. G. Colebrooke, C.B., governor of New Brunswick, in a report to Earl Grey of 8th April, 1848, speaking generally of the North American Colonies, says:—

"It is much to be regretted that a general revision of the monetary system of the colonies should not have been effected by Parliament. The continuance of nominal currencies, having reference to no acknowledged standard, and originating in the English denominations given to Spanish coins no longer current, but which circulated in the colonies on their first settlement, is an anomaly which was corrected in the United States after their separation by establishing a dollar currency, divisible into cents. The establishment of British sterling as the money of account, as a general measure, would be attended with great advantage to the commercial classes, and tend to simplify transactions with the United Kingdom and also with the United States. It may be objectionable to make gold the standard of the colonies, where silver for the most part circulates; and by a slight alteration in the value of the halfpenny to the 1-20th part of a shilling, 1-50th of a half-crown, and 1-100th of a crown-piece, calculations would be as much facilitated as they are in the United States, by the substitution of dollars and cents. The difference between the provincial currency and sterling is 11 1-9th per cent.

The amount of bank paper in circulation in 1845 is returned at £225,000 currency. The amount returned in 1840 and 1841 was £350,000. In 1842, owing to commercial embarrassment and the decline of credit, it fell to £110,000, in 1843 to £72,000, and 1844 the amount was £80,000.

"The banking system in the province is not on a satisfactory footing; and it is to be regretted that the proposal for establishing a provincial bank was not entertained by the Legislature, and that none of the banks now established, afford any accommodation to the agricultural classes. As before observed, farmers, unable to obtain cash credits or other advances, have not only been restricted in extending their operations depending on hired labour, but in remote districts are discouraged from seeking markets for their produce, when they are often reduced to barter."

There are several joint-stock companies—St. John's Water company, capital £20,000; St. John's Gas Light company, capital, £20,000; St. John's Mechanics' Whale Fishing company, capital, £50,000; a Rural Cemetery company, an Electric Telegraph company, a Mining company, Steam Ferry company, St. Andrew and Fredericton Railway company, building societies, &c.

Between 1835 and 1840, joint-stock companies were formed, whose united stocks amounted to £2,000,000. All these have not, however, gone into operation.

The Central Fire Insurance company has a capital paid in of £10,000; and £10,000 secured by bonds of two sureties.

There is a marine insurance company. The amount under-written, during the year 1847, was £585,049; and the premiums, £20,107. Amount written off during the year, as determined, cancelled, and lost, £482,307. Outstanding risk, 6th July, 1847, £102,742. Loss sustained during the year ending 1st July, 1849, £30,774. Capital stock and assets of the company, £56,501. Of this, paid up, £20,000. In the six months, ending January, 1848, the amount under-written was, £315,864. The premiums thereon £11,574. Loss, and probable loss sustained, £11,120.

The Globe Insurance Company of New Brunswick, has a capital stock paid in of £6000; and £24,000 secured by bonds of the stockholders, with surties. Total capital, £30,000. Risks, for the year ending 31st December, 1847, £148,992. Premiums received for ditto, £15,335. Losses paid during ditto, £18,868.

There is a chamber of commerce at St. John's, composed of the principal merchants and ship-owners of the city. The chamber communicates with the government on subjects connected with the commerce and general improvement of the country.

Commerce.—The trade of New Brunswick has largely increased; in 1831, the imports into St. John's were valued at £577,777 currency; 1835, at £1,040,000; in 1839 at £1,433,474. In 1842, the value of the imports from Great Britain was £217,000; in 1843, £337,000; in 1844, £454,000; in 1845, £617,000; in 1846 (at St. John's and St. Andrew's only), £533,512; in 1847, £583,355; in 1848, £ . . . The last three years have been periods of depression, owing to the state of the timber trade.

In the imports from Great Britain for 1847, at the port of St. John alone, there were 7,265 packages of cottons, woollens, silks, and linen manufactures, haberdashery, &c., valued at £276,548; iron, wrought, 2,678 tons, value £30,602; iron, unwrought, 2,477 tons, value 27,975; hardware, 11,799 cwts., value £38,979; sailcloth, 455,366 yards, value £26,145; cordage and twine, 17,024 cwts., value £37,483; copper, wrought, 2,163 cwts., value £10,935. These items indicate the valuable trade in manufactures which England carries on with the colonies.

The exports from New Brunswick have also increased; they consist principally of timber and fish. In 1847, the quantity of timber exported from St. John's and St. Andrew's was, 152,653 tons, valued at

£188,446; deals, 28,270,084 feet; staves, 225,905 pairs; shingles, 4,131,583; railway sleepers, 483,570; laths, sawn, 4,245,706; masts and spars, 1,584; and various other descriptions of timber. The following are the exports of wood from St. John in 1839 and 1845. In the returns from the outports, the quantity shipped is not specified:—

Description of Timber.	Quantity, 1839.	Value, 1839.	Value, 1845.
Squared timber, tons	255,647	£277,998	£275,451
Boards, feet	6,222	16,641	26,342
Deals, do.	75,969	189,252	310,650
Staves, thousand	1,858	8,318	4,536
Shingles, ditto	4,504	3,346	6,278
Handspikes, number	2,474	117	—
Oars, ditto	6,715	556	158
Lathwood, cords	4,095	4,232	4,342
Sawed Laths, thous.	129	2,407	1,951
Masts and Spars, No.	3,864	109	—
Ship-knees, ditto	538	—	—
Total	—	£502,976	£638,708

Of fish the exports from St. John in 1847 were—dried, 13,022 quintals; salted, 18,861 barrels; smoked, 11,020 boxes; oil, 3,057 gallons.

In 1847, the shipping entering the port of St. John's was, 2,308 vessels, 347,308 tons; at St. Andrews, 898 vessels, 81,031 tons. The number and tonnage of vessels registered in New Brunswick, in 1844, was—

Ports.	Under 50 tons.		Over 50 tons.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
SAILING VESSELS.—				
Miramichi	54	1,330	27	8,813
St. Andrew's	137	2,624	56	15,767
St. John's	168	4,978	221	57,762
STEAM VESSELS:—				
St. Andrew's	1	21		915
St. John's	1	37	3	201

The navigation on the river St. John will probably be much extended; for by the 3rd article of the treaty between Great Britain and the United States, signed 9th August, 1842, the navigation of the river was opened to the citizens of the United States in the following terms:—

“Article III.—In order to promote the interests and encourage the industry of all the inhabitants of the countries watered by the river St. John and its tributaries, whether living within the province of New Brunswick, or the state of Maine, it is agreed, that where by the provisions of the present treaty, the river St. John is declared to be the line of boundary, the navigation of the said river shall be free and open to both parties, and shall in no way be obstructed by either; that all the produce of the forest, in logs, lumber, timber, boards, staves, or shingles, or of agriculture, not being manufactured, grown on any of those parts of the state of Maine

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Men's Bank.	Totals.
£	£
000	310,000
000	185,446
735	24,579
0350	112,750
	17,842
865	17,399
847	668,016
£	£
036	42,825
177	17,621
141	82,081
5,089	522,231
720	14,404
2,847	679,162

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watered by the river St. John or by its tributaries, of which fact reasonable evidence shall, if required, be produced, shall have free access into and through the said river and its said tributaries, having their source within the state of Maine, to and from the sea-port at the mouth of the said river St. John's, and to and round the falls of the said river, either by boats, rafts, or other conveyance; that when within the province of New Brunswick, the said produce shall be dealt with as if it were the produce of the said province; that in like manner the inhabitants of the territory of the upper St. John, determined by this treaty to belong to her Britannic majesty, shall have free access to and through the river for their produce, in those parts where the said river runs wholly through the state of Maine:—provided always that this agreement shall give no right to either party to interfere with any regulations not inconsistent with the terms of this treaty, which the governments, respectively, of New Brunswick or of Maine may make respecting the navigation of the said river, where both banks thereof shall belong to the same party."

The shipping built in New Brunswick in 1848 was—at St. John's, 62 vessels, 17,061 tons; at Miramichi, 14 vessels, 2,655 tons; at St. Andrews, 10 vessels, 3,077 tons; total, 86 vessels, tonnage, 22,793. In 1847, there were registered at St. John's 83 new vessels, 38,112 tons; for owners in the United Kingdom, 1 vessel, 613 tons; registered at Miramichi, 3 vessels, 1,636 tons; ditto for owners in the United Kingdom, 12 vessels, 6,563 tons; total, 99 vessels, 46,924 tons.

At St. Andrew's the new vessels registered in 1847 were 16, 6,448 tons.

Staple Products.—Timber has hitherto furnished the largest available product of the province. For more than a quarter of a century about 150,000 tons of timber have been annually exported. Since the formation of the colony the quantity of timber cut down has probably not been less than five million tons. According to the replies made in 1834 to some queries by Mr. Smith O'Brien, M.P., and the "Limerick Emigrants' Friends Society," it was stated, that in 1833 there were in the province 229 saw mills, valued at £230,000; on the 1st of January, 1836, the number was 320, valued at £420,000, cutting upwards of 170,000,000 feet of lumber; and early in the year, contracts were entered into by the New Brunswick Mill Company, to the extent of £28,750, for the erection of other mills, which, when in operation, are estimated to cut from 100,000,000 to 150,000,000 feet of lumber, &c., in addition to the above. And the Aristook upper and lower mills, Rapid de Femme, Tobique, Lancaster, Grand Falls,* Acadian Company, and numerous other establishments, are in active preparation for similar purposes.

Relative Value of Saw-Mill Property and Produce, in the different Counties, in 1834.

Counties.	Number of Mills.	Value of Mills, Privileges, &c.	Quantity of Lumber sawed.	Value of Lumber at place of shipment.	Number of Men employed.
		£	Feet	£	
Saint John	35	67,530	40,450,000	76,225	525
King's	46	21,559	6,605,000	16,512	470
Westmoreland	66	23,162	11,225,000	28,046	412
Kent	29	38,450	8,600,000	21,600	196
Northumberland	17	68,900	24,300,000	60,750	3873
Gloucester	10	19,377	3,650,000	9,250	162
Charlotte	55	80,625	48,687,500	124,343	1090
Queen's	12	35,000	4,230,000	10,675	255
Snbury	11	22,950	9,700,000	24,250	247
York and Carleton	32	43,150	12,800,000	32,000	320
Grand Totals	314	£410,703	170,247,500	£403,353	8156
In 1836	Number of saw-mills, 320	Value, £420,000	Men employed, 4,200		
" 1840	" " 574	" 740,000	" " 7,400		
" 1845	" " 640	" 900,000	" " 8,400		

The timber trade has greatly encouraged emigration; the lumberer not only explores and opens the country as a pioneer for others, he also, by his laborious pursuit, obtains for himself the means to settle on lands that he has helped to clear. Dr. Gesner thus de-

* The Lancaster Mill Company, with 32 saws now in operation, will cut per annum 3,000,000 feet of lumber (1837). The Grand Falls are also in operation with the same number of saws, and will cut about

scribes the mode in which this business is conducted:—

"The felling and hewing of the timber for the British market are generally performed by parties of men hired by the timber-merchant or dealer for the purpose. In the autumn they are despatched into the same quantity of lumber annually (1837). The Leprean mills are also in operation, which cut 2,000,000 annually, (1837).

the woods, with a supply of provisions, axes, horses, or oxen, and everything requisite for the enterprise. Their stores are conveyed up the larger streams, in tow-boats drawn by horses, or in canoes paddled by men; and in winter they are transported over the ice. Hay for their teams is procured from the nearest settlements, and is frequently purchased at £6 per ton. The site for operations having been selected by the leader of the party, a camp is erected, and covered with the bark of trees. The floor of the shanty is made of small poles, and a sort of platform is raised for the general bed, which is composed of evergreen boughs or straw. The fire-place is opposite the sleeping-floor; and that part of the smoke that escapes, ascends through a hole in the roof. In this rude dwelling the food is cooked, and the lumbermen rest at night. A hovel is also built for the oxen, and the hay secured against rain. The party is usually divided into three gangs; one cuts down the trees, another hews them, and the third draws the timber to the nearest stream. They begin their work at daylight in the morning, and seldom return to the camp until evening, when they find their supper prepared. During the night, the fire is replenished with wood by the cook and teamster; and it is a common remark among them, that while the head is freezing, the feet are burning. I have passed several nights with these people in the backwoods, and always found them remarkably kind and hospitable. They are ever cheerful and contented; and a more hardy, laborious, and active class of men cannot be found in any part of the world. Formerly, a certain quantity of rum was supplied to each individual; but since the introduction of Temperance Societies, the practice is less common.

"The avocation of the lumberman is not altogether free from danger. Many lives have been lost by the falling of trees, and the business of forking timber is sometimes very hazardous.

"In the mountainous districts, it is necessary that the timber should be conducted over the steep precipices and high banks along the borders of the rivers. Having been collected on the tops of the cliffs, the square blocks are launched endwise, over rollers, either into the water below, or on the ice, which is frequently broken by the concussion. In its descent, the passage of the timber is occasionally arrested by trees or brushwood: the lumberman then descends, and, holding on to the brushes of doubtful foothold, he cuts away the impediments. This mode of launching timber is called 'forking,'—from which may have originated the substitution of the phrase 'forking over,' for the payment of a debt, as expressed by some of the inhabitants.

"By the latter part of April, the melting ice and snow, with heavy rains, swell the streams and produce freshets. The lumbermen commence 'stream-driving.' The timber on the rivulets is now floated downwards to the deep rivers; each log is launched, and, when stranded, it is again rolled into the current—and their manner of urging the enormous pieces of pine over the rapids is alike creditable to their courage and patience. Still pushing the rafts of timber downwards, and moving with the current that daily transports the bark that covers their movable camps—stung by swarms of insects both day and night, these men possess more patience under their hardships and sufferings than those of any other class in the country. Half-a-dozen of them will frequently navigate the stream astride a log of timber, which they paddle along with their legs in the water; and they will force the light skiff or canoe up a perpen-

dicular fall of three feet, where the roaring of the water is truly deafening, and where there is constant danger of being plunged into some whirlpool, or dashed against the rocks. Although they are frequently rendered giddy by the revolving motion of the eddies, they fix the poles upon the bottom, and move away against the foaming torrent, or cross the stream on slippery blocks of pine. Such is the force of habit, that these men view the forest as their home, and the river as their turnpike; constantly exposed to the inclemency of the weather and the water of the rivers, they appear contented, and seem to regret when the labour of the season is ended. In situations where the water is more tranquil, a singular spectacle is sometimes presented: each of the drivers mounts a log or piece of timber, and, with their pikes in hand, the party move along like a floating regiment, until some fall or rapid warns them to re-embark. Not infrequently, a rapid is blocked up with timber in such quantities, that it refuses to pass. This is called a 'jam.' The clearing away of these jams is the most dangerous part of the stream-drivers' employment, and who are sometimes thrown down a fall or rapid into the boiling pool beneath.

"The quantity of timber in one of these drives is enormous: its progress along the river where there are rocks is therefore slow, especially when the summer is advanced, and the volume of the water consequently diminished. In order to deepen the water, 'wing dams' are sometimes constructed on the sides of the most troublesome rapids. The depth and velocity being thus increased, the floating timber passes along more readily; but these dams greatly impede the passage of canoes in ascending the streams. Like the employment of the sailor, the work of the lumberman is peculiar: he requires much practice and experience; and it may be safely asserted, that should any unfavourable change take place in the home timber trade, thousands of men will be thrown out of employment, who have as little disposition to engage in agriculture as those who have been employed as sailors or fishermen.

"The timber and logs having been collected, are formed into large flat rafts, and floated down to their place of shipment, or to saw-mills, where the logs are manufactured into deals, boards, planks, &c. The lumbermen then receive their pay, which they too often spend in extravagant festivity, until the period arrives when they again depart for the wilderness: yet there are many who take care of their money, purchase land, and finally make good settlers. Timber is collected by farmers, new settlers, and squatters, who also procure great numbers of logs for the saw-mills; but the greatest supplies are brought down by the lumbermen from the interior forests. Mills for the manufacture of timber have greatly multiplied within a few past years. The removal of the exterior parts of the logs, by saws, is favourable to the preservation of the wood, and by it a great saving is effected in the freight. The saws, however, are chiefly applied to spruce, while the pine is shipped in squared logs."

Mr. Perley, in his evidence before the House of Lords, 11th June, 1847, related the following case, as an illustration of the manner in which a woodman may become a farmer:—

"I sent a young man to a first-rate farmer in the country, who wrote to me for an active young man.

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Year	Number of Men employed.
1834	525
5	470
6	412
7	196
8	3873
9	162
0	1696
1	255
2	247
3	320
4	8150
5	4,200
6	7,400
7	8,400

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266 AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE OF EACH COUNTY, NEW BRUNSWICK.

The emigrant, an Irishman from the county of Cork, the son of a small farmer in that county. He brought me a letter of introduction, stating that he was of a decent family. I sent him up to a first-rate farmer, who gave him 30s. currency per month, with which he was not well satisfied; that is equal to 25s. sterling. He had his maintenance and washing and lodging in the farmer's house. He proved himself so active and useful, that in the second month his wages were advanced. Before the close of the season, and the setting in of winter, he had learned the use of the axe very well, and was engaged by a lumbering party in the woods at £5 per month. They found him everything in the woods, except clothing. He proved himself so good an axeman, that at the end of the year, when the men came down with the timber, and he was paid off, he brought to me a sum of £30 currency, and wanted to know what he should do with his earnings. I advised him to buy 100 acres of land, which cost him £12 currency; to put the other £18 in the Savings Bank, and hire out another year, and by that time he would be in a position to establish himself comfortably as a farmer."

Ship-building is largely carried on in New Brunswick. In 1782, the total tonnage of St. John's was 250 tons; in 1795, 4,000 tons; in 1824, 16,000 tons; in 1836, 59,663 tons; in 1839, 80,830 tons. At Miramichi and St. Andrew's, vessels are also built. In 1839, there were 26 vessels, of 9,827 tons, built at Miramichi. Vessels were formerly built by contract, at £5 to £7 per ton, and so imperfectly put together, that the New Brunswick ships obtained a bad name. Since 1840, strenuous and successful efforts have been made to improve the class of shipping, and now the New Brunswick ships are said to equal Thames-built vessels.

There are mines and quarries of limestone, freestone, grindstone, granite, coal, and gypsum, in various parts of the pro-

vince; but the operations are of very limited extent. No authentic information has been collected on the subject.

The number and tonnage of vessels built in the province in 1840, were:—

Ports.	No.	Tons.
At St. John's	62	17,061
Miramichi	14	2,655
St. Andrew's	10	3,077
Total number and tonnage	86	32,793

In 1848, the number of saw and grist mills in the several counties of New Brunswick, was—

In Charlott's County.—16 grist and 103 saw-mills; (in this county there is a small extent of railroad made.)

St. John's.—9 grist and 4 saw-mills; 3 iron-foundries; 1 brass foundry; 3 nail manufactories; 6 brick manufactories; and 1 pottery.

Westmoreland.—53 grist and 181 saw-mills.

King's.—43 grist and 68 saw-mills.

Queen's.—19 grist and 28 saw-mills.

Sunbury.—6 grist and 15 saw-mills.

York.—22 grist and 31 saw-mills.

Carleton.—27 grist and 23 saw-mills.

Northumberland.—18 grist and 33 saw-mills; 1 iron foundry.

Gloucester.—18 grist and 7 saw-mills.

Restigouche.—3 grist mills.

Kent.—13 grist and 31 saw-mills.

Agricultural Produce.—As the forest-land becomes cleared, and population augments, the agricultural resources of New Brunswick will be more fully developed. The following tables show the crops, stock, and land cultivated and granted in each county for the year 1847:—

Crops produced in the Province of New Brunswick, for the Year ending December 31, 1847.

Name of the County.	Wheat.	Rye.	Oats.	Barley.	Buck-wheat.	Other Grain.	Potatoes.	Turnips.	Other Roots.	Hay.
	Bushels	Bushels	Bushels	Bushels	Bushels	Bushels	Bushels.	Bushels	Bushels	Tons.
York	14,300	147	103,540	2,192	17,616	1,837	259,248	8,644	873	17,025
Carleton	4,970	2,640	107,000	"	118,200	8,940	271,000	23,400	1,457	16,420
Saint John	563	"	9,448	572	3,234	1,052	91,924	8,124	1,296	8,496
King's	13,770	1,116	96,882	1,628	96,543	423	145,208	13,678	1,857	30,672
Queen's	10,431	2,395	72,134	326	36,576	596	123,431	5,373	1,089	25,434
Sunbury	4,739	1,673	37,513	154	9,541	749	79,135	2,210	847	8,967
Westmoreland & Albert	44,250	940	151,500	2,700	38,900	12,800	252,400	38,450	3,900	34,340
Northumberland	41,562	1,034	114,970	4,368	1,092	994	274,697	13,220	804	8,368
Kent	17,241	1,932	62,847	3,742	3,063	1,427	197,437	1,373	287	8,651
Restigouche	7486	167	"	"	342	194	78,543	1,843	573	3,524
Gloucester	21,264	768	38,931	7,784	"	1,448	212,372	2,470	1,648	5,684
Charlotte	9,420	"	67,460	6,948	"	2,180	1,942	93,470	1,430	16,800
Totals	180,090	12,802	952,225	30,412	325,316	32,402	1,988,865	133,225	10,121	184,463

The prices of agricultural produce in 1848 were—wheat, 6s. 9d.; rye, 4s.; oats, 2s.; barley, 3s. 9d.; buck-wheat, 2s. 8d.; pota-
toes, 1s. 4d.; turnips, 1s. 6d.; maize, 4s. per bushel. Hay, 10s. per ton.

STOCK AND CULTIVATION IN NEW BRUNSWICK.

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Stock and Land, cultivated and uncultivated, in the Provinces of New Brunswick, Year ending Dec. 31, 1847

Name of the County.	STOCK.				LAND.			
	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Pasture.	Cropped and in Hay.	Granted Land.	Unganted Land.
York	2,347	6,443	10,832	4,324	Acres. 23,431	Acres. 29,437	Acres. 910,914	Acres. 1,230,686
Carleton	2,980	11,230	18,430	6,840	28,480	31,350	811,402	4,480,598
Saint John	1,437	5,165	4,708	2,786	10,542	18,146	309,147	105,573
King's	3,116	10,639	27,794	6,978	43,842	51,603	662,752	187,168
Queen's	1,645	10,326	14,922	3,451	28,446	33,473	514,204	477,076
Sunbury	875	4,020	7,840	1,802	0,167	14,210	377,078	405,000
Westmoreland & Albert	0,212	20,540	36,400	7,415	47,500	68,800	811,140	509,680
Northumberland	2,517	11,843	16,134	5,005	8,368	40,248	986,168	1,093,832
Kent	1,450	4,798	9,439	3,460	5,827	19,240	386,398	640,002
Restigouche	1,783	2,150	3,317	1,480	3,652	5,741	156,979	1,109,581
Gloucester	936	4,912	8,124	3,584	0,340	8,230	332,002	704,538
Charlote	1,325	0,050	14,142	3,384	15,584	20,412	317,245	466,115
Totals	20,643	120,113	180,082	51,169	238,150	330,890	6,606,329	12,309,851

In 1825, major-general Sir Howard Douglas, then governor of New Brunswick, gave a stimulus to the agriculture of the province; assembled the members of the legislature, and other gentlemen, at Fredericton, addressed them in an eloquent speech, and strongly urged extended and careful cultivation of the soil. Agricultural societies were formed, improved breeds of cattle ordered from Great Britain, model ploughs and other rural implements introduced, and a beneficial and lasting impulse was given to husbandry.

The wheat of New Brunswick is of the very best quality: it is much heavier than the American (United States) wheat; weighs 65 pounds to the bushel, or even more. The produce is 15 to 30 bushels an acre. Indian corn is not a certain crop. It requires a light, warm soil, and plenty of manure. The old American rule is to drop 6 grains of corn into each hole:—

One for the out-worm,
One for the crow,
One for the grub,
And three for to grow.

Oats is a safe crop: the produce is 20 to 40 bushels an acre. In 1844, the potato blight reached New Brunswick from the United States, gradually found its way over the boundary line, and proceeded from W. to E. In 1845, the potatoes suffered as much as in Ireland; but in 1846 the disease disappeared to a great extent, and there was nearly an average crop, of good quality. The produce, on old lands, is from 150 to 400 bushels per acre: 800 bushels may be raised on one acre. Clover is a good crop. White clover is indigenous. Turnip cultivation has been introduced of late years, with great success for feeding cattle in winter.

The two following cases were submitted in evidence to the House of Lords, 11th June, 1847, in proof of the capability of New Brunswick to receive agricultural settlers. The witness advocated the making of roads, in the first instance, into the wilderness, as a means of opening the country, and of giving temporary employment to the newly-arrived emigrant. He was asked by their lordships:—

“Can you give any account of particular settlements formed in the neighbourhood of those roads?—Two very striking instances of the success attending the formation of new settlements in the wilderness by associations of settlers, having the privilege of making their own roads at a reasonable rate, exist in York County. The Harvey settlement was formed in the forest, on the line of road between Fredericton and St. Andrew's, in 1837, by a party of emigrants, (45 heads of families), from the north of England, who landed in New Brunswick in a very desolate condition. A report upon this settlement was presented to his excellency the lieutenant-governor by the Honourable L. A. Wilnot, the commissioner who formed it, on the 9th February, 1844, accompanied by a statistical return. This report states that it is shown by the return, that from land where not a tree was felled in July, 1837, there had been taken, during the preceding autumn, 260 tons of hay and straw, and 15,000 bushels of grain, potatoes, and turnips, and that the great success which had attended the labours of these industrious and valuable settlers, afforded an unquestionable proof of what might be done on the millions of wilderness land in New Brunswick. The return shows the number of settlers to be 44, and the value of the improvements to be £4,289 10s. The settlers accompanied the original return with the following observations, written by one of the parties himself:—“The climate of New Brunswick agrees well with the constitution of Englishmen; the air is salubrious, and the water as pure and wholesome as any in the world. During the six years of our location but two deaths have occurred, while there have been thirty-nine births without the presence of medical aid. Six years' experience has convinced us, that, notwithstanding the privations to which new settlers are

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No. Tons.

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, 1847.

Other Hay.

Roots.

Bushels Tons.

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1,857 30,672

1,089 25,434

847 8,967

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1,648 5,684

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10,121 181,463

maize, 4s. per

exposed, diligence and perseverance must ensure success. This English settlement is rather compact along both sides of the road. The lots were laid out with the usual frontage granted in New Brunswick of 40 rods, with sufficient depth to the rear to give them each 200 acres of land. The settlers were conducted into the wilderness by the blazed line, and they commenced making the road. The price paid them by the province for making and gravelling the road enabled them to purchase provisions, and to maintain themselves and their families, until the time when they had some land cleared, and had secured a crop. They cleared the land themselves. The men who formed the Harvey settlement were the contractors themselves; each man got a certain number of rods to make. They all became purchasers of land. Each person cultivated his own plot. All work upon their own land. Each of them earned enough to pay for a plot of land, and to settle upon it. The price at which they obtained the land was 2s. 6d. sterling an acre; one-fourth paid down, and the rest in one, two, and three years, without interest. They had it at the minimum rate. A man put down upon a piece of wilderness with 200 acres of land, should live upon it the second season, after securing a crop, assuming that, in the first season, he begins too late to put in a crop. The better course is to hire themselves out the first season, and at the close of the year, if they do not get employment for the winter, they have some months to work on their own land. During the winter they chop a piece down, erect a log-house, and get upon the land in the spring. If a man is industrious, and successful in getting his land cleared in the spring, and getting in his crop, he may secure enough that season to maintain himself and his family for the succeeding year. Having done that, he is safe.

"You have given an example of the progress of the Harvey settlement, which was an English settlement. Can you give the committee a similar example with respect to any Irish settlement?—I can mention the 'Teetotal Settlement,' which was an Irish settlement, formed by people from Cork and Kerry. It was formed in 1842, under the same commissioner, by a party of destitute emigrants from the south of Ireland. In a report from the commissioner, dated 23th January, 1844, it is thus stated:—"The results of the second effort in which I have been engaged in forming settlements in the wilderness, have afforded me the most unmingled satisfaction. Where but two years ago stood a dense forest there have been gathered, by thirty-five settlers during the past autumn, 7,236 bushels of grain, potatoes, and turnips. The accompanying return shows an estimated value of £1,137 in buildings and clearings; and when there is added to this the market value of the crop, exceeding £800, we have about £2,000 return (exclusive of the making four and-a-quarter miles of road) from a tract of land which, in its wilderness state, would not in the same time have produced a shilling. I cannot now consider the successful occupation of our wild lands by associated bodies of settlers, having the privilege of making their own roads at a reasonable rate, as a doubtful experiment. No antagonist theory can prevail against the practical experience which can now be referred to. Similar management must produce similar results; and I am well persuaded that no system is so well calculated to promote the improvement of our millions of wilderness acres, and thus to advance the population and commerce of the province."

Notwithstanding the defective state of agriculture in the province, the following crops, per acre, have been produced in different parts of New Brunswick:—

Wheat, 40 bushels, some weighing 68 lbs. per bushel; barley, 40; oats, 60; Indian corn, 75; buck wheat, 75; peas, 40; turnips, 1,000; potatoes, 800 bushels; carrots, 30 tons; mangel wurtzel, 30 tons.

In the report of the York (New Brunswick) Agricultural Society, in 1841, it was stated that the following produce was raised on seven and-a-half acres of land, including a garden:—

"Ten tons hay; 70 bushels oats; 280 bushels potatoes; 3 tons straw; 35 bushels carrots; 20 bushels turnips; 15 bushels beets and parsnips, besides an abundant crop of other garden produce. And from the time that clover was fit to cut for soiling, four cows were liberally fed every night during the season, and two horses occasionally in every week."

A settler at Stanley, on the New Brunswick Company's land, in 1845, thus details the agricultural result of his first year's farming:—

"It may be said that we have longer winters, and less productive soil than in the west, but against this we have healthy climate, and a better market, the summer not so oppressive, nor the winter more severe. Of the soil and its produce, you may judge from the following statement of 20 acres, of which I have taken account, showing the produce, the cost of the land, and preparing it:—

	Produce.	£	s.	£	s.
Oats on 17 acres, 8s. bushels at 2s. 6d.		100	5		
Wheat on 3 acres, 72 bushels at 8s.		28	16		
Straw		25	0		
				160	1
20 acres of land, at 6s.		6	0		
Clearing ditto ready for crop, 78s. per acre		78	0		
Oats for seed, 50 bushels to 17 acres, at 4s.		10	0		
Wheat ditto, 5 bushels to 3 acres, at 10s.		2	10		
Harrowing and sowing at 7s. 6d. per acre		7	10		
Harvesting at 15s. per acre		16	0		
				120	6
				Profit	40 1

"The item for clearing the land in the above, for the first year, takes much from the show of profit, but is a sum that would not afterwards appear."

Another settler states the produce of 25 acres of land:—

"I have at present 100 acres of land, and about 25 cleared, and all paid; cost me £30 currency, equal to £25 English money. I had five years to pay it. I raised off it last summer 300 bushels of potatoes, 100 bushels of turnips, 100 bushels of oats, beside some wheat and buckwheat, and a great quantity of garden vegetables, and two barrels of pork, which, thank God, I can use in my own family, and not be compelled to sell it to pay the rent, tithes, or taxes; so that I am quite comfortable, but very uneasy about my friends at home."

Mr. McGregor, M.P., late secretary to the Board of Trade, recorded the following impression of successful agricultural industry in

New Brunswick, which came under his observation:—

“On coming down the south-west branch of the river Miramichi, in the autumn of 1828, where the road from Fredericton and the river St. John join Miramichi, I was astonished,” he says, “at the unexpected progress made during so short a period (about four years) in the cultivation of the soil. An American told me that when he planted himself there, seven years before, he was not worth a shilling. He has now (1829) more than 300 acres under cultivation, an immense flock of sheep, horses, several yokes of oxen, milch cows, swine, and poultry, a large dwelling-house, a numerous train of labourers, one or two other houses, a forge with a powerful trip-hammer worked by water-power, fulling mill, grist mill, and two saw mills, all turned by water. Near these he had erected a building for the double purpose of a school and chapel, and which he said was open to all persuasions. He raised large crops, ground his own corn, manufactured the flax he cultivated, and the wool of his sheep into coarse cloths; and sold the provisions which his farm produced. In his barn was a heap containing about 90 bushels of Indian corn, that grew on a spot scarcely an acre, which he pointed out to me. He talked much in praise of the rich interior country.”

This individual (Mr. Boies) had (1834) probably the best cultivated and as well a stocked farm as there was in the province. He

raised in some seasons, about 1,000 bushels of wheat; a large quantity of oats, Indian corn, peas and beans, turnips, &c.; cuts 200 tons of hay; keeps 30 or 40 oxen, all reared on his farm, employed in the forest hauling out timber; has an extensive dairy; a pig-gery in which the hogs are reared, fattened, and cured, agreeable to the most approved and economical methods; and every other concomitant to an extensive farm; also a mill for the manufacture, separately, of flour, oatmeal, barleymeal, Indian corn, meal, and flour; a carding mill, &c.

There is an abundance of land in the province available for settlers. The following statement shows the quantity granted and ungranted in each county, and also the Indian lands. It will be perceived that out of 11,715,291 acres of land fit for cultivation not much more than half a million (586,979) acres have yet been cleared. The formation of the St. Andrews and Quebec railway, and branch lines, will tend materially to the opening of the country. A tax on wild lands held unproductively would have a good effect:

Granted and Ungranted Lands of New Brunswick.

County.	Cleared land, in Acres.	Wilderness Land.		Granted and located Land.	Ungranted Land.	Total Contents.	Observation.
		Fit for Agriculture.	Unfit for Agriculture.				
Restigouche . . .	11,439	941,341	313,780	156,979	1,109,581	1,266,569	Exclusive of that portion of country also claimed by Canada, and containing 2,700,000 acres additional.
Gloucester . . .	17,575	764,899	254,966	332,902	704,338	1,037,440	
Northumberland . . .	35,764	2,208,177	736,059	986,168	1,993,832	2,980,000	
Kent . . .	28,218	748,637	249,545	386,398	610,002	1,026,400	
Westmoreland . . .	93,030	689,058	196,352	577,440	301,000	878,440	
Albert . . .	32,110	301,088	100,362	233,700	199,860	433,560	
Saint John . . .	27,134	290,690	93,896	309,147	105,573	414,720	
Charlotte . . .	49,135	650,669	183,556	317,245	466,115	783,360	
King's . . .	92,452	668,101	189,367	662,752	187,168	849,920	
Queen's . . .	57,089	678,144	226,047	514,204	447,076	931,280	
Sunbury . . .	17,262	573,614	191,204	377,078	405,002	782,080	
York . . .	59,818	1,606,337	535,445	970,914	1,230,686	2,201,662	
Carleton . . .	65,953	1,894,536	631,511	530,802	2,061,198	2,592,000	
Grand Totals . . .	586,979	11,715,291	3,905,000	6,355,729	9,851,631	16,207,360	

Reserved Lands in New Brunswick for the Indians in 1842.

Reserves.	Acres.	Total Acres.	Indians	Total Indians	Reserves.	Acres.	Total Acres.	Indians	Total Indians.		
IN NORTHUMBERLAND—					RISTIGOUCHE—						
On Little S. V. branch of Miramichi river . . .	10,000	33,425	43	401	On Eel river . . .	400	400	..	12		
On Little N. V. branch of Miramichi river . . .	12,750				158	..	WESTMORELAND—	250	250	..	138
At Burnt Church . . .	1,610				200	..	On Aboushagan river . . .	60	60	..	105
At Tabusintac river . . .	9,935	0	..	On Memramcook river . . .	16	16	..	158			
KENT—					SAINT JOHN—						
On Richibucto river . . .	4,600	8,100	188	281	On Kennebecasis river . . .	200	200	..	170		
On Buctouche river . . .	3,500				93	..	On Indian Village—	200	200	29	26
GLOUCESTER—					CARLETON—						
On Pokemouche river . . .	2,600	3,600	75	102	At Meductic river . . .	16,000	16,000	123	..		
On Nepisquit river . . .	1,000				27	..	On Tomique river . . .	700	700	26	..
					Total Acres in the Province, 62,950 Total Indians, ditto, 1,376						

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Land is now sold in New Brunswick by auction, under the Civil List Act, at 3s. currency per acre, as the minimum upset price. A party desiring a lot of land, applies by petition for the lot that he is desirous of obtaining. If unsurveyed, an order is sent to him for a survey, of which he bears the expense. On the return of the survey, it is advertised one month to be sold in the county where the land lies. If surveyed, upon an application being made it is at once advertised to be sold at the monthly sale. In the one case, the party advances the expense of the survey; and in the other, an established price of 8d. per acre is added to the minimum price of land. The party attends at the sale, and if he purchases, and pays down the money, he obtains a discount of 20 per cent. for prompt payment. If he does not pay for the land, he pays one-fourth, and enters into a bond to the crown for the remaining three-fourths, payable in one, two, and three years, without interest, and receives a location ticket. The money is transmitted by the local deputy to the receiver-general of the province, and eventually finds its way into the general revenues of the country.

Many settlers who arrived a few years ago in New Brunswick, without a shilling, are now the owners of fine freeholds, surrounded with abundance, in a healthy climate, and under the protection of laws of their own making.

The area of New Brunswick is estimated, in round numbers, at nearly 17,000,000 acres; of these, 5,000,000 are said to be granted; 2,000,000 are deducted for water and waste; and the remaining 10,000,000, fit for settlement and cultivation, are in a state of wilderness, ungranted, and at the disposal of government.

According to the New Brunswick Blue Book for 1848, the land granted and sold in New Brunswick, in 1848, under 100 acres, was, 6,639 in 117 grants; above 100, and not exceeding 500 acres, 92,737 in 282 grants; exceeding 500 acres, 15,015. Total number of acres granted and sold during the year, 114,391, of which 46,228 acres were purchased, and 68,163 granted. The average price, per acre, was 2s. 9d.

The number of acres granted in the colony up to 1848, has been 3,915,498; and the number sold, 1,720,296. There remain still to be granted, 13,511,154 acres of land.

From a recent Report of the surveyor-general of New Brunswick upon the present

state of crown lands, it appears that the whole quantity of land sold during the year 1848, amounted to 26,761 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres, of which 14,777 acres have been paid for in full, and upon which £1789 19s. 3d. have been received; leaving 11,984 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres, which have been sold under the instalment system, and upon which £473 3s. 4d. have been received.

The timber licences for the past year cover, it is stated, an area of 2,157 square miles, at an average rate of 16s. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per mile, producing £1,992 8s. The highest rate paid for any one lot was £20 1s. per square mile, being a licence for 9 square miles, situate on the left bank of the river St. Croix, about 25 miles above St. Stephen. The quantity of land under licence in 1847 was 5,360 square miles, which produced the sum of £3,585 7s. 9d., the highest price paid per square mile being £5, the whole quantity averaging only 10s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per square mile.

The immigration into New Brunswick, during the year 1848, amounted to only 4,020 persons, being a decrease, as compared with 1847, of 11,249, and as compared with 1846, of 5,745 persons.

The Blue Book for 1848, contains the following:—

Prices of Provisions.—Wheaten flour, per barrel of 196lbs., £1 9s. 3d.; wheat, per imperial bushel, 5s. 5d.; wheaten bread, per lb., 2d.; horned cattle, £7 10s.; horses, each, £25; sheep, per score, £13 10s.; swine, each, £2 10s.; milk, per quart, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; butter, 9d.; cheese, 7d.; beef, 3d.; mutton, or pork, 4d.; rice, 3d.; coffee, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; tea, 3s. 7d.; sugar, per lb., 8d.; salt, per bushel, 1s. 4d.; wine, 10s.; brandy, 9s.; beer, per gallon, 1s. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; tobacco, per lb., 1s. 6d.

Wages for Labour.—Domestic, 30s. to 60s.; predial, 30s. to 45s., with board and lodging, per month; trades, 4s. 6d. to 8s. per day.

Fisheries.—New Brunswick possesses a coast line of 500 miles in extent, admirably adapted by its deep bays, coves, and inlets, for piscatory pursuits.

The colonists complain that they are not protected from the depredations of the Americans, who, contrary to treaty, and to national rights, fish within three miles of the land, and carry off their prey, despite of cruisers or coast guard. Dr. Geener says, the fisheries of New Brunswick, if duly protected, and pursued with energy, would form one of the principal sources of her

wealth and prosperity. The coasts, indented by numerous harbours, bays, and rivers, afford every facility for shore and deep-sea-fishing; and although the practices of the Americans have annually reduced the numbers of the finny tribes, they are still sufficiently numerous to render the employment, under proper management, profitable. But, from causes already adverted to, the demand for timber and a scanty population, the fisheries are not pursued with energy, and the fishermen lack the stimulus of the bounties given to the Americans, with whom they are unable to maintain a competition.

The whole number of fishing vessels belonging to the ports and harbours of the Bay of Fundy side of the province, in 1840, was only 65. Their burthens were from 10 to 30 tons each. The present number, including 20 belonging to Grand Manan, will not exceed 70, exclusive of shore-fishing-boats. That island alone, with a proper population, could employ advantageously 100, and the whole coast 600. The number of fishing vessels belonging to the United States, and fishing in the same waters, is as 10 to 1. The fishermen of the province, with few exceptions, are far less persevering and industrious than the Americans, or even the people of Nova Scotia.

The larger vessels fish for cod on the banks. The shore-fishing is carried on in boats; but they are often very imperfectly supplied with fishing-tackle, and the catch is limited. There is an annual decrease in the number of codfish along the shores, while the haddock are quite as plentiful as they were in former years—a circumstance arising from the fact that the "garbage" thrown into the sea is more destructive to codfish than to haddock. Halibut, hake, and other kinds of fish, are taken by the baited codfish hook; pollock are trailed for in swift water. Herring are taken in nets, but the greatest quantities are caught in "wares." These are circular enclosures of strong stakes, driven into the beaches near low-water mark, and interwoven with brush-wood. At high-water they are covered by the sea. When the tide recedes, the fish are enclosed in the ware, and left dry. The enclosure is sometimes made with strong nets. Sweeps are also made by large seines. It frequently happens that a much larger quantity of herring are taken in a single tide than can be secured by the fishermen, or perhaps more than their stock will cure. In such instances, great quantities of dead

fish are washed away, and which, with the offal thrown into the water, are no doubt a great injury to the fisheries; yet little attention is given to this abuse of one of the best temporal gifts of Providence. Five hundred and even one thousand barrels of herring are sometimes taken in one of these wares in a single night-tide. Dr. Gesner states, that he has never known an instance on the shores of the Bay of Fundy, where the proprietors of one of these wooden cages were prepared to secure a large catch, or "haul," as it is frequently called.

These "wares," erected in the commencement of the fishing season in almost all the bays, harbours, and creeks, are frequently leased to the Americans, who catch, cure, and smoke the fish upon the shores by the consent of the inhabitants, and in direct violation of the Treaty of 1783, and the Convention of 1818. In Passamaquoddy Bay, they fish for cod within a quarter of a mile from the British islands. The advantages of the people are thus sacrificed, often for small supplies of American goods, which are called for by their pressing necessities, the offspring of their idleness, and the relinquishment of their rights. That the fisheries are capable of supporting an extensive trade, and of affording ample remuneration to individual exertion, is certain, from the success that always attends the labours of those who pursue them with activity and energy. In 1839 (which was an unfavourable season for fishing), William Gubtail purchased for his son a boat of 11 tons burthen, for which he paid £100. With this small vessel, the son, with four men whom he had hired, not only cleared the expenses and purchase-money of the vessel, &c., but supported the whole of his father's family during the whole of the winter. Between the months of May and October of 1840, he made three trips to the deep-sea-fishing, and caught 250 quintals of codfish. Twice he went to the herring fishing, and landed 170 barrels. He also made a third voyage for herrings. Thus, in less than six months, he cleared double the value of his vessel, paid his expenses, and supported his family.

Many of the inhabitants of the coast and islands engage in the different employments of agriculture, fishing, and lumbering; but as might be expected, they are unsuccessful in each of those branches of labour. They plant a few potatoes, and fish in boats during the summer. In winter they embark for the forest, shoot, or remain idle. Many

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who take large supplies of fish during their season, are compelled to purchase them from the trader during the cold months at a high price. These observations will not, however, apply to the whole fishing population, of whom exceptions are to be made for a few individuals who live comfortably, and have, by their industry, gained an honest independence. The present degraded and unprofitable state of the fisheries has resulted from the violations of the convention by the American fishermen, who obtain bounties on fish taken and cured upon British shores, and the indifference of the coast settlers, who remain contented with a precarious subsistence, the result of idleness, rather than earn a comfortable competency. As natural consequences, poverty, and sometimes absolute misery, is too often seen among them, and the resources of both the sea and the land are unproductive in their hands.

Mackerel may be taken in the Bay of Fundy from the 1st of May to the middle of October. They are taken by hooks, or on jigs; nets are seldom employed. Mackerel fishing is not followed with much enterprise, and is therefore seldom profitable. The principal shad fisheries are those of the St. John and Petecodiac. Salmon are taken in the small bays and large rivers in nets, or speared during the dark hours of the night. Shad and gaspereau are caught in nets. A fish called menhaden, which resembles a small shad, although plentiful, is not deemed profitable. Porpoises are shot by the Indians during the summer for their oil. Lobsters and other shellfish are abundant. Whales are seen upon the coast at all seasons, but no attempts are made to capture them.

The Mechanics' Whale-fishing Company, and C. C. Stewart, Esq., of St. John, are engaged in the whale fishery of the Pacific Ocean. The exports of whale oil from the province average about 100,000 gallons, and of sperm oil 50,000 gallons per annum.

The fisheries on the N.E., or Gulf of St. Lawrence coast of New Brunswick are not in a more prosperous state than those of the Bay of Fundy, except at Caraquette, which exports from 8,000 to 10,000 quintals of dry fish annually. The encroachments and contraband trade of the American fishermen are even more daring in the Gulf than along the Atlantic coast.

Cod-fish are still abundant on many of the banks and shoals, and great facilities

are offered for shore-fishing. Haddock, pollock, and halibut are very numerous at certain seasons: with these there are immense shoals of herring. Caplin are sometimes carted on the fields for manure. Salmon frequent all the rivers; but since the erection of saw-mills their numbers have decreased. Gaspereau and smelts are taken in the principal streams; and sea trout enter the lagoons.

Mackerel may be taken in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Bay Chaleurs from May to October, and large catches are made by the American fishermen. In summer the mackerel are lean, but in the autumn they are remarkably fat and of large size. Lobsters, clams, and other shellfish are plentiful. Oysters are shipped from different parts of the shore to Quebec, Halifax, St. John, and other places. In the early settlement of the country, walrus were taken, and they are still occasionally seen. There are two varieties of seals. Whales pursue the fish into the Gulf during the summer, but no attempts are made to capture them. From the rapid increase of population, it would naturally result that the exports of fish would be enlarged; yet, from causes already adverted to, the fisheries advance but slowly, and unless they are protected by the government, they will be altogether in the hands of the French and Americans. These inexhaustible maritime resources are neglected, and a general apathy prevails towards the improvement of those blessings Providence has so abundantly dispensed in the waters of the coast. The foregoing remarks are almost entirely derived from the personal observations of Dr. Gesner, who expresses himself strongly against the "encroachments of the Americans."

The exportation of the produce of the fisheries of New Brunswick in 1830 was, of—

Dried fish	27,825 crots.
Pickled fish	21,177 barrels.
" "	2,783 kegs.
Smoked fish	4,952 boxes.
" "	5,350 number.
Fish oil "	12,302 gallons.*
	1834. Value.
Dry cod, 26,559 quintals	£15,188
Wet cod, 693 barrels	583
Herrings, 3,653 boxes, 365 barrels	709
Mackerel, 3,014 barrels	2,664
Salmon, 869 barrels	1,787
Other sorts	5,604
Train oil	9,577
Total	£35,972

* Colonial System, by Henry Bliss, Esq., p. 68. London, 1833.

	1835.	Value.
Fish, dried		£12,894
" pickled		21,209
" smoked		1,944
Oil, cod liver		849
" seal		1,088
" whale		10,988
Total		£49,032*

	1839.	Value.
Fish dried, 23,594 quintals		£16,227
" pickled { 16,656 barrels	}	19,812
" smoked, 14,365 boxes		
Oil, whale, 78,327 gallons		7,720
" sperm, 15,877 "		3,969
" cod, 12,327 "		1,727
Whalbone, 236 cwt.		1,323
Total		£37,632†

	1844.	
Pickled salmon	6,479 barrels, 5,419 kits.	
Smoked "	406 boxes.	
Mackerel "	24 barrels.	
Dried fish	12,405 quintals.	
Alewives & shads, salted	16,346 barrels.	
Codfish, pickled	214 barrels.	
Herring, salted	1,754 barrels.	
" smoked	7,308 boxes.	
Seal oil	240 gallons.	
Cod oil	5,774 "	

The above return does not include the Port of St. Andrew's and its outbays.

	1845.	Value.
Fish, dried, 8,842 quintals		£5,526
" salted, 17,923 barrels		13,444
" smoked, 10,058 boxes		2,514
" oil, 71 barrels		213
Total		£21,697

In 1847, the exports of fish from the port of St. John were, dried, 13,022 quintals, value £27,374; salted, 18,861 barrels, value £15,078; smoked, 11,020 boxes, value £1,136; oil, 3,507 gallons, value £318. From St. Andrew's, in the same year, the fish exported was valued at £5,379.

The legislature of the province have recently offered a small tonnage bounty on fishing-vessels; but the whole sum granted for that object was too small to have any beneficial effect upon fishing industry, which will be observed to be on the decline.

Property.—By a statement made in 1833, in New Brunswick, the value of property in the province was stated to be—city, seaport,

* Colonial tables, Murray, vol. ii. p. 260.

† In the custom-house returns of the outports of New Brunswick, the articles exported in 1839 are

and inland towns, villages, &c.; agricultural produce, implements, and live stock, £3,000,000. Marine and inland navigation, £575,000. Saw, grist, and fulling-mills, £425,000. Total, £4,000,000. This amount must now be largely increased. There is a great spirit of public improvement in the province. A railroad is in progress of construction from St. Andrew's to Fredericton; to be continued, if the funds can be obtained, to Quebec; and New Brunswick may not only be considered one of the most eligible colonies of the British empire for the location of emigrants, but also one of the most thriving and loyal portions of the dominions of our gracious sovereign.

The recent Lieutenant-governor of New Brunswick, Sir W. M. G. Colebrooke, who has had considerable experience in the administration of colonial government, and received the high commendation of successive Secretaries of State for the Colonies, paid the following tribute to New Brunswick, in a despatch to Earl Grey, dated St. John's, New Brunswick, 8th April, 1848, when transmitting the annual report on the Blue Book for the year:—

"At the close of an administration of seven years, it is due to this province to bear my testimony to the value of it, as one of the most important possessions of the crown. The spirit with which its hardy and persevering inhabitants have, in sixty years, triumphed over the difficulties opposed to them in the settlement of such a country, and accumulated so large an amount of agricultural, maritime, and commercial wealth, is an earnest of the success which will attend their future labours, aided by the co-operation of British enterprise and capital. In the present advanced state of the arts, and the recent triumphs of skill and science, which have contributed so largely to unite the families of mankind, and to diffuse to the remotest quarters the blessings of civilization and improvement, the progress of this fine province cannot fail to be accelerated, and its connection with the United Kingdom strengthened and cemented, a result which will assuredly be productive of great reciprocal benefits."

not specified; the table therefore only refers to the exports of the Port of St. John for that year.

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£35,972
Miss, Esq., p. 68.

BOOK IV.—PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION, AREA, AND HISTORY.

PRINCE Edward Island (formerly called St. John's) is situated in a recess or bay in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and lies between $45^{\circ} 50'$ and $47^{\circ} 7'$ N. lat., and between 62° and $64^{\circ} 27'$ W. long. It is separated on the W. from New Brunswick, on the S. from Nova Scotia, and on the E. from Cape Breton, by the Straits of Northumberland. The nearest points of Prince Edward Island to the neighbouring provinces are, West Cape, which is 11 miles from Richibuctoo in New Brunswick; Cape Traverse, which is 9 miles from Cape Tormentine in Nova Scotia; and East Cape, which is 27 miles from Cape Breton Island. Its exceedingly irregular outline somewhat resembles a crescent in its general appearance, the concave side being towards the gulf, into which its boundary capes project. A line drawn through the centre of the island would measure about 135 miles; its extreme breadth is 34 miles; and its area is estimated at 2,134 square miles. Who first discovered it does not appear to be clearly established. Robertson, Bouchette, and M'Gregor, speak of it as the first land seen by Cabot after his discovery of Newfoundland in 1497, and suppose it to have been afterwards re-discovered by Verazani; but Murray remarks that the former conclusion seems wholly inconsistent with Hakluyt's brief narrative, and that the latter is not justified by Verazani's own account of his voyage. Be this as it may, it is mentioned by Champlain under the name of St. John, and its situation and extent are accurately described. It was included by the French in the vast territory called New France, and in 1663 was leased or granted, together with the Magdalen, Bird, and Brion Islands, to the Sieur Doublet, a captain in the French navy, to be held as a feudal tenure, under a fishing company established at the island of Miscou. Little progress, except the establishment of a few fishing stations, was made, until after the treaty of Utrecht in 1715, when many French families

removed there from Acadia, and by their account of its fertility allured settlers from Cape Breton; but in this they were discouraged by the French government, who were desirous of making the latter place the centre of their power in America. In 1745 it was captured by the New England forces, but subsequently restored by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. In 1758 it was re-taken, and permanently annexed to Britain; the number of inhabitants at this period is stated by Haliburton as 4,100. The island was well stocked with horned cattle; a considerable portion of it had been brought under cultivation, and some of the farmers raised annually 1,200 bushels of corn for the Quebec market. For the two preceding years Prince Edward had been the resort of the Mic-Mac Indians, who, assisted by the French, had made many sudden incursions into Nova Scotia, and committed fearful barbarities on the English colonists. When Lord Rollo took possession of the French governor's house, he there found several English scalps hung up as trophies. In consequence of the determined hostility manifested by the Acadians of Prince Edward Island, they were included in the order for the removal of their countrymen from Nova Scotia, and a large number were shipped off to the neighbouring continent, and to the southern colonies. Some were sent to France, where they were but ill received, and upbraided for the systematic aggression which had so materially conduced to undermine the dominion of France in North America. In 1763, the island was confirmed to Britain, and was included in the general survey of the British empire in America in 1764, which the first American war put a stop to on the continent. The survey of the island being completed in 1766, various schemes for its cultivation and settlement were proposed: amongst others, the Earl of Egmont, then first Lord of the Admiralty, proposed settling it on a feudal plan, his lordship to preside as lord para-

mount, with a certain number of baronies to be held from him, each baron to erect a castle or stronghold; maintain a certain number of men-at-arms; and, with their under-tenants, to perform suit and service, according to the custom of the ancient feudal tenures of Europe. This strange scheme was rejected as impracticable, but another almost as extraordinary was adopted in its stead. It was resolved to grant the whole island to individuals considered to have claims upon the government (principally officers of the army and navy, who had served during the war), on certain conditions prescribed by the then Board of Trade and Plantations. The number of applications being very great, it was arranged that the grants should be drawn by way of lottery.

The land was divided into townships, (each containing about 20,000 acres), some tickets being a prize of a whole township, others of half, and others of a third. By the conditions annexed, the holders of 26 of the townships were to pay six shillings per annum for each 100 acres; the holders of 29 other townships, four shillings per annum for the same quantity; and the holders of 11 other townships, two shillings per annum; all being equally bound to settle their land in the proportion of one settler to each 200 acres, within 10 years from the date of their grants, which, in the event of their failing to do, were to be declared void. Prince Edward Island being then included under the same government as Nova Scotia, it was necessary for the governor to pass grants of the townships to the holders of the tickets; the *mandamus* under the king's sign manual commanding him to do so, bears date August, 1767; and the whole island passed from the crown in a single day, excepting only the small reservations for three intended county towns and two townships, which had been previously partly occupied, with the permission of government, by a fishing company. The result was anything but satisfactory. Mr. John Stewart, to whom I am indebted for much valuable information on the subject, says, that many of the holders of the tickets had never any intention of expending either their time or their money in settling the island, and had used their interest only for the sake of obtaining a saleable commodity. The grants were, therefore, very soon brought into the market: some of them at first fetched £1,000 each; but as the supply

quickly exceeded the demand, the price diminished to one-half, the greater number sold being purchased by a few individuals on speculation.

With the idea of promoting the settlement of the island, a large majority of the proprietors petitioned the king that the colony should be erected into a separate government from Nova Scotia; and, in order to defray the expense of this alteration, they offered to commence paying the one-half of their quit rents on May, 1769, although, by the terms of settlement, they were only to become payable on Michaelmas day, five years after the date of the grants, while the payment of the other half was to have been postponed for 20 years. Their proposal was acceded to; and, in 1770, a governor (Mr. Paterson) and other officers arrived. At this time there were not more than 150 families and five proprietors on the island. After ten years little was found to have been accomplished: a few enterprising and conscientious persons acted up to the spirit of their engagement, among whom was Sir James Montgomery, then Lord Chief Baron of the Scotch Court of Exchequer; but the greater number shamefully neglected the duties they had voluntarily undertaken. Had all the proprietors acted together, a fine and thriving settlement would, in all probability, have been speedily established; but, as it happened, the whole burthen was thrown upon a small number, who were quite unable to sustain the load so unjustly imposed on them, notwithstanding the vigorous efforts they made to do so. Tracadie was settled by Captain Macdonald, with 300 Highlanders, and the governor induced many exiled and other Acadians to establish themselves in the island. In some instances, poor settlers were landed in different townships, far from any other inhabitants, without proper provision being made for their immediate wants. Many, therefore, abandoned the place in disgust, and spread unfavourable reports of the colony, by which its settlement was greatly retarded. Another obstacle is said to have arisen from the proprietors being unable to grant that so-called tenure under the crown which is esteemed the most secure. The colony progressed, however, though but slowly; and as at the time of its being erected into a separate government, the representative of the sovereign had been authorized to summon a general assembly whenever he should deem the island sufficiently settled, Governor Paterson, in 1773,

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called the first meeting of the Provincial Legislature.

In November, 1775, two armed American cruisers, taking advantage of the defenceless state of the island, landed at Charlotte town, plundered it, and carried off the acting governor, a member of the council, and the surveyor-general; but on the commanders proceeding to the American head-quarters, they were rebuked by general Washington, told, they had "done those things which they ought not to have done, and left undone what it was their duty to have done," and dismissed from their command. The prisoners were instantly set free, with many courteous expressions of regret for their sufferings, and the plundered property was entirely restored.

It is a pleasing duty to record an act, so perfectly in unison with the noble character of Washington.

In 1776, it being found that the few proprietors who paid their quit-rents did not contribute a sufficient sum to defray the expenses of the government, and the governor being unwilling to proceed against the defaulters, who were generally persons of rank and influence in England, an application was made to parliament for an annual grant to defray the civil expenditure, which application was complied with.

Both governor Paterson, and general Fanning in 1789, are accused of having greatly impeded the cultivation of the land, by endeavouring to monopolize it, to the detriment of the settlers with whom they were constantly at variance. The late duke of Kent, then commander-in-chief of the North American colonies (where, at two different periods, he resided ten years) paid much attention to the island; organized the formation of some provincial troops, cavalry and infantry, and the erection of batteries for the better protection of Charlotte town; the result of these precautions, was the preservation of the colony, during the war, from any molestation. It was at this period that the name of the island having been found inconvenient, from being the same as those of the chief towns in New Brunswick and Newfoundland, it was changed from St. John to Prince Edward, as a mark of grateful attachment to one who well deserved it. In August, 1800, the duke sailed for England, to the sincere regret of the North American colonists, in whose prosperity he had shown himself warmly interested. In 1801, the arrears of quit-rents amounted to £59,162,

being, in many instances, considerably more than the townships would have realised if put up by auction. Government therefore determined to accept a moderate composition which should fall lightest on those who had made the most efforts to settle their land. The townships, whose proprietors were in arrears for quit-rent, were accordingly divided into five classes: 1st. Those which had the full number of people required by the terms of the original grants, were only to pay four years' quit-rent, in lieu of all arrears from 1769 to 1801. 2nd. Those with half the population were to pay five years' quit-rent, in lieu of all arrears. 3rd. Those with from a quarter to half the stipulated number, nine years' quit-rent. 4th. Those with less than a quarter, twelve years' quit-rent; and 5th. The owners of those which were wholly waste and uninhabited, were called on to pay fifteen years' quit-rent *i. e.*, less than half the amount owed by them.

The liberal terms of this composition, by freeing the land from heavy claims, had an almost instantaneous effect on the prosperity of the island, which made rapid strides in population and social comfort. Some proprietors, nevertheless, did not avail themselves of this commutation, and waited for easier terms; it became, therefore, necessary to proceed against them, and in 1804 judgment was obtained by the receiver-general of the quit-rents against ten townships, five half-ditto and one-third ditto, which were escheated to the crown for non-payment of the quit-rents. It is much to be regretted that the rents had not been annually exacted, instead of being allowed to accumulate for so long a period, as the holders of the land would probably have then endeavoured to improve the culture of the land, instead of suffering it to remain a useless waste. In 1803, the Earl of Selkirk took over about 800 Highlanders, and by his strenuous exertions, enabled them to attain a very prosperous condition; with the friends who have since joined them, their number now amounts to above 4,000. Governor Desbarres succeeded Fanning, who was followed by Colonel D. Smith in 1813; the latter was recalled in 1823 for tyrannical conduct, which had caused much agitation in the colony. Lieutenant-colonel Bedy was appointed in his stead in 1823. Colonel Young received the appointment in 1831, and was succeeded by Sir John Harvey in 1836. Sir John was removed to New Brunswick in 1837, and his place supplied by Sir Charles Fitzroy until

1841. Sir H. V. Huntly was the next lieutenant-governor, and was succeeded by the present lieutenant-governor, Sir Donald Campbell, in 1847.

The colonists have been endeavouring to establish a court of escheats to confiscate the lands of absent proprietors who have not complied with the terms of their grants, so

that large and fertile tracts might be opened for agricultural industry. Her majesty's government have not agreed to this proposition, but have sanctioned the imposition of a tax upon lands so situated, which has had the effect of stimulating some of the proprietors to settle their grants; and will increase the revenue of the colony.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—TOPOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, AND CLIMATE.

The general appearance of Prince Edward Island is extremely pleasing, though it has nothing of the romantic boldness which characterize the northern shores of the Gulf. The surface, like that of New Brunswick, gently undulates, without any absolutely flat country, but no where reaches the elevation of mountains, the principal high lands being a chain of hills traversing the island nearly north to south, from De Sable to Grenville Bay.

The whole island was once covered with forests of beech, birch, maple, poplars, spruce, fir, hemlock, larch, and cedar, and although the labours of the lumbermen, the progress of cultivation, and many destructive fires, have greatly thinned their rich luxuriance; yet still they spring up spontaneously and adorn the land, which is clothed in verdure to the very edge of the water. According to Dr. Gesner, peat bogs are very numerous, although few of them are of any great extent. The largest and most valuable deposit is on the S. side of Cascumpec harbour. It contains a buried forest, and, as the quality of the peat is very superior, will, in course of time, be valuable for fuel.

The constant action of the strong tidal waters of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, has caused the island to be indented, and intersected by bays, creeks, and inlets, which are so numerous and extensive, that scarce any part of the territory is more than eight miles distant from tide water. Of the numerous harbours the principal is that on which the capital, Charlotte town, is built, situate on the S.E. side of the island, at the bottom of Hillsborough Bay, and at the confluence of the three rivers—Hillsborough,

York, and Elliott. The haven is one of the most secure in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, though not more than half a mile wide at the entrance: it has several batteries protecting it, and if occasion required, could be placed in a situation to defy attack from seaward.

The land on which the town is built rises gradually to a moderate height above the sea, and has a maritime communication, by means of the three rivers before-mentioned, with a considerable portion of the island. The Hillsborough river (or rather an inlet of the ocean) flows past the town to the eastward, with a depth of eight fathoms, so that the largest ships may anchor close to the capital, and vessels of 200 tons go up the Hillsborough river, 14 miles above Charlotte town. Each of the rivers, Hillsborough, York, and Elliott, have a sufficient depth of water for the largest vessels for several miles, where they may lie secure from all winds, and the tides are so strong as to enable ships to work out and in against a contrary wind; the rise at full and change being nine feet, and at neap, four to five, with soundings of soft mud or strong clay.

The town appears from the harbour to great advantage, the streets are broad, and regularly laid out at right angles, with five or six vacancies for squares; most of the private houses have neat gardens attached, and together with the public buildings, such as the Court-house (in which the Courts of Judicature, as well as the Legislative Assembly, sit), the Episcopal church, the New Scots Church, the Roman Catholic and Methodist chapels, excellent barracks, &c., give a decidedly prepossessing aspect to the capital of this interesting colony.

The Colonial Building in Charlotte town

cost £14,500, was commenced in 1843, and is now finished.

The island is almost naturally divided into three counties, viz., Prince's on the W., Queen's in the middle, and King's on the E. Prince's county contains five parishes, viz., North, Egmont, Halifax, Richmond, and St. David's, which comprise 467,000 acres, exclusive of a reservation of 4,000 acres for Prince town and royalty. It has several fine harbours; two on the N. shore are very valuable, as the winding coast forms a deep curve in which it is dangerous for vessels to be caught in a stiff N.E. wind, in which the points of the island E. or W. cannot be cleared, and a ship must therefore run on shore, or else seek one of the large barred havens, into which two or three high seas will cast her safely.

Richmond Bay, the largest in the island, is barred with a sand bank, over which there is from 12 to 15 feet water; from its wide entrance and great extent (being 9 miles wide, and 10 miles deep), the centre part is of course unsheltered, but there are several inlets perfectly safe from all winds, with from 3 to 4 fathoms good anchorage. There are six beautiful islands in the bay, three of which have an area of 500 acres of good land. Seven townships, containing 140,000 acres, abut on this bay, which has the advantage of a safe inland water communication along the coast, by means of Cavendish channel, with the fine harbour of Holland Bay to the N.W. On a fertile peninsula projecting from the eastern-coast of Richmond Bay, Prince town has been laid out, but the intended site is occupied by straggling farms. The settlers are chiefly of Scottish descent, many of them being the descendants of those from Cantyre, who settled with Judge Stewart's family, and who retain the habits and superstitions that were formerly so prevalent in their native country, while the music, the songs, the tales of the Covenanters, and the ghost stories of Kirk Alloway have all the freshness of yesterday; indeed, it is not a little remarkable that many of the ancient customs and traditionary stories, now passing away, and nearly forgotten in England, Ireland, and Scotland, are religiously remembered and preserved in our colonies. The surrounding tract, called the Royalty, is well cultivated.

Lennox Island, situate on the N.W. of Richmond Bay, is the chief meeting place of the remnant of the Mic Mac Indians. Still further N., is Holland Bay, which is

safely accessible, but narrowed by islands at its entrance; its chief harbour, called Cascumpec, is extremely commodious, and well situated for the fisheries. Between this bay and that of Richmond, an extensive range of sand mounds have been formed by the waves, between which and the main shore is a lagoon, eighteen miles in length, and from one to three hundred yards in breadth. The shores of the lagoon are uninhabited. The fertile land round Holland Bay, is cultivated chiefly by Acadians, who have also a settlement called Tigniche, near the North Cape. From thence to West Cape there is no harbour except for boats; and a large portion of rich soil, though clothed with excellent timber, and watered by several fine streams, is still unoccupied. After passing West Cape, we arrive at Egmont Bay, which is sixteen miles wide and ten feet deep, with dangerous shoals off its entrance, and only affording shelter in N., N.E., or N.W. winds. On its eastern boundary are three Acadian villages. Halifax, or Bedeque Bay, is a spacious inlet, reaching nearly across to Richmond Bay on the opposite coast,—Wilmot and Webber Cove being only about five miles apart. It has a fine harbour, well sheltered by a small island, and is increasing in importance as a shipping port. The banks of the two small rivers which empty themselves into the harbour are populously settled, and there are several ship-building establishments.

Queen's County adjoins Prince's county on the S.E., and extends about 40 miles, embracing the whole width of the island. It contains five parishes—Grenville, Charlotte, Bedford, Hillsborough, and St. John; 486,400 acres being comprised in them, exclusive of the 7,300 reserved for Charlotte town and royalty. The N. coast of this country is extremely picturesque, but possessing few harbours, except for schooners and small vessels; their names and positions will be sufficiently shewn in the map; this portion of the coast is tolerably well settled, chiefly by Scotchmen and Acadians. On Grenville Bay and the banks of its small tributaries, are situated New London, Elizabeth town, Campbell town, and other settlements; that of Cavendish, at the E. end of the bay, is remarkably flourishing. Harrington, or Grand Rustico Bay, has a long narrow island across its entrance; on its shores are two Acadian villages, and on the banks of its tributary streams, Hunter and Whately rivers, are some thriving settlements. One of these, called New Glasgow,

is peopled principally by emigrants from the city of that name. On Little Rustico, or Stanhope Cove, is a tract of very fertile land containing many extensive farms. Eastward to Bedford Bay, and from thence to Savage Island, the coast is more or less occupied by settlers principally of Scottish descent. The south coast of this county abounds in safe havens. Tryon village, nearly opposite Green Bay, or Baie Verte, in Nova Scotia, is one of the most populous and pleasantly situated places in the island. Crapaud and De Sable are also rather thriving settlements. On the eastern side of Hillsborough Bay is the district of Belfast, which includes the thriving villages of Great and Little Belfast, Orwell (on the bay of that name), Pownalls, Perth, Belle Creek, Wood Islands, and others, chiefly formed by Lord Selkirk's colony.

King's County—comprises the eastern portion of the island, and is divided into four parishes, East, St. Patrick, St. George's, and St. Andrew's, which include 412,000 acres, exclusive of the 4,000 acres reserved for George town and Royalty. The town that has been laid out near the confluence of the Cardigan, Montague, and Brudenelle rivers, or rather on a peninsula formed by them, and although little progress has yet been made, its excellent harbour, good fisheries, and advantageous position for trade in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, will probably render it a place of considerable importance. The coast land from Savage Harbour (between King's and Queen's county) to the Bay of St. Peter, is termed the Lake Settlement, from its bordering on a pond or lagoon, which has an outlet into the Gulf. The Bay of St. Peter, into which the river Morel falls, is about nine miles long, with a narrow mouth, and pierces the coast, forming the peninsula of Greenwich. The lands fronting the bay have been greatly improved by the Messrs. Worrel, who have built granaries, grist mill, and offices on a large scale. From Greenwich to East Cape, the whole line is without a harbour. It is called the District of the Capes, and is well cultivated by settlers from Scotland and the Hebrides, who raise large and valuable crops of wheat, barley, &c. On the east shore are Colville, Rollo, Fortune, Howe, and Boughton Bays, all small harbours with thriving settlements of Highlanders and Acadians. We have now reached Cardigan Bay, on which George town, the intended chief town of the district is situated. It receives

(as before mentioned) three rivers, of which, however, the largest does not flow above twelve miles, and forms a spacious harbour, with a deep and safe entrance. Panmuro Island, situated at the entrance of the harbour, contains 800 acres of excellent land. In St. George's parish are several safe but small havens, all more or less sand-barred. St. Andrew's, at the mouth of the Montague, is a rising village. Murray Bay, in the parish of St. Andrew's, affords a well sheltered harbour, with a rather intricate entrance. Ships, brigs, and schooners are built here. The soil around is very fertile, but has not been many years under cultivation. The foregoing brief description is sufficient to show how admirably adapted Prince Edward Island is for carrying on an extensive fishery, while its level surface, abundantly irrigated, renders it equally favourable to the pursuits of agriculture, and with its singularly salubrious climate, make the little island an attractive spot to intending emigrants.

GEOLOGY.—Prince Edward Island is a pastoral country—neither limestone, gypsum, coal, nor iron, have yet been discovered, but in many places the earth and rivulets are deeply impregnated with metallic oxides; the soil is in general a light reddish loam—in some places approaching to a tolerably strong clay—in most districts more or less sandy, but where the latter inclines to a dark colour, it is very fruitful. Red clay for bricks, and white for common pottery purposes, are met with in abundance. The predominating rock is a reddish sandstone, but occasionally, blocks of granite are met with; in fact, the whole island seems to have been left dry in latter ages by the waters of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

The following is an abstract of the geological survey of the island by Dr. Gesner, which, although long, is too valuable to admit of further curtailment:—

“ Hillsborough Bay is an expanded sheet of water, situated between St. Peter's Island and Point Prim. It embraces three lesser bays, and receives a number of rivers. Of the latter, Hillsborough, York, and Elliot, or North River, are the most important. These, when united, form the harbour of Charlotta town, the capital of the island, which stands upon the extremity of a peninsula at the junction of these three streams. At this place the survey was commenced, and the descriptions will be given in the order in which they were made.

“ The rocks are most advantageously examined in this quarter at the entrance of the harbour, which is only half a mile wide. They here present perpendicular cliffs from 10 to 20 feet in height; they are

frequently undermined by the waves and currents, and are sometimes seen in heaps of *debris* that have fallen on the beaches. All these rocks belong to an extensive group of red sandstones that form the basis of the island, and also appear on the neighbouring coasts of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. At the mouth of the harbour they consist of brick-red sandstones, micaceous sandstones, gray sandstones, marly clay, and shales. The general direction of the strata is E. and W., and the dip is from 10 to 15° N. The strata are covered by *debris* from those rocks, sometimes to the depth of 20 feet. The soil is also red, and frequently underlain by a subsoil of stiff red clay.

The shores of east, north, and west rivers are seldom bounded by cliffs, but descend gradually to the water, being frequently skirted by tracts of peaty ground, salt marsh, and a mixed alluvium; the rocks are similar to those above-mentioned; and a section taken near the Indian encampment, at the mouth of the west river, corresponds with others taken several miles farther westward. Resting directly upon the rocks, there are frequently thick deposits of clay. One of these occurs opposite the town, near the Ferry Wharf, and on the property of Mrs. Desbrisay, and is very favourably situated for an extensive manufacture of bricks. In this district, and at many other places, a black porous sandstone, containing lignite, was observed; from its colour, and the presence of lignite, it has been supposed by some to be an indication of coal, but it seldom accompanies that important mineral.

Outside of the harbour of Charlotte town, eastward, the cliffs are from 30 to 40 feet high, or thus: diluvium, 14; red sandstone, 10; conglomerate limestone, 4; red and chocolate sandstones, 8 = 36 feet. Conglomerate limestone occurs near the entrance of Charlotte Town harbour both eastward and westward of the Blockhouse. At the before-mentioned cliff it forms a strata between the sandstones. It resembles the common conglomerate of the coal group, being apparently a collection of small pebbles cemented together; but instead of quartzose or flinty pebbles, the nodules of the limestone and the cementing matter contain carbonate of lime. A piece of this rock, of medium purity, yielded of 100 parts—carbonate of lime, 68; silicious residuum, 44 = 112. The limestone at this place is therefore sufficiently pure for the purposes of agriculture, but its situation is unfavourable for quarrying any great quantity. A thin stratum of white and compact limestone appears at Bellevue, on the farm of Mr. Charles Hazard. At Lobster Point strata are again seen in a bold cliff, and dipping N.N.E. at an angle of 4°. From the soil downwards to low-water mark, they are as follows:—diluvium, 6; red sandstone, 5; red shale, 5; red sandstone, 6; red marly clay, 5; sandstone, 6 = 37 feet.

From Lobster Point to Gallows Point the shore is low, and the mouths of the rivers and creeks are bordered by tracts of marsh, and the shores of the bay are lined with sandy beaches. Tea-hill, an eminence in a ridge of elevated land already noticed, discloses at several places rocks similar to those just named. Between the hill and Orwell Bay, and embracing the fronts of Lots 49 and 50, a large tract occupied by flourishing villages and bordered by marshes, is very low; much of the soil has been improved by the alluvium brought down by small streams that descend from the higher grounds. Marsh alluvium, or marsh mud and peat are abundant, and may be cheaply applied as compost manure.

Governor's Island, in Hillborough Bay, is situated

about five miles from the main land of which it once formed a part, the intervening land having been removed by the operations of the sea. At low tides the separating channels are still very narrow and shallow. The island contains upwards of 100 acres of excellent soil, a part of which is still covered by the original forest.

The rocks of Governor's Island are different in their character from those just noticed, and from a few fossils contained in them, they appear to belong to the coal-field of the opposite coast. They are compact gray sandstones, conglomerate, red and blue shales, marls, and limestones. Pieces of copper ore have been found on the N. side of Governor's Island. Upwards of 20 lbs. of the ore was obtained—the best samples contain 50 per cent. of pure copper. The site of the ore was once occupied by a tree which has been fossilised by copper, and the vegetable texture of the wood can still be traced in the compact cupreous masses.

Orwell, or Gallows Point, is a small peninsula between Pownal Bay and Orwell Bay. At its western extremity it is composed of rocks belonging to a coal formation—they are coarse and fine micaceous sandstones, conglomerates, red, white, and blue shales, fire clay, and blue compact, and conglomerate limestones. The general direction of the strata is N.N.E. 8°, but both are very variable, and the beds have evidently been much disturbed—at one place, a fault of four feet was observed. These rocks form a low indented cliff upon the shore, being covered by six feet of diluvium. Near the Point, a conglomerate limestone, like that of Governor's Island, appears near high-water mark, and thin strata of that rock occur in the cliff. This limestone also appears on the farms of Mr. Young and Mr. Mutch, where it gradually rises to the surface and becomes a compact blue rock, in a stratum from four to six feet in thickness. It is well situated for being quarried, and the limestone is of a good quality.

The sandstones and conglomerates of the Point contain the remains of trees and other plants characteristic of the coal measures. The trees are all prostrate in and between the strata; the original bark has been changed into coal, and the woody parts of the trunks are now seen in masses of sandstone, iron ore, or sulphate of barytes; in the latter, the vegetable fibre still remains distinct. They are quite different from any of the trees now growing upon the island. A very thin seam of coal was found in the face of the cliff, in which there is also a small quantity of the sulphate of barytes associated with iron ore.

The rocks of this imperfect coal-field were traced eastward into the country upwards of four miles, where they seem to terminate, or they are succeeded by the red sandstones or marls. At the extremity of Gallows Point, and opposite a low tract of peaty ground, there is a submerged forest: upwards of three acres are occupied by stumps and roots of the spruce, fir, and hemlock, which are covered by every tide, being from 4 to 8 feet below high-water mark. It is certain that these trees grew upon the spot where they are now seen, as their roots and the soil that nourished them are all present; their trunks have been broken down by the ice, and at low water the tract resembles the clearing of the new settler. From a variety of facts, it is probable that there has been a submergence of the land itself, of which there are proofs in different parts of the island. The rocks of the coal formation at Orwell Bay are succeeded by the red sandstones, which on the south side of the

may form perpendicular cliffs from 30 to 70 feet high. The strata run east and west, with a general dip south of 15°; they are coarse and fine red sandstones, red shales and marly clay.

"At Point Prim, and thence to Flat River, Belle Creek, and Wood Islands, the coast is low, and often bordered by shingle beaches. Pent swamps are numerous. The soil, having resulted from the disintegration of the rocks, is red; still there are small patches of white sand, the fertility of which might be much improved from the abundant supplies of marsh and mussel mud situated along the sides of the rivers, creeks, and inlets. Southward of the Wood Islands, and at Burnt Woods, the cliffs of sandstone and red marl will average 35 feet in height. The direction of the strata is E. 32° S., dip. N. 30°, E. 10°. Near the residence of Mr. W. le Lacheur small quantities of manganese ore were seen in the soil. Near Bear Cape there is a collection of peat exposed to the sea.

"The shore on the E. side of Colville Bay was evidently inhabited in former days by the native Indians; and, from the character of their relics, they appear to have been Micmacs, the descendants of whom are still upon the island. These relics consist of axes, spears, and arrow points, and rude pots made of stone; barbed fish-bones, which they employed in fishing, are also found. Some of the arrow heads are made of Labrador felspar, agates, hornstone, and jasper. The felspar is identical with that found at Labrador: the agates are like those of the Bay of Fundy; and, as none of these minerals have been found *in situ* on the island, it is very probable that the pieces used by the Indians were brought from those places. From East Point to the entrance of St. Peter's Bay, a distance of nearly 40 miles, the coast is straight, very level, and not indented by a single river-mouth or harbour. The shore is bounded by a series of perpendicular and overhanging cliffs, which are notched only at those places where the rocks descend into the sea.

"Near St. Peter's Bay the coast is bold, and the cliffs are from 50 to 75 feet high. Against these natural precipices the sea dashes with great fury, and from the yielding nature of the rocks the dilapidation of the coast is very rapid. Softened by meteoric agents, and expanded by the frosts of winter, immense masses fall in the spring, and the shore is covered by *debris*, which is soon broken up and removed by the waves, the sand being thrown inwards upon the land by gales of wind. Most of the strata on this shore are similar to those of the opposite coast—indeed they are the same strata continued across the island. The following section was taken in St. Patrick's parish—diluvium, descending 13 feet; fine red sandstone, 11; red shales, with their laminae of white limestone, 7; red marly clay, 8; red sandstones, 4; coarse red sandstones, 8; conglomerate, 12 = 63 feet.

"St. Peter's Bay is a narrow but deep indentation, and a safe harbour. Its mouth is protected by a chain of sandhills, having a narrow channel between them that is capable of admitting large ships at certain times of tides. These sandhills resemble the cones of extinct volcanoes; they are liable to constant change, and were they not covered with bent grass, they would be much more liable to drift away before the winds than they are at present. Near the mouth of the bay, a forest of hard wood, consisting of beech, birch, and maple, has been buried by the drifting sands; the ancient channel of the river has been filled

up; and the wharfs built by the French, who were the first civilized inhabitants, have all been buried in the shifting shingle. An opening formed by the sea during a gale, exposed a thick bed of oyster-shells and a number of Indian relics.

"The turnpike between St. Peter's and Charlotte Town passes over and between a number of diluvial gravelly mounds, frequently called by American geologists 'saddle-backs.' They are proofs of the former existence of powerful currents of water that have passed over the island previous to its elevation above the sea. Boulders of granite, sienite, trap, and other rocks are scattered over the surface of the southern division of the island, although they are less numerous here than they are farther north.

"The red sandstones, shales, and marly clay are again exposed at Cove Head, near the entrance of Little Rustico; they also appear at a number of localities at Grand Rustico and Hunter River. Great quantities of oyster and other shells are found upon the banks of the rivers and sides of the bays: they are sometimes six feet in thickness, and are covered by a soil containing much phosphate of lime. The separation of all the bivalve shells, and the rude instruments and even skeletons found in these deposits, show that they were made by the savages.

"At the fine settlement on the banks of Glasgow river the lands become more elevated, and they are broken by deep ravines, or narrow gorges. The rocks in this district, and on parts of the parishes of Grenville and Charlotte are chiefly coarse calcareous sandstones. The soil is a bright red clayey loam, and highly productive. The elevated ridges of wild land are covered with majestic forests of the hard woods. From New London Harbour to Richmond Bay the distance along the coast is about ten miles. The shore is again fronted by perpendicular cliffs from 40 to 60 feet high, called the 'Capes.' The rocks are thick and shelly strata of red and chocolate-coloured sandstones, with their beds of clay, and occasionally streaks of white limestone; the dip is very variable, and at many places the beds are horizontal.

"Sand-hills extend from Hog Island to Indian Island, and thence to Holland Harbour, or Cascumpee, the whole distance being upwards of 20 miles. They are only interrupted by the channel to Port Hill and Cavendish Inlet, and forming a barrier between the upland and the sea, they effectually prevent the washing away of the soil by the tides and waves. Between this barrier of sand and the main shore there is a beautiful lagoon, averaging a quarter of a mile wide, and with sufficient water to allow boats and canoes to pass. While the sea outside is agitated by gales, the water of the lagoon remains tranquil, and offers a safe and easy channel of communication. The shore side of the lagoon is skirted by small marshes, and the sea-wall side by beaches and collections of alluvium, which, at the time of my visit, were occupied by great numbers of plover, herons, ducks, and other kinds of birds. The sandhills are covered by bent grass, which protects them from the influence of the wind. This grass is sometimes mowed, and employed by the inhabitants for fodder. At the entrance of the lagoon, and occasionally throughout its whole length, there are boulders, some of which will weigh ten tons. They are forced towards the shore by an expansion of the ice during the severe cold of winter. The rocks, wherever they were observed, do not differ from those already described, but, in consequence of the shore being very low, only a few of the most superficial

strata can be seen. A few families are settled on the side of the lagoon, but the surface of the country generally is an unbroken wilderness. At one situation the hard wood forest is seen standing upon the very margin of the salt water. The sea has flooded in among the beech, birches, and maples, by which they have been killed, and large pieces of drifted wood were observed among the decaying groves of the upland.

"One of the most remarkable circumstances in regard to the geology of the island was observed at Cassin's Harbour. On the south side of the bay there is a peat bog called the 'Black Bank,' reaching three miles along the shore, and containing nearly 2,000 square acres. It reposes directly upon the red sandstone and marly clay, and is from ten to twenty feet in thickness. This bog, with all its decayed sphagnum plants, is of fresh-water origin. Two groves of spruce and fir were observed to be buried in it at different levels, and their trunks and roots may be seen projecting from the bank. The peat is of excellent quality, and will, in the course of time, be valuable.

"This deposit now forms one of the shores of the harbour, and at high water its lower part is seven feet beneath the level of the sea; it is constantly being washed away, and masses of it are seen scattered along the borders of the lagoon. At low water the side next to the bay is partially drained, so that the plants from which the peat has been derived have ceased to grow, and a part of the surface is quite dry.

"It is not improbable that the site of this peat-bog was once a lake which was gradually filled up by the growth and decay of the mosses and other plants; but if the lake had been below the common sea level, the tide would have found its way into it through the channel necessary to give exit to the streams coming in from the adjacent lands. Under such circumstances the mosses, spruce, fir, &c. could never have flourished, as sea-water destroys them; nor is it probable that this bog moved forwards like a glacier into the sea, from having the barrier between it and the gulf washed away. It is now as high as the surrounding land, and does not repose upon an inclined plane, over which it could move. The water of Cassumpee harbour is deep, and the shore is so bold opposite Savage Island, and near the residence of Messrs. W. and C. Woodman, that ships may lay afloat alongside of the land; yet, the surface of the earth is scarcely elevated seven feet above the top of a medium tide. From a variety of facts that might be quoted, it appears quite evident that parts of the island have been, within a comparatively recent period, submerged, while, perhaps, others may have been elevated.

"The evidences of elevation of different parts of the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence are evident from the collections of recent shells found in clay and marl beds now situated from 10 to 200 feet upwards above the present level of the ocean. In a very interesting paper, addressed by Captain Bayfield to Mr. Lyell, and published by the Geological Society of London, in 1839, this elevation of the land is stated to extend far up the river St. Lawrence. Besides this uplifting of the land at numerous places in British America, there has been a sinking down of the surface at certain localities; or, as it is understood by geologists, there has been a bending of the crust of the earth, by which some places have been elevated and others depressed—the eleva-

tion having, as it is supposed, exceeded the depression.

"Admitting, then, that the tract of country where the above peat-bog is situated was lowered, the sea would immediately have extended its bounds, overflowed a part of the country, and finally have its margin upon the border of this bog. Savage Island, composed of red sandstone and diluvium, is still above the water, and the waves have raised a bar of sand, which the winds have since lifted into a ridge that is now stretched across the mouth of the bay.

"Between Westmoreland and Hillsborough Bay the lands are elevated, being occasionally broken by steep hills and deep ravines. Near the mouths of Tryon, Brokelby's, Rice, and Allan Coves, and between the latter and Fort Amherst, there are perpendicular cliffs from 40 to 60 feet high. These cliffs are also composed of the red sandstones, shales, and conglomerates, with conglomerate limestone. The following section was taken between St. Peter's and Allan's Coves—diluvium 8 feet; conglomerate 4; red sandstone 10; red shale and marly clay 0; impure limestone 1; red sandstone 2; conglomerate limestone 4 = 35 feet.

"The course of the strata is N.E., with a general dip of 5° N.W. From the facts that have been noticed, and others that might be introduced, it appears very evident that, excepting the coal-field at Gallow's Point and the trap-rocks of Hog Island, Prince Edward Island consists of groups of red sandstone, the strata of which have been already described.

"Alluviums are produced by causes that are daily operating upon the surface of the earth. Frost, snow, rain, changes of temperature, &c., all tend to disintegrate the hardest rock, and finely divided mineral matter is constantly carried downwards by the shower, as well as by the flood, from the hills into the valleys, and spread along the borders of the streams by the overflowing of their waters. The sediment thus produced may be called the alluvium of rivers. Again, by the constant operations of the tides and waves of the sea, the shores are worn away, the sands of the sandstones and pebbles of the conglomerates are disunited and spread out in beaches, while the fine particles of clay and marl, from being mixed with the water, are transported to great distances, and finally thrown into the river mouths and estuaries, where they form estuaries of the sea.

"The alluvium of rivers and the alluviums of the sea, are often mixed on the coasts, the one being brought downwards by the fresh, and the latter upwards by the salt water. Such alluvial matter, whenever it is sufficiently drained, is the richest of natural soils, and, by being mixed with the sandy uplands, it will, in all ordinary cases, greatly increase their fertility. Alluvial deposits are very numerous on Prince Edward Island. At the extremity of Egmont Bay there is an alluvial tract of 2,000 acres. At Bedouque, lot 42, parish of St. Patrick, and other places, such tracts are also extensive. As the tides only recede a few feet, it is not probable that these tracts can be reclaimed by dikes, or embankments, yet they may be greatly improved even in their present condition, and they are valuable for the natural grass they produce for hay.

"Peat is formed by the growth of sphagnum or mossy plants. Ponds, lakes, and low tracts are frequently filled by the productive powers of vegetation. The mosses first begin to grow around the shores;

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each succeeding season yields a new crop; the preceding one having been buried beneath the water, where it is preserved from decomposition, and this process is carried forward until the lake or pond is filled. These plants will also close up the outlets by which the water makes its escape from low tracts. The result is the forming of ponds, and, as forest trees cannot grow in situations where their roots are constantly submerged, they decay, fall, and are finally buried in the peat, which spreads its annual layer even over the surface of the water. No sooner is the accumulation thus produced raised so high that there is not sufficient moisture on the surface to nourish the peat-forming plants, than the whole process is terminated, and the site becomes a barren waste. Peat bogs are numerous on the island, but, in general, they are small. The most extensive of them is at Casumpec harbour. It contains 2,000 acres. These bogs will supply a useful article for compost manure, and afford fuel, should it ever be required.

"*A Marly Clay* is found interstratified with the sandstones; it sometimes contains ten per cent. of lime. Its value for manure may be tested by the application of a few drops of muriatic acid, the quantity of lime present will be indicated by the briskness of the effervescence. It will be useful when applied to light and sandy soils, which the clay will render retentive of moisture.

"*Bog Iron Ore; or, Hydrated Peroxide of Iron.*—This ore appears in the soil, and in bogs in many places. It has evidently been washed from the soil, to which it imparts the colour of the rust of iron.

"Several deposits of the hydrated oxide of manganese, or black wad, are noticed; they have been collected by a process similar to that by which bog ore is produced. By the disintegration of rocks containing manganese, the ore is set at liberty and washed by rains into shallow basins on the surface. It is frequently found associated with the hydrated peroxide of iron, and mixed with clay.

"The remains of ancient forests, now submerged beneath the sea, are not uncommon on the coasts of North America. The trees are such as usually grow on low land, and with them peat sometimes occurs. Several sunken forests are mentioned in Professor Hitchcock's Geology of Massachusetts. During the geological survey of New Brunswick, I discovered a submerged forest on the south side of the island of Grand Manan. At different localities in Nova Scotia there appears to have been a subsidence of the land. At Prince Edward Island this remarkable fact may be seen at Gallows Point, but more especially at Casumpec, where, with a forest, a large peat bog is now beneath the level of the sea. Many theories have been proposed to account for such phenomena; yet it is probable that they can only be explained but by referring them to movements which are known to take place in the crust of the earth, whereby certain tracts are elevated and others are depressed.

"*Dunes or Sandhills.*—During storms the sand of the shore is often thrown up by the spray, and not withdrawn by the reflux of the wave, and having been dried by the heat of the sun, it is driven inland upon the land by winds, and forms considerable elevations. Such hills are called dunes, for which the borders of the Nile are celebrated. Chains of such hills are stretched across the mouths of nearly all the bays of the eastern coast of the island, where they form harbours with narrow channels, and contribute much to the beauty of the scenery. The sand is also blown upon the uplands, where it sometimes,

by its constant accumulation, proves to be a serious injury to agriculture. The principal dunes are covered with bent grass, which, when it is firmly rooted, prevents a further progress of the sand. Trees and beach grass are sometimes planted in other parts of the world to arrest the moving drift.

"On the inner side of these dunes, a good alluvial soil is sometimes collected, upon which wild plants grow luxuriantly, and some tracts would produce wheat and clover. From the great abundance of oysters and other mollusca on the shore, these sands occasionally contain comminuted shells, and will effervesce in the strong acids. Such sand, from containing the phosphate of lime would be beneficially applied to heavy clay soils.

"*Boulders.*—Along the whole line of the northern part of the American continent, where it skirts the Atlantic, loose blocks of granite, sienite, trap, greenstone, porphyry, and other rocks are found scattered over the surface, and on formations from which they are altogether different. They vary in weight from a few pounds to fifty and even a hundred tons. They occur in the plains and valleys, and upon the table lands and hills. In some instances the angles of these masses have been worn off, as if they had been submitted to friction upon sea coasts; again they appear with sharp edges, as if they had been recently removed from the quarry.

"These masses of rock are called boulders, and may be properly classed with a variety of diluvium found with them on the surface of the earth. The surfaces of the solid rocks at numerous situations where these boulders are seen, are found to be furrowed and scratched in certain directions, as if hard and heavy bodies had passed over them with great force and friction. These are called diluvial grooves, which were evidently produced by the passages of the boulders during their transport.

"The boulders of this part of America are situated southward of the mountain masses from which they have been removed, and they have been traced, by geologists, to their birth-places. I have found erratic blocks of stone belonging to the central granitic ridges of New Brunswick, fifty miles and upwards southward of their original sites; and boulders from the mountains of Gaspe are scattered over the low lands of the northern part of New Brunswick, having been transported across the Bay Chaleur to the distance of eighty miles. The size of the boulders usually diminish in proportion to their distances from the parent mass.

"The forces by which these blocks have been removed have been directed from the north towards the south. The diluvial grooves run from north-west to south-east, and north-east to south-west, and there are still greater variations in their courses, or such as would arise from the passage of a sea over submarine mountains. Without entering upon any full description of diluvial drift and the causes that have produced it, I may remark, that boulders of granite, sienite, trap, &c., appear occasionally in every part of the province; they are, however, far more numerous on the northern part of the island than to the south, a circumstance that accords with a fact already noticed. The boulders are not only found upon the surface, but also lodged in collections of diluvial detritus. The largest of these erratic blocks will weigh five tons and upwards, and as there are no rocks *in situ* of the kind on the island, some of them must have been transported to a distance of 200 miles and across the Gulf of St. Lawrence, where

it is 100 miles wide. Besides the boulders of igneous rocks among the drift at Crapaud, there are pieces of large fossil trees, like those of the strata, belonging to the coal-field of New Brunswick. These may have been imported from any part of the district between Bay Verte and Point Miscou, and over distances from 20 to 100 miles; certain it is they do not belong to the island, and therefore they are properly referred to the nearest rocks which contain fossil plants of a similar kind. Several theories have been proposed to explain the phenomena of boulders. Formerly, by many they were ascribed to the effects of the deluge recorded in the Mosaic history; but it is now known that causes are still in operation whereby they might have been transported. More recently an opinion has prevailed that they were moved by currents of water at that period when the districts where they are found were submerged beneath the sea. Still it is not probable that aqueous currents could ever have carried the boulders across the deepest sea channels to opposite shores, and up steep acclivities, even to the summits of mountains. By such causes masses of rock, gravel, sand, &c. are daily urged forward by the currents of rivers, but they do not afford satisfactory evidence that the boulders and diluvial drift, found under the above-mentioned circumstances, have been removed from their native situations to their present sites by the unaided operations of water.

"If we look to causes that are still active upon the earth, it will be observed that ice performs a most important part in the transportation of mineral matter. The immense icebergs and sheets that are annually formed in almost all the bays, rivers, and estuaries of the North American coast, embrace fragments of rocks, gravel, sand, drift-wood, and every thing that was in contact with them at the time of their congelation. In the spring, when by the heat of the sun the ice begins to dissolve, it is loosened from the shores, lifted by the spring tides, and carried by currents out to sea, or to other shores, with many of the materials it laid hold of during the months of intense cold. I have observed, also, that where the ice, loaded with boulders, is forced over the surfaces of rocks, they leave parallel grooves in the direction of the currents like those that occur on the faces of the strata now elevated far above the sea.

"This natural mode of transportation is carried on in a greater or lesser degree from the high latitudes where icebergs are formed, to the south, where water only freezes to the depth of a few inches; as the warmth of the spring or summer increases, and the ice dissolves, the transported rocks, sand, and gravel are liberated, and they fall to the bottom of the sea, are lodged upon its borders, or on the shores of the bays, inlets, and rivers. Minerals peculiar to the coast of Labrador are therefore found on the shores of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, and on the Atlantic side of Nova Scotia. The rocks on the Gulf of St. Lawrence are carried to opposite shores, and thousands of boulders drop annually from the ice to the bottoms of the bays, and are scattered along the coasts. I found blocks of red sandstone of the head of the Bay of Fundy, at the western extremity of Grand Manan, the distance between the two sites being upwards of 170 miles. The trap-rocks on the south side of the Bay of Fundy are exchanged for the slates and grauwacke of New Brunswick, the distance between them being from 40 to 70 miles. The sandstones of Cumberland are sometimes brought into the basin of Mines; and manufactured grindstones were identified, a few years

ago, that had been brought from the former to the latter place, a distance of 140 miles, in masses of ice.

"It will be admitted by every practical geologist, that the chief part of the stratified rocks of North America have been formed beneath the sea, a fact established by the numerous remains of marine animals contained in them. Long since these rocks were consolidated they have been submerged, as may be proved by the recent shells now found in beds of marl and clay several hundred feet above the level of the sea. That Prince Edward Island has been raised from beneath the waters of the gulf, few will doubt who carefully examine its valleys and beds of diluvium. Guided by much corroborative testimony, a part of which has been referred to as briefly as possible, I cannot refrain from expressing my opinion that the boulders of Prince Edward Island have been brought hither by ice during that period when its surface was beneath the waters of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

"*Diluvium*.—At many situations on the island, there are beds of small rounded stones, gravel, and sand, varying from 5 to 50 feet in thickness. These collections of *debris* often form chains of oval hills, and skirt the flanks of the valleys in such a manner as to impress the mind with the belief that they were thrown up by the agency of water. Indeed, the stratification of the gravel and sand which appears occasionally, renders it quite evident that currents of water have been active agents in their accumulation; yet, many of these superficial deposits bear no marks of stratification. By an examination of the materials of these deposits, it will be observed that the rocks and minerals of which the fragments are composed do not belong to their present sites, being different in their characters from any of the strata of which the island is composed. Their origin and situation may therefore be properly ascribed to the same causes that transported the erratic boulders. The melting of large masses of stranded ice loaded with gravel and sand, leaves mounds and elevations upon the present shores, and the hills of unstratified diluvial *debris* may therefore be accounted for by referring them to the melting of stranded ice during the boulder period. The appearance of such deposits would be much modified by the operations of currents of water, which have evidently opened many valleys, and spread the gravel out in strata.

"Another kind of diluvium is composed of pieces of red sandstone, red sandstone and clay, which in general repose upon the solid strata beneath. This *debris* has been derived from the red sandstones and shales of the island, and affords a more fertile soil than the imported variety. It is frequently mixed with the foreign drift, beneath which its principal beds are situated."

Climate.—All who have ever visited the island can bear testimony to the salubrity of its climate, which is neither so cold in winter nor so hot in summer as that of Lower Canada, while it is free from the fogs which spread along the shores of Cape Breton and Nova Scotia. One hundred years of age, without ever knowing a day's sickness, is frequent in the island; the air is dry and bracing; the diseases of the North American continent are unknown, and puny British emigrants attain, soon after their arrival,

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robust health and un wonted strength. No person ever saw an intermittent fever produced on the island—pulmonary consumption, so frequent in north and central America, is seldom met with—the greater proportion of the colonists live to old age, 90 to 100, and then die by a gradual decay of nature; deaths between twenty and fifty are very rare—accidents even included. It has been estimated that not one person in fifty inhabitants dies throughout the year; industry always secures a comfortable subsistence, and encourages early marriages; the women are often *grandmothers* at forty, and the mother and her daughters may each be seen with a child at the breast at the same time. Such is the happy condition of this simple and hospitable people, whose prospects are so far superior to that of their less fortunate brethren in England.

Mr. S. S. Hill, in his interesting "Short Account of Prince Edward Island," thus describes the climate:—

"The climate of Prince Edward Island is highly favourable to the pursuits of agriculture. It differs from that of England in the winter more than at any other season. The unwholesome and damp chills of an English winter are unknown in the island; and the diseases which a moist atmosphere originates, are uncommon at any time. The cold is more severe, and endures for a longer period; so that for about four months, all agricultural pursuits, properly so called, are of necessity suspended. But this is not of so much moment as to materially affect those interests which are connected with the soil; for the winter is both shorter and less severe in the island, than in those countries on the Baltic which export agricultural produce, and whose inhabitants are for the most part engaged in the rural occupations. The days too are considerably longer at that season in the island, than in those countries, which is material, both as to health and to labour.

"In the beginning of June, the summer bursts forth; and the natural forest, presenting to the eye every variety of vegetation, and filling the air with the fragrant perfumes of the native herbs of the island, gives abundant evidence of the fertility of the soil; and at the same time affords an opportunity for the lovers of nature to gratify their enthusiasm, or indulge their taste for contemplative enjoyment. The brilliancy of a summer night in the vicinity of the bays, cannot be surpassed by that which the finest climates under heaven exhibit. The wind is usually still, and the smooth surface of the water reflects the splendid lights of the firmament; and wherever the current runs, the fishes are heard sporting in the stream; and on the shore, whole acres are sometimes illuminated by the fire-flies, which emit flashes of light as they sport in the air; and now and then a torch is seen displayed at the bow of the canoe of some Indian engaged in spearing the eels.

"From this time, until the middle or the end of September, the climate resembles that of the southern coast of England. The thermometer, occasionally, during calm weather, shows a greater degree of heat than we experience in this country; but the sea

breeze seldom fails to lower the temperature, by the time the sun reaches the zenith, so that no inconvenience thence arises. But during the prevalence of the south-west winds, throughout the greater part of July, August, and September, the thermometer stands pretty steadily at from 75° to 80° of Fahrenheit during the mid-hours of the day; and, at night, the air is soft, wholesome, and agreeable.

"The hay harvest commences about the middle of July; and the white crops are usually cut between the middle and the last of August. About the middle of September the evenings begin to get cool, and the autumn properly commences. Nothing can exceed the beauty or the healthiness of this season of the year. The atmosphere is exceedingly rarified, and the deep azure of the clear sky reflects a darker shade upon the waters; and the forests, as they change from the rich green of summer to the thousand autumnal tints which the variety of their kinds exhibit, present scenery unsurpassed in beauty, or in the hopes of future plenty which they inspire, by any thing to be met with in the old or new world.

"The Aurora Borealis, though common at all times of the year, is, during the early part of autumn, more splendid than at any other season. It sometimes appears like the reflection of the lights of this great metropolis upon the sky; when seen from a distance upon a clear night; but it often covers the whole compass of heaven, and in red, blue, green, and yellow streams, illumines the wide expanse; and changing its colours as it continually flashes across the firmament, presents a spectacle unrivalled by any other phenomenon which nature anywhere displays."

Population.—We have no correct estimate of the progressive increase of the population; when taken from the French the island is supposed to have contained 6,000 Acadians; a great number of whom were afterwards removed. In 1802 the number of inhabitants was—males, 10,644; females, 10,007; total, 20,651: in 1822, males, 12,140; females, 12,460; total, 24,600: in 1825, males, 14,140; females, 14,460; total 28,600: in 1827, males, 11,976; females, 11,290; total, 23,266: in 1833, males, 10,840; females, 15,452; total, 32,292. In 1841, total population, 47,034; in 1849-50, about 55,000. Scotchmen form more than one-half of the whole population. The Acadian French are estimated at 5,000; but of the Mic-mac, or native Indians, there are probably not more than thirty families on the island. In 1841, the natives of England amounted to 2,650; of Scotland, 5,681; of Ireland, 5,193; of the British colonies, 1,755; of other countries, 194; and of Prince Edward Island, 31,561. Persons in connection with the church of England, 5,707; with the church of Scotland, 10,006; with presbyterians of Prince Edward Island, 5,089; with church of Rome, 20,430; methodists, 3,421; baptists, 1,609; other denominations, 772. The following complete census in 1841 shows in detail the state of the island:—

Census of the Population of Prince Edward Island, taken in the Year 1811, under the authority of the Act of 4th Victoria, Cap. 5.

Table with columns for Age Groups (Under 15, 15-40, 40-60, 60-75, 75-90, 90-100), Sex (Males, Females), and various religious denominations (Roman Catholics, Methodists, Baptists, etc.). Rows list individual townships and a Grand Total at the bottom.

Partial table on the right edge of the page, showing population data for townships like Charlottetown, Georgetown, and others.

LAND IN CULTIVATION, AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE, CATTLE, &c. 287

Statistical Return of Prince Edward Island, taken in the Year 1841, under the authority of the Act of 4th Victoria, Cap. 5.

NAME OF TOWNSHIP.	NUMBERS OF TOWNSHIP.	ACRES held in fee simple.	ACRES held under lease.	ACRES held by written demises.	ACRES held by verbal agreements.	ACRES held by occupants, being neither Freeholders nor Tenants.	Persons who paid their own purchases.	ACRES of Arable Land.	Produce, in bushels, raised during the year 1840.										Pigs of Weanish, School-boats, Breweries and Distilleries.	Cattle, Carriage and Saw Mills.		
									Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Peas.	Horses.	Next Cattle.	Sheep.	Hoops.	Pigs of Weanish.	School-boats.			Breweries and Distilleries.	Cattle, Carriage and Saw Mills.
One	130	6110	680	542	163	3006	2755	262	6863	25,389	174	711	1280	413	1	3	2					
Two	339	1012	1085	600	10	430	893	316	1310	859	61	212	436	100	1	1	1					
Three	5016	600	..	1070	57	661	599	133	799	547	96	134	213	113					
Four	130	2668	900	600	150	108	719	1086	136	1357	10,300	42	348	311	188					
Five	323	2250	310	510	250	94	691	2667	3028	10,774	66	497	807	115					
Six	..	791	..	100	1240	11	887	471	148	1652	7075	31	164	195	108					
Seven	3156	1650	230	59	740	1475	151	1117	11,540	19	253	416	195					
Eight	690	100	1800	17	400	850	303	719	6064	14	284	267	120					
Nine	800	800	800	138	811	268	1324	4307	9	58	134	8					
Ten	850	100	100	..	300	8	110	96	8	100	1230	4	24	38					
Eleven	100	1300	..	1300	100	87	94	140	1789	9731	50	373	853	197					
Twelve	622	390	800	..	840	176	308	476	831	5410	13	126	236	145					
Thirteen	5340	3030	994	245	100	90	2883	2527	498	6490	16,850	111	538	924	369					
Fourteen	5051	1509	250	200	2110	64	1200	1920	607	6848	21,323	114	646	1198	562					
Fifteen	8600	100	100	100	130	36	2989	1883	742	5890	27,070	156	847	937	462					
Sixteen	1360	4740	2330	80	608	107	2013	1894	2688	7531	13,259	116	676	1088	428					
Seventeen	18,159	2230	727	311	495	303	4938	4281	1157	17,472	49,621	912	1126	1729	783					
Eighteen	8069	5300	..	101	44	437	5470	866	18,403	29,980	268	1273	2317	929					
Nineteen	254	16,600	..	800	..	231	1121	1464	445	6984	16,290	86	288	827	353					
Twenty	1700	7633	165	300	1470	337	2972	2671	940	14,182	34,118	184	676	1638	428					
Twenty-one	3112	9912	800	1850	704	197	4327	7313	3443	17,393	65,920	324	1604	2684	1502					
Twenty-two	12,657	847	..	569	..	60	9730	3017	881	10,360	21,823	103	687	1183	444					
Twenty-three	1697	4314	..	1165	120	359	4913	1891	2688	14,182	34,118	184	676	1638	428					
Twenty-four	4703	4242	150	2937	440	230	2269	2625	1258	11,472	23,840	154	632	1143	681					
Twenty-five	7019	16,084	329	143	..	130	5657	6206	4649	20,694	81,325	338	1312	3114	895					
Twenty-six	292	10,467	1571	1473	..	430	3607	5008	3431	11,392	26,288	292	754	1309	610					
Twenty-seven	683	7144	..	800	1090	311	328	290	2308	425	473	263	115	682	4					
Twenty-eight	3400	2302	405	372	..	171	1607	1367	1029	7092	24,697	112	475	644	448					
Twenty-nine	8878	8689	410	618	..	311	3994	4235	2210	26,969	40,071	275	1683	1666	698					
Thirty	443	9284	..	188	1045	177	1347	1922	780	7534	31,416	139	479	751	683					
Thirty-one	339	13,427	1634	498	80	497	6337	8299	4182	26,677	66,554	400	1962	2678	1342					
Thirty-two	130	10,003	2418	200	100	249	2783	2397	1809	13,753	42,628	238	856	1499	832					
Thirty-three	..	8917	3702	1530	230	427	1835	1325	1331	11,703	40,266	122	710	811	669					
Thirty-four	440	9284	..	188	1045	177	1347	1922	780	7534	31,416	139	479	751	683					
Thirty-five	5312	1868	850	97	42	62	1120	1344	1280	537	23,775	121	478	852	337					
Thirty-six	2835	440	..	662	70	77	1985	1219	755	5167	17,660	184	396	639	445					
Thirty-seven	440	9284	..	188	1045	177	1347	1922	780	7534	31,416	139	479	751	683					
Thirty-eight	365	1340	..	8462	425	124	1065	131	1361	684	20,442	120	544	1038	360					
Thirty-nine	375	1740	..	500	1430	50	1352	811	1938	6082	27,216	133	422	892	404					
Forty	1556	4164	817	544	250	32	1892	1400	2031	8883	48,441	191	622	1164	827					
Forty-one	2145	472	..	200	729	98	1448	1139	2353	7050	40,698	140	842	896	725					
Forty-two	2563	400	..	7571	143	1723	391	2612	8408	45,967	148	630	1273	890					
Forty-three	1729	1042	360	..	1530	50	878	642	1794	6117	26,419	65	371	622	374					
Forty-four	5459	3714	102	2739	2685	5100	17,447	37,638	248	1013	2032	1192					
Forty-five	2948	8459	..	53	131	194	2997	3601	1969	15,379	66,746	184	734	1349	476					
Forty-six	6405	423	140	317	4691	147	4230	4147	2340	20,845	84,678	271	1164	1160	865					
Forty-seven	7436	6684	100	310	238	137	3531	3774	1707	17,318	68,376	236	1243	1960	814					
Forty-eight	6285	800	..	2640	935	61	850	912	323	2771	20,024	86	235	410	202					
Forty-nine	1850	430	..	675	2947	49	891	730	422	2834	10,385	74	233	425	315					
Fifty	1334	2036	..	1752	209	39	1164	1384	851	5022	25,540	98	438	800	391					
Fifty-one	1603	256	..	100	2831	19	815	449	286	3586	10,400	42	246	228	214					
Fifty-two	8346	30	..	80	128	1203	1374	1929	781	87,320	130	789	1055	634					
Fifty-three	709	5691	..	250	300	63	1407	1286	1009	6168	37,220	142	656	829	594					
Fifty-four	8972	16,472	..	211	50	795	4466	2437	1801	23,118	63,700	250	1273	2333	652					
Fifty-five	8454	1530	50	150	50	225	2983	1690	784	10,935	27,670	131	511	968	358					
Fifty-six	1598	1488	100	129	364	95	996	1143	580	4437	18,550	94	333	497	325					
Fifty-seven	2703	1285	200	158	..	240	1438	931	340	6628	17,669	65	333	723	231					
Fifty-eight	1229	1878	390	420	406	94	767	1155	745	3797	17,343	72	284	479	333					
Fifty-nine	1920	3087	..	1165	287	1385	684	396	674	20,340	80	263	678	374					
Sixty	1335	1237	106	50	970	76	857	1483	1892	4564	22,200	60	365	422	151					
Sixty-one	2402	2983	775	..	3285	184	1480	1544	808	4184	40,510	133	446	1189	348					
Sixty-two	4129	5986	1029	3218	690	359	8698	1739	1167	47,379	69,000	119	713	1069	593					
Sixty-three	63	2430	19	232	157	38	622	6930	15	93	72	96					
Sixty-four	6344	100	400	1400	..	268	924	1309	201	4841	13,710	51	424	538	303					
TOTAL	229,805	228,273	32,224	41,101	60,199	1,156	135,197	145,471	79,847	581,977	2,153,995	9262	40,190	70,998	33,779	6770	100	7177				
Charlottetown	6516	692	..	132	..																	

GOVERNMENT.—Prince Edward's Island has its own lieutenant-governor, council, and House of Assembly, constituted after the manner described in the preceding colonies; it is perfectly independent of the governor-general at Quebec in the civil administration of its affairs; its military are under the control of the Nova Scotia Commander of the Forces. The executive consists generally of nine, and the legislature of six members, appointed by the mandamus of the sovereign; and the Assembly comprises twenty-four members, elected by the people as in the other North American colonies. The form of procedure is that of the British Parliament. There is a Court of Chancery regulated after that at Westminster, over which the governor presides—and the jurisdiction of the colony is under the direction of a chief justice. The laws are English.

Military Defences.—The militia includes 2 lieutenant-colonels, 13 majors, 120 captains, 137 lieutenants, 118 ensigns, and 12 adjutants. The total force, officers and men, is 7302. There are four troops of cavalry, a detachment of artillery, and three regiments of infantry. The military defences comprise the St. George's battery of 11 guns in Charlotte town; Kent battery of 4 guns on the government house ground; York battery at the west entrance of the harbour, and a block house with 4 guns.

Religion.—Prince Edward Island is in the diocese of Halifax. There are six clergymen of the established church, of whom five are paid by the London "Society for Propagating the Gospel in Foreign Parts." The rector at Charlotte town receives from the Treasury £100 per annum, £100 a-year from the London Society for Propagating the Gospel, £360 a-year as garrison chaplain, £70 a-year for a house from his parishioners, and surplice fees. Churches are building in different parishes. There are no parsonage houses, and the glebes have been sold and devoted to education. The number of people professing different forms of religion, and the number of churches or temples of worship in each township are shown in the statistical table at page 287.

Education is promoted by a central academy at Charlotte town, which has 90 male pupils, a national school, with 30 male and 10 female pupils; and 110 district schools in different districts, which cost the colonial government about £1,000 a-year. Three school visitors superintend the district schools, one for each county, and report

annually to the legislature. There are two newspapers, efficiently conducted. Three infant schools were established in 1842 at Charlotte town, George town, and St. Eleanors, chiefly through the exertions and pecuniary aid given by Captain Orlebar, of the Royal Navy, who was employed upon the survey of the island. The master and mistress, Mr. and Mrs. Hubbard, were trained at the Gray's Inn Road Institute, London, and a committee of ladies, communicants of the Church of England, are entrusted with the supervision. Instruction is given to 100 children of ages varying from three to ten years, and in four years the number of pupils amounted to 530. The schools were devised for the benefit of the poor, and the scale of charges was two-pence a-week for children above six years of age, and three half-pence for younger children. The Bible is read daily, hymns sung, and cleanliness, truth-telling, and honesty enforced. A library is attached to each school. The system has answered well, and is worthy of imitation.

Crime—in 1847. In prison, felons 3 tried, 2 untried. Debtors, whites, males 60; females, 3; blacks, 2. Total number in confinement at Michaelmas, of all classes, 134.

Finance.—The first revenue attempted to be levied for the support of the government, as before stated, was the quit-rents—these failing in their extent, a parliamentary grant was applied for and obtained. In 1821 the revenue collected was £2,052; in 1826, £4,935; in 1836, £8,887; in 1846, £17,279.

Items of Revenue.	1846.	1847.
Impost on wines and spirits by permanent colonial enactment	£1,189	£1,839
Ditto by annual colonial enactment on wines and spirits, and an <i>ad valorem</i> on certain goods and wares	9,816	14,058
Land assessment	1,660	1,824
Spirit licenses	2-2	309
Tonnage duty	316	303
Post office	624	933
Rent of Warren farm	25	25
Wharfage, Charlotte town	175	178
Interest on bonded duties	273	121
Colonial secretary's fees	119	142
Her Majesty's customs	1,734	1,416
Incidental receipts	196	303
Rent land sales	512	201
Surplus money of sales	—	—
Under land assessment act	480	—
Immigrant tax	—	79
Total	17,261	22,631

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From 1836 to 1848, the annual parliamentary grant was £3,970. The sum voted for the year 1849 was £2,000,—namely, £1,500 for the salary of the governor, and £500 pension to C. D. Smith, Esq., which was granted in 1824. The island will probably soon defray entirely its civil expenditure.

The Expenditure of Prince Edward Island was, in 1828, £6,749; in 1836, £16,477; in 1847, £21,574; and in 1848, £ . . . The civil establishment costs about £5,200; roads, bridges, and wharfs, £2,600 to £3,200; public buildings, £2,000; House of Assembly, £1,500; legislative council, £500; schools, £1,000; interest on outstanding warrants, £1,500; seed, grain, &c. to destitute settlers, £2,500; sheriff and gaol expenses, £300; printing and stationery, £330; lunatic and indigent persons, £280; coroner's inquest, £60; and various other items.

Paper Currency.—£11,650, issued by the government; and about £10,000 issued by banks in the neighbouring provinces.

Coin in circulation.—About £20,000

Weights and Measures.—According to the standard of England.

Commerce.—In 1827, the total value of the imports was about £27,000, and the exports about £18,000. The imports in 1847 were valued at £143,647, and the exports at £71,228. The shipping built and exported are not included in this sum of £71,228. In 1846, eighty-two vessels were built in Prince Edward Island, whose tonnage was 12,012; and the value, at £5 to £6 per ton, would be about £66,000. In 1847, there were built 96 vessels; tonnage, 18,445. The vessels registered in the island in 1847 were, under 50 tons—number, 147; tons, 4,056; 50 tons and upwards—number, 90; tons, 9,805. The imports consist chiefly of manufactured goods, and the exports, of grain, potatoes, timber, fish, and ships.

The trade of Prince Edward Island with different countries is thus shown for 1847:—

Ports.	Imports from				Total.	Exports to				
	Great Britain.	British West Indies.	British North America.	Foreign Countries.		Great Britain.	British West Indies.	British North America.	Foreign Countries.	Total.
Charlotte town . . .	£18,868	£257	£50,913	£6,375	£106,500	£17,263	£219	£15,105	£194	£33,475
Three Rivers . . .	1,548	—	15,069	600	17,305	9,913	—	4,217	325	14,116
Bedeque . . .	30	—	2,388	—	2,418	782	—	4,922	—	5,704
Casampec . . .	0	—	349	—	349	409	—	1,737	—	2,117
Malpeque . . .	6,833	—	2,151	—	8,987	3,241	—	6,305	—	9,537
Colville Bay . . .	0	—	6,205	—	8,215	468	—	5,417	—	5,886
Total . . .	£37,213	£267	£79,101	£7,665	£143,654	£32,196	£219	£38,063	£821	£71,224

Among the *imports* from Great Britain, at the port of Charlotte town, are—£16,894 of dry goods; £4,589 of hardware; £5,698 of cordage; £4,126 of iron; £12,528 of sundries. Among the *exports* to Great Britain, are—oats, 96,177 bushels; value, £5,322; timber, 4,769 tons, £3,991; deals, 1,197,902 feet, £2,836. The imports and exports of the other ports, as to trade with Great Britain, are in the same proportion.

Manufactures.—There has been recently established at Charlotte town an iron foundry; and there is an establishment for drying, fulling, and dressing cloth at the same place. Linens and flannels are made for domestic use; and the colonists tan and dress leather.

Prices.—Wheat, 8s.; barley, 2s. 9d.; oats, 1s. 9d.; potatoes, 2s. 6d., per bushel; hay, per ton, £3 to £3 10s.; wheaten bread, per lb., 4d.; horned cattle, £5; horses, £15; sheep, 12s.; swine, £1; butter, per lb., 1s.;

milk, per quart, 4d.; cheese, 7d.; beef, 4d.; mutton, 3d.; pork, 3½d.; coffee, 1s.; tea, 4s.; sugar, 6d.; salt, 1d., per lb.; wine, 10s.; brandy, 12s.; beer, 1s., per gallon; tobacco, per lb., 1s.

Rages.—Domestic, £16 per annum.

Prince Edward Island is essentially an agricultural colony, and admirably adapted for industrious emigrants with small capitals. Crop after crop of wheat is raised without manuring; the barley is excellent, and oats much superior to any other of American growth; the potatoes and turnips cannot be exceeded anywhere; and peas and beans are equally good. Cabbage, carrots, and parsnips are produced as good as any in England; in fact, all the produce of English gardens will thrive here equally well.

The climate is particularly favourable to sheep; they are not subject to the rot, or any disease common to sheep in this country; they are small, but of excellent flavour; the

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1847.	
89	£1,839
16	14,958
60	1,824
32	309
16	303
24	533
25	25
75	178
73	121
19	142
74	1,416
96	303
512	201
—	—
180	—
—	79
261	22,631

common size is about 60 pounds the carcass.

The rivers abound with trout, eels, mackerel, flounders, oysters, and lobsters, and some salmon; and the coast with cod-fish and herrings in great abundance. The latter, soon after the ice breaks away in the spring, rush into the harbours on the north side of the island in immense shoals, are taken by the inhabitants, in small nets, with very little trouble; and, as salt is cheap (not being subject to duty), most families barrel up a quantity for occasional use. The lobsters are in great abundance, and very large and fine. In Europe, this kind of shell-fish is only taken on the sea-coast amongst rocks; at Prince Edward Island they are taken in the rivers and on shallows, where they feed on a kind of sea-weed, called by the islanders eel-grass; and a person wading into the water half-leg deep might fill a bushel basket in half an hour. Many schooners are annually laden with oysters for Quebec and Newfoundland. The plenty of fish, and the ease with which it is procured, is of great assistance to the inhabitants, and in particular to new settlers, before they have time to raise food from the produce of the land. Hares and partridges are plenty, and are free for any person to kill; and in the spring and autumn great numbers of wild geese, ducks, and other water fowl visit the island.

The fisheries of Prince Edward Island have not been sufficiently attended to. The herring fishery is of great importance: it commences early in the spring, when the bays and harbours, particularly on the north side of the island, are no sooner clear of ice, than they are filled with immense shoals of those fish, which may be taken in any quantity: they are larger, though not so fat, generally, as those taken off the western coasts of Ireland and Scotland, and partake more of the character of the Swedish herring. Alewives, or gaspereau, although not so plentiful as the herring, appear in large quantities. Mackerel are in great abundance on the coast and in the harbours, from June to November. Cod are taken extensively in every part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, more particularly on the coast of Prince Edward Island, the bay of Chaleur, and in the straits of Belleisle. Trout are found everywhere extremely fine, and often very large: the halibut caught some-

times weigh 300 pounds. Sturgeons are common in the summer months in all the harbours, some measuring six to seven feet in length. Perch are found in the rivers and ponds that have a communication with the sea. Indeed, if the fisheries of this fine island were more attended to, they would add much to the value of property, while their pursuit would stimulate the progress of agriculture and the colonization of the settlement. In 1847, the quantity of dry fish exported was 7,440 quintals; and of pickled, 667 barrels.

The island could support with ease ten times its present population, as almost the whole area is capable of cultivation, and the augmentation of its commerce and revenue shows the prosperous state of the colony. Dr. Gesner says, "In few places have there been greater changes of fortune. Individuals of wealth and respectability, by misguided speculations, have been reduced to poverty; and persons without education, capital, or experience, have rapidly risen to affluence. A person who, a few years ago, came from England in the capacity of a cook, was employed in a ship-yard, and recently his former master was among the number of his servants. He now owns extensive tracts of land, farms, mills of different kinds, and a great variety of other property. During the past year he has built no less than ten ships, and loaded them with timber for Great Britain. He is a man of influence, and has several times been elected a member of the House of Assembly. There are not thirty words in his whole vocabulary, yet all his sayings and doings are characterized by sound sense and correct judgment."

The former custom of granting leases of land for 999 years, at an annual rent varying from one to two shillings per acre, still prevails; for the first, second, and third years no rent is required—then three-pence per acre, and this sum is annually increased until the maximum of two shillings is attained. Proprietors are reducing the term to 99 years, which is reasonable. When land may be thus obtained in the British Empire on such low terms, capable of yielding all the necessaries of life, it is to be hoped that the parishes of England will avail themselves of such means to provide permanently for the relief of the rate-payers, and for the employment of their able-bodied poor.

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BOOK V.—NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION, AREA, AND HISTORY.

THE island of Newfoundland is situated on the N.E. side of the main entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, between $46^{\circ} 40'$ and $51^{\circ} 39'$ N. lat., and between $52^{\circ} 44'$ and $59^{\circ} 31'$ W. long. It is divided from the coast of Labrador on the N. and N.E. by the straits of Belle Isle (which do not exceed 12 miles in width, and offer a difficult and circuitous passage into the Gulf:) its southwestern extremity approaches within 50 miles of Cape Breton, and on the N.W. the Gulf of St. Lawrence separates it from Canada. Newfoundland is the nearest to Europe of any part of America; the distance from St. John's, in Newfoundland, to Port Valentia, on the west coast of Ireland, being 1,656 miles. Bouchette states its extreme length, measured on a curve, from Cape Race to Grignet Bay, at 419 miles; its extreme width, from Cape Ray to Cape Bonavista, at about 300 miles, and its circuit at little short of 1,000 miles. Its area comprises about 36,000 square miles.

HISTORY.—According to tradition (supported, it would appear, by historical evidence of considerable weight) the island was discovered by Biarne, or Biorn, a *sea king*, or pirate of Ireland, who, being driven thither by contrary winds, is said to have taken shelter near Port Grace harbour, about the year 1,000. Robertson and Pinkerton were of opinion, that Newfoundland was first colonized by the Norwegians. Some years ago, a party of settlers, proceeding up a river which falls into Conception Bay, observed at a distance of six or seven miles from the bay the appearance of stone walls rising above the surface. On removing the sand and alluvial earth, they ascertained these to be the remains of ancient buildings, with oak beams, and millstones sunk in oaken beds; inclosures resembling gardens were also traced out, and plants of various kinds, not indigenous to the island, were growing around. Among the ruins were found different European coins, some of

Dutch gold, considered to be old Flemish coins, others of copper, without inscriptions.

According to a paper furnished to the Royal Geographical Society, doubts are entertained of the antiquity of the buildings, which are supposed by Captain Robinson to be probably of no more ancient date than the settlement of Lord Baltimore; but the finding of coins of virgin gold is not questioned. This, however, is a matter of antiquarian research, which does not come within the limits of the present work. We, therefore, pass on to the re-discovery of the island by Cabot, who, having obtained a commission from Henry VII. during his first voyage in 1497, observed a headland, which he called Prima Vista.

"It has been conjectured by some," says lieutenant-colonel Sir Richard Bonnycastle, in his valuable work, entitled *Newfoundland in 1842*, "that Cabot must have meant Labrador as the place of his discovery, because there are no white bears" (mentioned by Cabot in the brief account of his voyage, written by him on a map, which was deposited in the Privy Gallery at Whitehall,) "in Newfoundland. This, I apprehend, is false reasoning. There is a place even on the south coast called White Bear Bay, and it is quite probable that the polar bear has, like the walrus or sea-horse, been driven away by the increasing fisheries." However this may be, it certainly was discovered by Cabot in this voyage, and, on that account, ever after claimed by Britain. In 1550, the *new-found* island was visited by Cortereal, who, after giving Conception Bay the name it still bears, sailed along the coast of Northern America, then called Baccalaos, from an Indian word signifying cod-fish. The fisheries of Newfoundland speedily drew attention; and the crew of an English ship, on returning home, stated that they had left 40 vessels,—Portuguese, French, and Spanish, engaged therein. The details of the voyage of Verrazano, in 1525, on which

the French founded their claim to Newfoundland and the adjacent provinces, are exceedingly vague. In 1534, Jacques Cartier arrived at Cape Bonavista, and, on his return to France, was most favourably received. An expedition was fitted out, under his direction, in the following year, whose success has been already mentioned at the commencement of the history of Canada. About this time several attempts were made by England to colonize Newfoundland. "Master Robert Hore," a merchant of London, "with divers other gentlemen," sailed in 1536, thinking to winter there; but the crew were nearly starved to death, compelled to resort to the most loathsome expedients, and would have perished had they not met with a French ship laden with provisions, which they seized, and brought to England. Henry VIII. of England satisfied the French claim for indemnity by paying for the seized vessel. The expedition, in 1583 of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, the half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, has been already recounted, (see page 3, Vol. I.) but the following detail respecting the death of the gallant adventurer may not be unacceptible:—"Sir Humphrey, on his return from surveying the coast in the *Little Squirrel*, learned the wreck of the *Delight* from those who had escaped. He then reluctantly made preparations for crossing the ocean, declaring that he 'would fit out an expedition royally, and return next spring.' He was strongly urged to quit the nut-shell in which he had embarked, and go on board the *Golden Hind*. His reply is characteristic of the brother-in-law of Raleigh, 'I will not forsake my little company, with whom I have passed so many storms and perils.' They reached the Azores in safety, but there encountered a storm of so terrible a nature that it quailed their hearts, Sir Humphrey alone retaining his self-possession. The *Golden Hind* kept as near the *Little Squirrel* and her brave admiral as the perilous mountains of water would permit, and the crew, in their dismay, saw him sitting and calmly reading on the deck, and heard him bid them be of good cheer, 'for,' said he, 'we are as near to heaven by sea as by land.' At night the blackness of darkness fell upon the ocean, the lights in the *Squirrel* suddenly disappeared, and this is all that will ever be chronicled of the fate of one of the bravest of the adventurers who sought, in the glorious reign of Elizabeth, to extend the dominion of England in the western

world. Of all the armament the *Golden Hind* alone reached England, and she was a mere wreck."—(See Bonnycastle's *Newfoundland* in 1842, and Hackluyt, page 679.)

In 1585, according to our next accounts, a voyage was made to Newfoundland by Sir Bernard Drake, who claimed its sovereignty and fishery in the name of Queen Elizabeth. Sir Bernard seized several Portuguese ships laden with fish, and oil, and furs, and returned to England; but, owing to the war with Spain, and the alarm caused by the Spanish armada, several years elapsed before another voyage was made to the island. An effort for its colonization was made in 1610, in virtue of a patent granted by James I. to the Lord Chancellor Bacon, Lord Verulam, the Earl of Northampton, Lord Chief Baron Tanfield, Sir John Doddridge, and forty other persons, under the designation of the "Treasurer and Company of Adventurers and Planters of the Cities of London and Bristol for the Colony of Newfoundland." The patent granted the lands between Capes St. Mary and Bonavista, with the seas and islands lying within *ten* leagues of the coast, for the purpose of securing for ever the trade of fishing to British subjects. Mr. Guy, an intelligent and enterprising merchant of Bristol, who planned this expedition, settled in Conception Bay, remained there two years, and then returned to England, leaving the colony (of whose capacities he had given a somewhat exaggerated description in his letters home), in charge of William Colston, whose report concerning the island is far less favourable. Twenty-five of the settlers were seized with scurvy, six of whom died, the rest had recovered, it is stated, by using turnips. Guy went back in the summer of 1612, and exerted himself successfully in the arrangement of the colony. He undertook a survey of the coast, and met with two canoes of Red Indians, with whom he held friendly intercourse. From this period little is known of him; he appears to have subsequently abandoned the settlement, which, deprived of his energy and example, soon languished.

In 1615, Captain Whitbourne, a contemporary of Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Bernard Drake, who had himself made many voyages to Newfoundland, was sent there with a commission from the admiralty, to establish order, investigate the abuses complained of by the fishermen, and repress the flagrant dishonesty too generally manifested. Immediately on his arrival he held a court,

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at which one hundred and seventy masters of vessels submitted themselves to his jurisdiction, and he endeavoured to open harbours in the most frequented harbours. Two years from this period, Whitbourne was appointed chief of a body of Welshmen, dispatched by Doctor Vaughan to form a settlement called Cambriol (now Little Britain) in the south part of the island, on land purchased from the patentees. The first effort, however, which can be said to have been attended with permanent success, was that made in 1623 by Sir George Calvert, afterwards Lord Baltimore, who having obtained the grant of a considerable tract between Cape St. Mary and the Bay of Bulls (corruptly so called from the French name, "Baie des Boules,") determined upon establishing himself there with a number of his countrymen, who, with him, belonged to the church of Rome. The settlers fixed their head-quarters at Ferriland, where Lord Baltimore built a strong fort and good house, in which he resided until about twenty years from the first foundation of the settlement, which he called Avalon, from the ancient name of Glastonbury, where Christianity was first preached in Britain. At the expiration of this period his lordship returned to England, and through the favour of Charles I. founded a colony on the shores of Maryland, from which arose the fine city which bears his name. Another colony was sent to Newfoundland from Ireland by its then lord lieutenant Cary, Lord Falkland. In 1635, the king granted permission to the French to cure and dry fish, on condition of their paying five per cent. of the produce. In 1660 they formed a settlement in the Bay of Placentia, which they long continued to occupy. In 1654, Sir David Kirk, having obtained from parliament a grant of land, proceeded thither with a few settlers; notwithstanding the continual bickering between the British and the French, who had established a colony at Placentia, the British population had increased to about 350 families. In 1663 we find a very interesting document issued by Charles I., and directed to the Lord Treasurer and others, desiring them "to erect a common fishery as a nursery for seamen;" and containing the first regulations for the "governing of his majesty's subjects inhabiting in Newfoundland, or trafficking in bays." In this year the British fisheries were exempted entirely from tax or toll, and the island would doubtless have rapidly increased in population

and prosperity but for the unjustifiable line of conduct pursued by the board of trade and plantations, to which they were instigated by the selfish jealousy of the parties by whom the fisheries were carried on. In 1670 Sir Josiah Child, the principal person connected with them, published a pamphlet to prove that the cod fishery had declined since 1605, which he stated then employed 250 vessels, and did not now engage above 80. He imputed this decrease to the boat fishery carried on by the inhabitants along the coast, and he urged that if they were permitted to multiply, they could carry on the whole fishery, and the nursery of seamen be thus destroyed. He therefore advised not only the forcible prevention of any further immigration taking place in Newfoundland, but urged the remedy of displanting. To the calm and dispassionate reader it must appear barely credible that such a suggestion could be for a moment entertained, much less acted upon by a British government, yet this was actually the case. In the year 1667 the residents had applied for a governor, but their request had been set aside in consequence of its being violently opposed by the English merchants; in 1674 they renewed their application, which was rejected, and Sir John Berry was sent out with orders for the deportation of the settlers, the destruction of their houses, and in fact the entire uprooting of the thriving colony which had been reared at the heavy cost of the energies, treasure, and even life-blood, of several of England's best and bravest sons. Happily for the wretched people, Sir John Berry was a man of humane character, and while mitigating as far as lay in his power his cruel commission, he sent home strong remonstrances against the misery which he was reluctantly compelled to occasion. In 1676, Mr. Downing, one of the residents, obtained an order from the king, to prevent any further persecution, accompanied however by strict injunctions, forbidding any vessel to take out emigrants, or any person to settle in Newfoundland. Complaints constantly assailed the government that these laws were evaded; representations were made on one side and counter-representations on the other, but no further rigorous measures appear to have been taken, and in 1697 the board of trade published a report, stating that a number of inhabitants, not exceeding one thousand, might be usefully employed in constructing boats, stages for drying the fish, and other

matters connected with the fisheries. On the accession of William III., war broke out with France, one of the causes on the part of Britain being set forth as follows:—"That of late the incroachments of the French upon Newfoundland, and his majesty's subjects' trade and fishery there, had been more like the invasions of an enemy than becoming friends, who enjoyed the advantages of that trade only by permission." The French on their part avowed their desire to attain exclusive possession of the island. In September, 1692, commander Williams attacked Placentia, but owing to the spirited defence of the French governor, the expedition succeeded only in burning the works on Point Vesti. On the other hand Chevalier Nesmond, in 1696 arrived with a squadron, and aided by the force on the island, made a descent on the town and harbour of St. John, but having failed he returned to France. Before the close of the year the French were more successful, for another squadron arriving under Brouillan, he in concert with Ibberville the French commander, attacked St. John, which being now short of military stores, and in a very defenceless state, was compelled to surrender, upon which the town and fort were set on fire, and the garrison sent on parole to England.

The French admiral appears to have done nothing further in consequence of a misunderstanding with Ibberville, who commanded the troops, proceeded to destroy by fire and the sword all the British stations, excepting those at Bonavista and Carbonier (on Conception Bay), where he was successfully resisted by the settlers; he then returned to Placentia. "The dogs of war" seemed now fairly let loose on the unhappy island, whose possession both France and England showed themselves resolved to contest to the uttermost. A British squadron, with 1,500 men on board, was dispatched, under the command of admiral Nevil and Sir John Gibson, but owing to the cowardice of one commander and the ignorance of the other, nothing was effected to retrieve the disastrous position of affairs, until the peace of Ryswick, in 1698, put an end to hostilities, and replaced matters, as far as possible, in the position they were in prior to the war. Several acts of parliament were passed, regulating the fisheries (now declared free to all his majesty's subjects) and the importation of fish, taken by foreigners in foreign ships, was strictly prohibited. An attempt was made to remedy the disorder

and misrule which had now reached an alarming height, by directing that the master of the first ship arriving at any station, should receive the title of admiral for the season, and the second and third those of rear and vice-admirals, and that they should be invested with a certain jurisdiction over the scamen and fishermen. The effect of the shifting and irresponsible tribunal thus established proved very unsatisfactory, for the judges, notwithstanding their high-sounding titles, were repeatedly bribed by presents of fish to give false decisions, as might have been expected from the general laxity which had long prevailed. The brief interval of peace was very differently employed by the rival nations. The French wisely encouraged colonization, and gradually occupied the most important positions in Newfoundland; the English continued to discourage it, and speedily experienced the effects of their misjudged policy, since, in the war which began in 1702, Newfoundland (in the words of Sir Richard Bonny-castle) "instead of having a hardy native population to resist or overwhelm their ambitious and restless neighbours, had to depend on the occasional presence of ships of war." On the declaration of the famous "war of the succession," Sir John Leake was immediately dispatched by Queen Anne with a small squadron, to take possession of the whole island, which he failed in doing, although he succeeded in destroying several French settlements and capturing a number of vessels, with which he returned to England at the close of the year. In August, 1703, admiral Graydon was sent with a fresh fleet off the coast of Newfoundland, but owing to a fog, which continued with great density for thirty days, his ships were dispersed, and could not be brought together till the 3rd of September. He then called a council of war, as to the practicability of attacking the stronghold of the French, at Placentia, and it was decided that it would not be prudent to do so with the force at his disposal; on which he returned to England, where his conduct was severely censured. In 1705 the garrison of Placentia, reinforced by 500 men from Canada, attacked the British colonists, and attempted to become sole masters of the island by attacking the harbour of St. John's, where they were repulsed, but they succeeded in gaining possession of several settlements, destroyed Fort Forillon, and spread their ravages as far north as Bonavista. In 1706, the British

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again expelled them from their recent conquests, and Captain Underdown, with only ten ships, destroyed several of the enemy's vessels in the harbours along the coast, notwithstanding that the French had as many as ten armed vessels on that station. Although parliament earnestly entreated the queen to "use her royal endeavours to recover and preserve the ancient possessions, trade, and fisheries of Newfoundland," little attention was paid to their urgent address, the whole disposable force being assigned to the Duke of Marlborough, at that time in the midst of his victorious career. The French, however, notwithstanding their repeated disasters on the continent, still found leisure to persevere in their endeavours for the expulsion of the English from Newfoundland, and accordingly St. Ovide, the French commander at Placentia, having effected a landing without being discovered, within five leagues of St. John's, attacked and completely destroyed it, on the 1st of January, 1708.

The French then seized on every English station except Carbouier, which was again bravely defended by the fishermen.

The news of this misfortune produced great excitement in England, as the possession of the fisheries had ever been considered a point of immense importance, and an expedition was ordered, under Captain G. Martin, and colonel Francis Nicholson, to attempt to dispossess the French, but little was effected beyond the destruction of a few fishing stations. The British government being fully occupied by the events then taking place on the continent, were unable to take any immediate measures for the recovery of Newfoundland; but at the close of the war their brilliant successes enabled them to demand its restitution, which Louis XIV. was no longer in a condition to refuse, and by the celebrated treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, Louis conceded the exclusive sovereignty of Newfoundland and the adjacent islands to Great Britain, but retained for his subjects the right to cure and dry fish on the coast lying between Cape Bonnavista, on the eastern side, and Point Riche, on the western, and also to occupy the islets of Pierre and Miquelon, with a garrison of fifty men on each. Of this permission the French availed themselves so actively, that in 1721 they employed 400 vessels in the trade, and not only supplied France with fish, but even rivalled the British in the ports of Spain and the Mediterranean, al-

though they also were actively engaged in carrying on the fisheries. In spite of every disadvantage colonization was making rapid strides, and in 1729, on the representations of Lord Vere Beauclerk, the naval commander stationed at Newfoundland, the island was withdrawn from the nominal administration of the governor of Nova Scotia, and formed into a separate province. Captain Henry Osborne, of H.M.S. Squirrel, was appointed governor and commander-in-chief, but required by his commission to obey the instructions of Lord Vere Beauclerk. He was empowered to appoint justices of the peace and other officers, and copies of *Shaw's Practical Justice of the Peace*, and of the leading enactments relating to the country, were sent to the eleven principal stations. The governor was indefatigable in his exertions: he built a jail and court-house, and held his courts of record according to the laws of England, notwithstanding the opposition he encountered from the "fishing admirals," while even from the justices of the peace appointed by himself he did not receive zealous support, as according to chief justice Reeves, "partly from the indifference of some of the justices in their offices, who thought they suffered in their way of trade, and got the ill-will of the people they dealt with, and partly from the incapacity of others, the commissions of the peace were but indifferently executed." The home government at length awakened to the necessity of establishing a regular system of jurisdiction in Newfoundland, would no longer be influenced by the intrigues of an interested and selfish party, and to this end measures were discussed and adopted. In 1742, a court of admiralty was appointed, and in 1751, much difficulty and expense having arisen from the local authorities not having the power of life and death, Captain Drake, then governor, was directed to appoint commissioners of Oyer and Terminer for the trial of felons in Newfoundland. In 1754 Lord Baltimore renewed his claim for the tract of country called the Province of Avalon, but the board of trade decided the title to have lapsed. At this period the naval governors (according to Sir R. Bonnycastle) usually remained in charge of the ships appointed to protect the fisheries for two or three years, going home at the close of every autumn, and living chiefly afloat. In 1765 war recommenced between France and England, and Newfoundland was left in a very defenceless state, of which a French

squadron taking advantage, arrived in the Bay of Bulls in 1762, and succeeded in capturing St. John's, Carbonicr, and the village of Trinity. Tidings of these disasters were dispatched to Lord Colville, the British commander-in-chief, then stationed at Halifax, who lost no time in obeying the summons, and succeeded in dislodging the French, and obliging their Admiral (de Ternay) to make a precipitate retreat. The zealous exertions of the colonists, and the decided loyalty manifested by them, deserve especial notice. Two remarkable instances are cited by Sir R. Bonycastle. One gentleman, Mr. Carter, of Ferryland, supported the garrison and inhabitants who had fled from St. John's to the Isle aux Bois, from the 24th of June to the 9th of October, 1762, by procuring provisions and other necessaries, although he could obtain them only with great difficulty, and at an exorbitant price; and Mr. Charles Garland, then a merchant at Carbonicr, in Conception Bay, paid, fed and supported a detachment of men who garrisoned a large battery on an island near the mouth of the harbour, and raised numerous squads of sailors for the temporary use of the fleet. On the 10th of February, 1763, by the famous peace of Paris, France formally yielded Newfoundland with the other American colonies, and England confirmed the thirteenth article of the Treaty of Utrecht, by the fifth and sixth articles of the Peace of Paris, of which articles I subjoin a copy:—

"*Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.*—Art. 13.—The island called Newfoundland, with the adjacent islands, shall from this time forward belong of right wholly to Great Britain; and to that end the town and fortress of Placentia, and whatever other places in the said island are in possession of the French, shall be yielded and given up, within seven months from the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, or sooner, if possible, by the most Christian king, to those who have a commission from the queen of Great Britain for that purpose. Nor shall the most Christian king, his heirs and successors, or any of their subjects, at any time hereafter, lay claim to any right to the said island or islands, or to any part of it, or them. Moreover, it shall not be lawful for the subjects of France to fortify any place in the said island of Newfoundland, or to erect any buildings there, besides stages made of boards, and huts necessary and usual for drying fish; or to resort to the said island beyond the time necessary for fishing and drying of fish. But it shall be allowed to the subjects of France to catch fish, and to dry them on land, in that part only, and in no other besides that, of the said island of Newfoundland, which stretches from the place called Cape Bonavista to the northern point of the said island, and from thence running down by the western side, reaches as far as the place called Point Riche. But the island called Cape Breton as also all others,

both in the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, and in the gulf of the same name, shall hereafter belong of right to the French; and the most Christian king shall have all manner of liberty to fortify any place or places there."

"*Treaty of Paris, 1763.*—Art. 5.—The subjects of France shall have the liberty of fishing and drying, on a part of the coast of the island of Newfoundland, such as it is specified in the 13th article of the treaty of Utrecht: which article is renewed and confirmed by the present treaty (except what relates to the island of Cape Breton, as well as to the other islands and coasts in the mouth and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence) and his Britannic majesty consents to leave to the subjects of the most Christian king the liberty of fishing in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, on condition that the subjects of France do not exercise the said fishery but at the distance of three leagues from all the coasts belonging to Great Britain as well those of the continent as those of the islands situated in the said Gulf of St. Lawrence. And as to what relates to the fishery on the coasts of the island of Cape Breton out of the said gulf, the subjects of the most Christian king shall not be permitted to exercise the said fishery but at the distance of fifteen leagues from the coasts of the island of Cape Breton; and the fishery on the coasts of Nova Scotia or Acadia, and everywhere else out of the said gulf, shall remain on the foot of former treaties."

"Art. 6.—The King of Great Britain cedes to the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, in full right, to his most Christian majesty, to serve as a shelter to the French fishermen; and his said most Christian majesty engages not to fortify the said islands; to erect no buildings upon them, but merely for the convenience of the fishery, and to keep upon them a guard of fifty men only for the police."

In 1763, the coast of Labrador was annexed to the government of Newfoundland. Whales and seals were at that time the chief objects of pursuit on the coast; the trade was carried on by sloops and schooners from British America, and yielded a very valuable produce. In 1764, captain, afterwards Sir Hugh Palliser, was sent out as governor, and a collector and comptroller of customs, established at St. John's, and in the following year the navigation laws were extended to Newfoundland, notwithstanding the opposition made by the merchants and fishing adventurers. Sir Hugh, by his energy and love of justice, did much for the colony, and greatly ameliorated the condition of the poor fishermen, whose rights he strenuously maintained. By his advice an act was passed, commonly called "Sir Hugh Palliser's Act," by which the masters of vessels are compelled, under a heavy penalty, to secure the return of the seamen to England, and to pay them in money instead of in articles of supply. Newfoundland was increasing in population and importance, when it received a severe check from the revolt of the American colonies, who having renounced all commer-

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cial intercourse with the mother country, were, after some discussion, excluded from the fisheries. These colonies then furnished Newfoundland with produce to the amount of £350,000 annually, and it was supposed that this intercourse being still left open to them, they would, without doubt, continue to avail themselves of the large profits which it afforded. This, however, was not the case, their exports were discontinued, and the people of Newfoundland were saved from starvation only by the most strenuous exertions on the part of Britain. Large supplies of food were sent out, and liberal bounties granted to the fisheries. A law passed in 1775, allowed £10 to the first twenty-five ships, £20 to the next hundred, and £10 to the second hundred, which should land a cargo of fish in Newfoundland before the 15th July, and proceed to the banks for a second lading. In 1778, a treaty offensive and defensive between France and the United States was concluded, upon which vice-admiral Montague took possession of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and sent to France 1932 French, whom he found residing there. In 1783, peace was for a brief interval again restored; the following extracts from the treaty of Versailles show the terms agreed upon between the kings of England and France, with regard to Newfoundland and the fisheries:—

Treaty of Versailles, 1783.—Art. 4. "His Majesty the King of Great Britain, is maintained in his right to the island of Newfoundland, and to the adjacent islands, as the whole were assured to him by the thirteenth article of the treaty of Utrecht; excepting the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, which are ceded in full right, by the present treaty, to His most Christian Majesty."

Art. 5. "His Majesty the most Christian King, in order to prevent the quarrels which have hitherto arisen between the two nations of England and France, consents to renounce the right of fishing, which belongs to him in virtue of the aforesaid article of the treaty of Utrecht, from Cape Bonavista to Cape St. John, situated on the eastern coast of Newfoundland, in 50° North lat.; and his Majesty the King of Great Britain consents, on his part, that the fishery assigned to the subjects of his most Christian Majesty, beginning at the said Cape St. John, passing to the north, and descending by the western coast of the island of Newfoundland, shall extend to the place called Cape Ray, situated in 47° 50' lat. The French fishermen shall enjoy the fishery which is assigned to them by the present article, as they had the right to enjoy that which was assigned to them by the treaty of Utrecht."

Art. 6. "With regard to the fishery in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the French shall continue to exercise it, conformably to the fifth article of the treaty of Paris."

Declaration of his Britannic Majesty.—1. "The King having entirely agreed with his most Christian Majesty upon the articles of the definite treaty, will

seek every means which shall not only insure the execution thereof, with his accustomed good faith and punctuality, but will besides give, on his part, all possible efficacy to the principles which shall prevent even the least foundation of dispute for the future. To this end, and in order that the fishermen of the two nations may not give cause for daily quarrels, his Britannic Majesty will take the most positive measures for preventing his subjects from interrupting, in any manner, by their competition, the fishery of the French, during the temporary exercise of it which is granted to them upon the coasts of the island of Newfoundland; and he will for this purpose cause the fixed settlements, which shall be formed there, to be removed. His Britannic Majesty will give orders that the French fishermen be not incommoded in cutting the wood necessary for the repair of their scaffolds, huts, and fishing vessels."

"The thirteenth article of the treaty of Utrecht, and the method of carrying on the fishery, which has at all times been acknowledged, shall be the plan upon which the fishery shall be carried on there: it shall not be deviated from by either party; the French fishermen building only their scaffolds, confining themselves to the repair of their fishing-vessels, and not wintering there; the subjects of his Britannic Majesty on their part, not molesting in any manner the French fishermen during their fishing, nor injuring their scaffolds during their absence."

"The King of Great Britain, in ceding the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon to France, regards them as ceded for the purpose of serving as a real shelter to the French fishermen, and in full confidence that these possessions will not become an object of jealousy between the two nations; and that the fishery between the said islands and that of Newfoundland shall be limited to the middle of the channel."

"MANCHESTER.

"Given at Versailles, the 3rd September, 1783."

Counter Declaration of his most Christian Majesty.

"The principles which have guided the King in the whole course of the negotiations which preceded the re-establishment of peace must have convinced the King of Great Britain that his Majesty has had no other design than to render it solid and lasting, by preventing as much as possible, in the four quarters of the world, every subject of discussion and quarrel."

"The King of Great Britain undoubtedly places too much confidence in the uprightiness of his Majesty's intentions, not to rely upon his constant attention to prevent the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon from becoming an object of jealousy between the two nations."

"As to the fishery on the coasts of Newfoundland, which has been the object of the new arrangements settled by the two sovereigns upon this matter, it is sufficiently ascertained by the fifth article of the treaty of peace signed this day, and by the declaration likewise delivered to-day by his Britannic Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary; and his Majesty declares that he is fully satisfied on this head."

"In regard to the fishery between the island of Newfoundland, and those of St. Pierre and Miquelon, it is not to be carried on by either party but to the middle of the channel; and his Majesty will give the most positive orders that the French fishermen shall not go beyond this line. His Majesty is firmly persuaded that the King of Great Britain will give like orders to the English fishermen."

"Given at Versailles, the 3rd September, 1783"

The rights of fishing conceded to the citizens of the United States are clearly specified in the accompanying extract:—

Treaty of 1783.—Art. 3. "It is agreed that the people of the United States shall continue to enjoy unmolested the right to take fish of every kind on the Grand Bank, and all other Banks of Newfoundland, and also in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and at all other places in the sea, where the inhabitants of both countries used at any time heretofore to fish; and also that the inhabitants of the United States shall have liberty to take fish of any kind on such part of the coast of Newfoundland as British fishermen shall use (but not to dry and cure the same on that island), and also in bays and creeks of all other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America; and that the American fishermen shall have liberty to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbours, and creeks of Nova Scotia, Magdalen Islands, and Labrador, so long as the same shall remain unsettled; but so soon as the same or either of them shall be settled, it shall not be lawful for the said fishermen to cure and dry fish at such settlements without a previous agreement for that purpose with the inhabitants, proprietors, or possessors of that ground."

In 1785 the resident population of Newfoundland, amounted to 10,244, who had 8,034 acres of land under cultivation, but this increase in numbers, and civilization, only made more evident the inefficiency of the existing system of government, to restrain disorders, redress grievances, and settle the questions respecting the rights to landed property and ship-room, concerning which memorials were continually sent to England. In 1789, admiral Milbanke was appointed governor, with authority to form a Court of Common Pleas, which, however, failed to produce the desired effect, and in 1792 a Supreme Court of Judicature was established, with surrogate courts in the principal districts, John Reeves, Esq. being sent out as chief justice. War was again declared between England and France, but this time Newfoundland, instead of suffering thereby, received much benefit. The British squadron was not only sufficiently strong to protect the fisheries, but also to exclude the other European nations, while the United States had not then the power of entering into any formidable rivalry. In 1814, the exports are said to have risen to £2,831,528. In the same year peace was concluded, and the British government (or rather Lord Castlereagh), notwithstanding the urgent remonstrance of the merchants and others connected with the trade, conceded to France the same privileges which she had possessed previous to the war, by virtue of the following article in the treaty of Paris:—

Treaty of Paris, 1814.—Art. 8.—"His Britannic Majesty, stipulating for himself and his allies, engages to restore to his most Christian Majesty, within the term which shall be hereafter fixed, the colonies, fisheries, factories, and establishments of every kind which were possessed by France on the 1st of January, 1792, in the seas, and on the continents of America, Africa, and Asia, with exception, however, of the islands of Tobago and St. Lucia, and the Isle of France and its dependencies, especially Rodrigues, and Les Sechelles, which several colonies and possessions his most Christian Majesty cedes in full right and sovereignty to his Britannic Majesty, and also the portion of St. Domingo ceded to France by the treaty of Basle, and which his most Christian Majesty restores in full right and sovereignty to his Catholic Majesty."

Art. 13.—"The French right of fishery upon the Great Bank of Newfoundland, upon the coasts of the island of that name, and of those adjacent islands in the St. Lawrence, shall be replaced upon the footing in which it stood in 1792."

In virtue of this treaty, the French set up an *exclusive* right of fishing on that part of the coast, where they only possessed a *concurrent* privilege.

Newfoundland suffered a serious diminution, both in the quantity of fish secured, and the price obtained for it, by the severe competition to which the British were immediately subjected, and the contest was rendered very unequal by the large bounties with which the French government supported their subjects, and the encouragement given them in supplying foreign markets. In February, 1816, the capital, St. John, was almost destroyed by fire, and the inhabitants were reduced to extreme distress, relieved only by the prompt assistance of the neighbouring colonies, and of the citizens of Boston, in the United States, by whom they were gratuitously supplied with food. The loss is said to have amounted to upwards of £100,000, and 1,500 people were driven, in the most inclement season of a Newfoundland winter, to seek refuge on board the shipping in the harbour, and failing that, to find shelter where they could. But the misery of the unfortunate people, rendered the more acute by the brief season of high prosperity which they had enjoyed during the war, had not yet reached the climax. On the 7th of November, in the following year, another calamitous fire broke out in St. John's, by which thirteen merchants' establishments and 140 dwelling-houses were totally consumed. The value of the property thus destroyed (including large supplies of provisions and goods) was estimated at £500,000, and on the 21st of the same month, another fire burnt 56 of the remaining houses down to the ground.

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The winter of 1818 is said to have been most unusually severe, and in the midst of it Admiral Pickmore, the first naval officer who had been directed to remain on the island during the winter season, expired, being the first of a long succession of administrators, for a period of sixty-eight years, who died in the colony. In the convention with the United States, negotiated during this year, the opportunity was taken not only of confirming but of extending the stipulations with regard to the fisheries, contained in the former treaty. "Whereas," says the convention, "differences have arisen respecting the liberty claimed by the United States for the inhabitants thereof, to take, dry, and cure fish on certain coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America: it is agreed between the single contracting parties, that the inhabitants of the said United States shall have *for ever*, in connection with the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, the liberty to take fish of every kind on that part of the southern coast of Newfoundland which extends from Cape Ray to the Quipron Islands, on the shores of Magdalen Islands, and also on the coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks, from Mount Joly, on the southern coast of Labrador, to and through the Straits of Belleisle, and thence northwardly, indefinitely along the coast, without prejudice, however, to any of the exclusive rights of the Hudson's Bay Company."

Admiral Pickmore was succeeded by Sir Charles Hamilton as resident governor; the cod and seal fisheries became less depressed, and a brighter era again dawned upon the colony; but the system of legal jurisprudence was still far from giving satisfaction, and in 1824 a bill passed the imperial government by which the island was divided into three districts, in each of which a court was annually to be held. A chief and two puisne judges, a sheriff, and other law officers were appointed. In 1830 the Chamber of Commerce at St. John's sent a vessel to try the *exclusive* right claimed by the French to fish on the western coast, from Cape St. John to Cape Ray, on our own island. The commander of the vessel sailed to St. Croque, was warned off by the commander of a French schooner mounting 16 guns, and a 32-gun frigate. The following is an abstract of the report of the English commander respecting his mission; the report itself was transmitted officially to the British government, but no steps have been taken to secure at least the

concurrent right of fishing to which the English are entitled. Commander Sweetland on arriving in St. Croque harbour states as follows:—

"Sent two boats fishing, which were driven from their anchorage by French boats dispatched for the purpose by Captain Deloram. They did not attempt to injure the men, but merely weighed their anchors, and ordered them to leave the coast, threatening, if they persisted in fishing, to cut them adrift, and force them to quit. Same day came in the French naval schooner *Philomele*, of 16 guns, commanded by Monsieur Lavoe, and anchored some little distance below us. She had not been at anchor many minutes, when the commander came on board to inquire my business. On being told I came to fish, said I must depart. In reply, stated that I came to assert my right as a British subject to fish there, and that nothing short of force would compel me to leave the port. He would see the captains, and send for me in the evening. Sent for accordingly, and I went on board the *Philomele*, when I met Monsieur Sayers, who had a fishing establishment at Croque. He asserted the exclusive right of the French to that part of the coast assigned them by treaty. I as strenuously insisted on my right, as a British subject, to fish there in common with them, as well as the Americans. This latter remark drew forth from Captain Lavoe first the minister's instructions on the subject of the American fishery on the north-west coast of the island. Denied their right, and were ordered to prevent them by every possible means. His instructions respecting the English fishermen were next produced. Instructed the French commanders not to permit the ingress of British fishermen more than was necessary for the protection or repair of their property in the winter, or during the absence of the French. That, according to their construction of the treaty, they had an exclusive right to the fishery on that coast, or that part of the island set apart to their use; therefore they were to be particular with those tolerated by the merchant captains, and to make them understand that they were suffered to reside amongst them, and to fish, not as a matter of right, but as an act of courtesy; and with regard to all other British subjects, they were, by every means in their power, to prevent their acquiring a right to fish on the coast; and in the execution of the instructions on that head, they were to be governed by the instructions relative to the Americans, viz. not to use compulsion in the first instance, but a gentle opposition, and an intimation to depart, which hitherto had been found sufficient; but if the parties were obstinate, then force was to be resorted to, in order to effect their departure.

"He then went into instructions relative to a salmon fishery at Cod Roy, in which a merchant of the name of Hunt was interested. That his men were in possession of it, and, although within the limits of the French coast, maintained themselves in their post by beating off the crew of a French vessel, sent expressly from France to possess themselves of it the previous year. That, since seeing me in the morning, he had seen the captains, who were unanimous in their determination to prevent my crew from fishing, and therefore he could not sanction my doing so; that I was not to attempt it again. That he should not attempt to remove me from the harbour; that I might remain as long as I pleased; he could not be so unfeeling to any Englishman who

300 EXCLUSIVE RIGHTS OF FISHING ASSERTED BY THE FRENCH.

came in his way. Was particular in expressing his opinion that I had not any right, and that they were determined to prevent any boats from fishing, as often as they attempted it.

"I of course desisted from any further effort, but waited on the commander of the *Philomèle*, with my protests against Monsieur DeJoram and others who had opposed me. He declined receiving them, and read the copy of a letter which he had addressed to the senior captains, directing them to prevent the Hannah's crew from fishing at Croque, or any other part in the French shore.

"The number of ships employed this season by the French in this fishery were 206 in all, viz.—From Grainville, 110; St. Maloe, 110; Pampol and Benwick, 30; Havre, 4; Nantz, 6. Total, 266 from 100 to 350 tons burthen, having 51 men and boys each, amounting in the whole to 13,566, one-tenth portion of whom were boys. This number surpassed considerably the governor's estimate, a very good reason for which was assigned to me by the French gentleman from whom I received the information. Each establishment had two, some four cod seines, from 10 to 30 fathoms deep, and 200 fathoms long. Their capelin seines were from 21 feet to 50 in depth: two were held by each establishment. The cost of a cod sein crew amounted for the season to 6,000 livres, and the catch thereof to 1,200 quintals.

"From the numerous interviews I had with the merchants and the naval commanders, it was apparent that they considered the cod fishery on that coast as their own, and that they would not consent to any competition, unless an equivalent were granted them: hence the orders issued by the ministers, the copy of which, handed me by the commodore, was similar to that displayed by Captain Lavoe:—viz. *That the Americans were to be driven from the coast, and the British not to be countenanced in greater numbers than were necessary for the security of the French property in the winter.* The absolute right of salmon fishery did not appear to be so strenuously insisted on as that of the cod; indeed, from the contest at Cod Roy, immediately within their own limits, and the evasive reply of the commodore on the question respecting it, together with other circumstances, it did not appear to me, that they considered they had any right to the brooks, or the shores of the harbours, other than that of catching and curing cod fish thereon.

"To the soil they had not any claim, further than that portion necessary for the purposes of their fishery. To insure sufficient space for that purpose they have invariably selected the best and most capacious situations in each harbour, and by occupying the whole front, preclude the possibility of any other person approaching the situation selected for this scene of their business.

"The coast abounds with timber of very excellent description for the purposes of the fishery. The land is good, for the most part producing every species of grass spontaneously, and in great abundance, free from bogs, and not a rush to be found on it or any portion of it. Indeed I could not discover any that could be deemed marshy, or at all approaching to it.

"A long period has since elapsed without any benefit resulting to this community, as the fruit of the expedition, which was sent forth at some considerable expense to the merchants at St. John's.

(Signed) "WM. SWEETLAND."

The practical effect of the claims enforced

by the French of exclusive rights on our coast, and which as justly may be claimed on the coast of Sussex, is the virtual cession of the larger and better half of Newfoundland to France. So strong were the national feelings at one period respecting the value of the British fisheries, that—

"The Act of 10th and 11th William and Mary declares the trade and fisheries of Newfoundland a beneficial trade to the kingdom, in the employment of a great number of seamen and ships, to the increase of her majesty's revenue and the encouragement of trade and navigation.

"The same parliament came to a resolution, 'that the trade of Newfoundland doth very much promote navigation, increase seamen, and is of great profit to the nation.'

"The privilege of fishing ceded to the French by the Treaty of Utrecht was loudly condemned; it formed one of the principal grounds of impeachment against the Earl of Oxford, 'that he, the said Robert, Earl of Oxford, and Earl Mortimer, in defiance of the express provisions of an Act of Parliament, as well as in contempt of the frequent and earnest representations of the merchants of Great Britain, and of commissioners of trade and plantations, did advise his majesty finally to agree with France that the subjects of France should have liberty of fishing, and drying fish in Newfoundland.'

"The committee of secrecy, in 1715, on the Treaty of Utrecht, reported, 'What was really of most importance to England was the 8th Article, which relates to Hudson's Bay and Newfoundland; but the ministry suffered themselves to be grossly imposed upon in the article that they directly gave to France all they wanted, which was the liberty of taking and drying fish in Newfoundland. And as the acceptance of this amendment was to put an end to all the differences, and, at the same time, give such ample advantages to France, the French readily agreed to it, and did insert the article verbatim as it was sent in the treaty of commerce, which makes the 9th article as it stands; and is the same which was requested by the last parliament. This article, which has since been so universally and justly condemned, appears to be the work of the English ministry, and the price for which they sold to France the fishery of Newfoundland.'

Mr. Pitt declared, in the House of Commons, that no exclusive rights had been granted to the French. "*The fishery,*" said he, in reference to the claim of Spain, "*is a point we should not dare to yield though the Spaniards were masters of the Tower of London!*" The present excellent governor, Sir G. Le Marchant, reports that, by means of the French proceedings, "*the British Bank fishery has ceased to exist.*"

The subjects of the crown in Newfoundland feeling deeply the importance of the matter, have again brought it under the consideration of the colonial legislature, and a committee of the House of Assembly have in consequence made the following report thereon:—

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The Newfoundland Fisheries.—"The Bank and Shore Fisheries have engaged the deep attention of your committee. These important subjects have not hitherto been investigated by the legislature; they have therefore considered it their duty to take a general review of them from the earliest period. These fisheries are coeval with the colonial dominion and maritime superiority of England. Newfoundland was her earliest colonial possession; the fisheries, the first nursery of those seamen that gained for her the dominion of the ocean, and with it her vast, unbounded colonial empire, and the trade of the world.

"Soon after the discovery of the island by Cabot, in the reign of Henry VII., the fisheries gave employment to a considerable number of ships and seamen. As far back as the year 1549, an Act of the British Parliament (Edward VI.) was passed for the better encouragement of the fisheries of Newfoundland. During the reigns of Elizabeth, James I., Charles I. and II., the trade and fisheries engaged much of the attention of the Crown and Parliament. There were two hundred and sixty ships employed in the Newfoundland fisheries in the reign of Elizabeth. The seamen nursed in these fisheries mainly assisted in manning her fleets, which defeated the powerful *Armada* of Spain.

"Charles I., in a commission for well-governing his subjects of Newfoundland, observes, 'the navigation and mariners of the realm have been much increased by the Newfoundland fisheries.' Various Acts were passed in the reign of Charles II., and measures were adopted to revive the fisheries of Newfoundland, which had greatly declined. The preamble of the Act 10th and 11th William and Mary declares, that 'the trade and fisheries of Newfoundland is a beneficial trade to the kingdom, in the employing of a great number of seamen and ships, to the increase of Her Majesty's revenue, and the encouragement of trade and navigation.'

"The Act 15th George III. declares the fisheries to be 'best nurseries for able and experienced seamen, always ready to man the Royal Navy when occasion may require; and it is of the greatest national importance to give all due encouragement to the said fisheries.'

"In 1763, Lord Chatham, then Mr. Pitt, negotiated in the first instance the treaty of Paris, which upon his resignation of office was concluded by Lord Bute. Lord Chatham, who had contended on the part of England for the whole exclusive fishery of Newfoundland, and affirmed it to be of itself an object worthy to be contested by the extremity of war, censured severely his successor in office, for having returned to France some of the privileges which she had before enjoyed upon the coast, and for having ceded, in addition, St. Pierre and Miquelon.

"By the Treaty of 1783, additional concessions were made to France in the fisheries of Newfoundland. No part of the treaty was more uniformly ensured than that which related to Newfoundland. The preliminary articles were censured by a vote in the House of Commons, and the ministry of the day had to retire; however, the advantages ceded to the French were confirmed. Lord Viscount Townshend said, 'The admission of that nation (the French) to a participation of the Newfoundland fisheries, was a piece of the most dreadful policy and concession that ever disgraced a nation.' Mr. Fox said, 'it was evident that our fisheries in Newfoundland, so much boasted of, were in a manner annihilated, not to men-

tion the impolicy of ceding St. Pierre and Miquelon.' Sir Peter Burrell said, 'Will any gentleman say that leaving the Americans liberty to dry their fish on the unsettled coast of Newfoundland was the way to prevent disputes? For his part, he saw, in the wording of the treaty, an eternal source of quarrels and disputes; and when he considered the footing on which the Americans are with the French, he was not without his apprehensions, that the right which the treaty granted to the latter to dry their fish on a coast near 100 miles in length, would occasion various attempts to bring in the Americans to this privilege.' Lord Mulgrave on the same occasion, said, 'he considered the Greenland fisheries much inferior to the Newfoundland fisheries.' Mr. Pitt expressed similar opinions.

"The great advantages in a national point of view, of the Newfoundland fisheries, have been fully admitted by the most eminent statesmen of a later period. On a motion proposed by Sir John Newport, in 1815, in which he expressed his views of the vast importance of the fisheries of Newfoundland, Lord Castlereagh said, 'he concurred with much of what had been said by the right hon. Baronet as to the value of the fisheries; he most completely coincided with him, that they were not only valuable as a great source of wealth to the country, but they were still more so as a source of maritime strength.'

"The greatest of trade ministers, the late lamented Mr. Huskisson, in his celebrated speeches upon the shipping interest, colonial trade and navigation, never lost sight of the great importance of the fisheries. To the support of them, as a great source of the maritime power of England, he assented to a deviation from the great leading principles of his own commercial system. In that eminent statesman's speech on the Navigation Laws of the United Kingdom, he says—

"The ocean is a common field, alike open to all the people of the earth; its productions belong to no particular nation. It was therefore our interest to take care that so much of those productions as might be wanted for the consumption of Great Britain, should be exclusively procured by British industry, and imported in British ships. This is so simple and so reasonable a rule, that in this part of our navigation system no alteration whatever has been made, nor do I believe that any ever will be contemplated.' Sir Howard Douglas said that 'the fisheries in the British quarters of America were the most productive in the world; if they were not ours, whose would they be? What would be the effect of the total abandonment and transfer to another power of this branch of industry, upon our commercial marine, and consequently upon our naval ascendancy?'

"Your committee could, without end, produce authorities, both British and Foreign, to prove the inestimable value of the fisheries on the Great Bank and shores of Newfoundland. The French government have at all periods duly estimated its importance. The American, even before they were separated from the government of the parent country, but more particularly since, have lost no opportunity to extend the Fisheries in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the banks and shores of Newfoundland. Your committee would conclude upon this head by referring to the opinion of a celebrated French authority (L'Abbé Raynal on the great value, in a commercial and national point of view, of the Newfoundland fisheries: "The Colonies,' he says, 'have exhibited a series of injustice, oppression, and carnage, which will for ever be holden in detestation. Newfoundland alone

hath not offended against humanity, nor injured the rights of any other people. The other settlements have yielded productions only by receiving an equal value in exchange. Newfoundland alone hath drawn from the depths of the waters riches formed by nature alone, and which furnish subsistence to several countries of both hemispheres. How much time hath elapsed before this parallel hath been made,—of what importance did fish appear when compared with the money which men went in search of in the New World? It was long before it was understood, if even it be yet understood, that the representation of the thing is not of greater value than the thing itself, and that a ship filled with cod and a galleon are vessels equally laden with gold;—there is even this remarkable difference, that mines can be exhausted, and the fisheries never are. Gold is not reproductive, but the fish are so necessarily.

"Your committee consider it necessary to explain the grounds on which they refer to so many authorities to prove the value of the Newfoundland fisheries. The proposition, as far as they could learn, has never yet been questioned. They were induced to make these references in consequence of the utter neglect with which these fisheries have been regarded by the British government since the peace of 1814, on the one hand, and the avidity with which they were prosecuted by the French and American governments, on the other. 'Great Britain, who owns, supports, and defends these colonies and fisheries, and has derived from them the principal means of defending herself, gave up at the conclusion of the war, to her vanquished opponents, the most valuable portions of her coasts and waters. To the French, in 1814, she conceded the north coast and western coast of Newfoundland, from Cape St. John to Cape Ray; to the Americans, in 1818, she gave up the right of taking fish on the southern and western coast of the same island, from the Rameau islands to Cape Ray, and from Cape Ray to the Quirpon islands, to the Magdalen islands, and on the whole coast of Labrador, from Mount Jolly northwards, to the limits of Hudson's Bay, together with the liberty of using the unsettled parts of Labrador and Newfoundland for drying and curing fish.' It cannot be questioned that Great Britain, by these concessions, ceded to the French and the Americans the best fishing-grounds; and these governments, to make the most of the advantages, grant large bounties for the encouragement of these fisheries, with the avowed purpose of increasing their maritime strength. Your committee may therefore state that the Newfoundland fisheries, instead of being, in the words of the British Act of Parliament, a nursery for seamen to man the British navy when occasion should require, have become converted into the best nurseries both for the French and American navies.

"The Deep-Sea fishery on the Grand Bank and other Banks can only be prosecuted in crafts and vessels of a large size, and with an expensive outfit. The French and Americans, by their bounties, are enabled to prosecute them to advantage; while every attempt of the British has proved a failure, arising, not from want of skill or enterprise on their parts, but altogether from the advantage enjoyed in the form of bounties by their foreign rivals. The unequal competition has swept the British ships from that fishery; it is now monopolised by French and Americans, and without a rival. As the Newfoundland fisheries are now comprised of that portion carried on by the British, that by the French, and that

by the Americans, your committee will give an abstract of each fishery, founded on such information, official and otherwise, as they could obtain.

"1st. *The British Fisheries*.—In 1615, Captain R. Withourne represents the British fisheries as employing 250 ships, averaging about 60 tons, and 20 mariners to each ship—in all, 15,000 tons of shipping, 5,000 seamen, and 1,250 fishing-boats. In 1644, in a representation made, the fishery was represented to consist of 270 sail of ships, computed at 80 tons each, and for every 80 tons, 50 men—in all, 21,600 tons, and 10,800 seamen. In the reign of Charles II. the British fishery greatly declined, and the French fishery advanced in proportion. In 1677, the British fishery is represented to consist of 109 ships, 4,475 seamen, and 892 boats, with 337 belonging to bye boat-keepers. In 1684, owing to the same cause (the French competition) the British fishery was reduced to 43 fishing-ships, 1,400 seamen, and 204 boats, with 304 boats belonging to resident boat-keepers.—The extraordinary falling off of the fishery at this period is thus explained by the Lords of the Privy Council of Trade in 1718:—

"But this decay of the fishery trade was not the only loss the kingdom sustained on this occasion; for, as Captain Jones, one of the commodores of the convoy in 1682, hath affirmed of his own knowledge, the traders from New England to Newfoundland yearly made voyages for the sake of *spiriting* away the fishermen, so that the Newfoundland fishery, which was formerly the great nursery for breeding up stout and able mariners, was now become a mere drain that carried off very many of the best and most useful of all the British sailors; and it is too notorious that this practice has prevailed ever since."

"The state of the British fishery from 1699 to 1720 exhibits the same rise and fall, as will appear by the following recapitulation:—

Average of years.	No. of Ships.	Burthen of Ships.	No. of Men.	No. of Passengers.	No. of Boats.
1699, 1700, 1701	192	7,991	4,020	.. .	1,311
1714, 1715, 1716	101	9,193	2,110	.. .	982
1749, 1750, 1751	283	33,512	4,103	3,149	1,370
1764-5-6-7-8-9, } 1770-1-2-3-4. }	516	40,691	5,435	6,441	2,163
1784-5-6-7-8-9, } 1790-1-2. . . }	480	48,950	4,422	4,017	2,258

Average of years.	Quintals of Fish made.	Quintals of Fish carried to market.	Tierces of Salmon carried to market.	Tons of Train Oil made.	No. of Inhabitants
1699, 1700, 1701	210,320	154,370	.. .	1,019	3,506
1714, 1715, 1716	97,730	102,263	.. .	891	3,501
1749, 1750, 1751	432,318	422,110	1,308	2,532	5,555
1764-5-6-7-8-9, } 1770-1-2-3-4. }	620,276	621,206	5,146	2,882	12,240
1784-5-6-7-8-9, } 1790-1-2. . . }	637,955	622,108	2,974	2,364	15,253

Office of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade,
Whitehall, 19th March, 1845.

"The occasional decline of the British fisheries appears to be accounted for by a variety of causes. The true causes—French and American competition, and large bounties—are scarcely noticed. It was confidently stated that it was owing to the resident population not exceeding in those days from five to

ten thousand. The Council is shown to remain in a state of favour, redoubting further a fisheries, which or

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ten thousand. A report of the Lords of the Privy Council of Trade states, in 1718, that the indulgence shown to the planters in 1677, by permitting them to remain in the country, rendered the charter ineffectual, reduced the fishery to the lowest ebb, and favoured both the French and New Englanders in carrying on the fishing-trade. The same report, in further accounting for the decline of the British fisheries, attributed it mainly to the neglect in enforcing the 10th article of the charter of Charles I., which ordains—

“That no person shall set up any tavern for selling of wine, beer, &c., to entertain the fishermen, &c.; and it is as certain that the flourishing state of the fishery trade during the aforesaid period was, in a great measure, owing to this wholesome prohibition; for as long as it was maintained, so long the trade prospered, and it was no sooner dispensed with than the trade sensibly declined; and although the planters were afterwards kept in awe for some time by the charters that were granted by King Charles II., which confirmed the same prohibition, nevertheless, when that difficulty was surmounted, and they were at liberty to pursue their own measures, the fishery immediately languished.”

“The true causes of the falling-off of the British fishery may be attributed to the unequal competition with which it had to contend from foreigners, their fisheries on the Newfoundland coast having been invariably supported by large bounties and other encouragements. It can be much more satisfactorily accounted for in that way than to attribute it to the settlement of the island, a resident population, or even to the establishment of taverns and public-houses.”

“A subsequent report of the lords of the committee of the Privy Council of Trade, on the subject of the Newfoundland fishery, dated 17th March, 1786, accounts for it in a much more satisfactory manner when they state—

“The French give a bounty upon fish, the produce of their fishery, imported into their West India islands, of ten *livres* per quintal, and at the same time lay a duty of five *livres* per quintal upon all fish imported into those islands by foreign nations. This bounty and duty taken together is equal to a prohibition of foreign fish; and it is a clear proof that, even in the opinion of their own government, nothing less than an encouragement more than equal to the first cost of their fish, can enable their fishery to have a share of their own markets in the West Indies.”

“The French also give a bounty of five *livres* per quintal upon all fish, the produce of their fishery, carried into Spain, Portugal, and Italy. This bounty is also so extravagant as clearly to evince the opinion of the French government of the low state of their fishery. If the legislature here was to give a like bounty upon the fish of your majesty's subjects carried to those markets, it would amount to £120,000 per annum. Such a measure can therefore be calculated merely to introduce their fish into those markets, but can never be intended as a permanent encouragement.”

“Your committee wish particularly to draw attention to those opinions of the lords of the committee of the privy council of trade, to show how mistaken they were in supposing that the French intended their bounties merely as a temporary expedient. It will further appear that they have not only continued them down to the present time, but have extended the fishery thereby to an extent greater than at any former period.”

“Your committee having shown that it was large bounties alone enabled the French to carry on the fishery on the coast of Newfoundland down to the period of 1703, have now briefly to remark, that from the war which broke out in that year until the year 1814, with the slight interruption of the peace of Amiens of 1802, the British had full possession of the fisheries, undisturbed by the competition of the French. During that period the fisheries greatly increased and prospered, and the quantity of fish caught ranged from 800,000 to 1,000,000 quintals per annum. It realized high prices in all the foreign markets; the price at Newfoundland advanced to the enormous sum of 46s. sterling per quintal. The estimated value of the exports—the produce of the fisheries of one or two of the last years of the war—were stated to exceed two millions and a-half sterling.”

“Your committee have now to draw your attention to the violent and sudden revolution, the rapid and unparalleled decline, in the trade and fisheries, consequent upon the peace, first with France, and then with America. To the French were ceded the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and the shores from Cape Ray to Cape John. To the Americans were soon after granted equally valuable fishing-grounds; and in addition, their respective governments granted enormous bounties to uphold their fisheries, equal almost to the intrinsic value of the fish. It leaves no ground to doubt the cause which brought such universal ruin, at that period, upon the British trade and fisheries. Your committee cannot better point out the cause of the great depression of the fisheries of that period, than by giving an extract from the evidence before the House of Commons in 1817. George Garland, Esq., states to the committee, (Michael Angelo Taylor, Esq., in the chair.)—that

“Another cause of the distress of trade may be found in the surrender by our government, to France, by the late treaty, of a large part of the coast of Newfoundland, which is by far the most valuable part of the whole island for the prosecution of the fishery, and to which, in consequence of the general scarcity of fish about St. John's and in Conception Bay, the inhabitants of those districts, the most populous in the island, were wont annually to resort during the whole of the fishing season, though at the distance of 200 or 300 miles. Since the cession of the French shore, the British fishermen of the said districts, confined to their own coast, have not caught above half the quantity of fish which they formerly did with the same outfit. The merchants urgently requested the government, previous to the peace, to retain this valuable part of the island; and though we do not presume to question the expediency of the sacrifice which has been made of their individual interest for the promotion of national objects, yet I would submit that it strengthens their claims to reasonable relief. And lastly, but by no means least, another cause is to be found in the growing competition of the French and Newfoundland trade, which is fostered by its government with the most anxious solicitude, freed from duties either on its ships or produce, and enormous bounties on its produce, and on the men engaged in the trade, as will appear by a document which I beg to produce.”

“*French Bounties on their Newfoundland Fisheries.*—On fish exported from Newfoundland, or from France to the French colonies, 24 francs per pellerial quintal, which is equal to 12 francs or 10s. per English quintal of 112 lbs. On fish exported from

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Newfoundland to France, and from thence to Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant ports, 12 francs per metrical quintal, which is equal to 6 francs, or 6s. per English quintal of 112 lbs. On fish exported from Newfoundland to Italy, Spain, and Portugal, direct, 10 francs per metrical quintal, which is equal to 5 francs, or 4s. 2d. per English quintal of 112 lbs. On every kilogramme of oil exported from Newfoundland to France, 10 centimes, which is equal to 75s. per tun, of 256 gallons English. On every kilogramme of cods' roes and eggs, from Newfoundland to France, 20 centimes, which is equal to 8s. 4d. per English quintal or cwt. Besides the above, a bounty of 50 francs, or 41s. 8d. per man is allowed to the French merchants for every man and boy employed in the French shore fishery, and 15 francs, or 12s. 6d. for every man and boy employed in the French bank fishery sailing annually from French ports.

"This competition has already excluded us from the French markets, where, in the year 1815, we disposed of 100,000 quintals fish; it has met us in the markets of Spain and Italy, although in a limited degree, owing to the recent re-establishment of the French fisheries; and it is evident that nothing but the support and assistance of our government, in some way or other, can enable us to maintain the competition much longer with rivals who receive a bounty equal to one-third of the value of the article. I have now completed the exposition of the causes of distress."

"Mr. Attwood said,—Because it appears that the French are actually prosecuting their fishery with all the enterprise and activity that might be expected from such unlimited encouragement, notwithstanding the French fishery was so very unfortunate last year, that they were only able to supply little more than France and their own colonies with fish—I am told, on the authority of the French consul, that they have despatched more than four times the number of vessels on the fishery this year than they sent out last year. These are the grounds of my opinion, that without support from our government, or the intervention of some great political event, three-fourths of the present Newfoundland trade will go from this country into the hands of France in the space of three years."

"The result of the representation and evidence adduced before the committee was the following report:—It appears also to your committee that the trade itself has experienced a serious and alarming depression. The causes from which this has arisen will require, in the opinion of your committee, in the ensuing session of parliament, a much more detailed and accurate investigation; but enough has been shown by the testimony of respectable witnesses, to prove, before the House separates, that the fisheries will be most materially injured, the capitals embarked in them by degrees withdrawn, and the nursery for seamen, hitherto so justly valued, almost entirely lost."

"Notwithstanding this strong representation on the part of a committee of the British House of Commons, the subject has since been taken up by the government. No relief or support has been afforded from that period to the present; the British fisheries have been left to languish and contend with the unequal competition; and as it was clearly proved, by the evidence of Mr. Garland and Mr. Attwood, the great and most important portions of the most valuable of the Newfoundland fisheries have fallen into the hands of the French and Americans, and

without any rivalry on the part of the British. The British fishery is now confined to an in-shore fishery, prosecuted in punts and small craft, leaving the deep-sea fishery on the Great Bank, and the other valuable banks and fishing-grounds, altogether in the hands of the French and Americans.

"Your committee have no hesitation in stating, that if the framers of the treaties of 1814 and 1818 had agreed to exclude the British from these great fisheries, they could not more effectually have deprived them of all participation in them.

"Your committee will now briefly remark upon the state of the fisheries from the peace of 1814 down to the present period, having to contend with difficulties already noticed. Thrown altogether upon their own resources, aided by the parent government, it must appear difficult to account for the preservation, by the British, of even a remnant of the fisheries. According to all mercantile calculation, they should have fallen into the hands of the French and Americans; however, the necessities of the large population which grew up during the period of a prosperous fishery worked for itself auxiliary means of employment. The cultivation of the soil—combining fishing and farming—has enabled them to exist in the country, and thereby to preserve the in-shore fishery, the only portion that now remains to them. They have extended that fishery, and the aggregate quantity of fish caught is equal to that of the amount of the most prosperous years.

"Your committee, in making this admission, contend that it only proves that a trade capable of holding up against difficulties that would have overwhelmed any other in her majesty's wide-extended dominions, is worthy of more attention and consideration from the parent government than has hitherto been extended towards it.

"*British Bank Fishery.*—The Great Bank Fishery suddenly declined after the treaties of 1814 and 1818. In the year 1775 it gave employment to about 400 sail of registered vessels, averaging from 80 to 140 tons burthen, employing from 8,000 to 10,000 fishermen and shoremen. As many as 140 sail was fitted out from the district of St. John's, and the remainder from the various harbours of the island. This important branch of the British fishery was extensively prosecuted during the whole of the French war. No sooner did the French regain the privilege of prosecuting the fishery, than their extensive bounties undermined the British Bank Fishery. Various attempts have been made to participate in it, but every attempt only brought ruin and disappointment on the British merchants or fishermen; the consequence is, at this time, that the great Newfoundland Bank Fishery, so valuable in a commercial, but more particularly in a national point of view, is surrendered without a struggle to the rivals of England, the French and Americans; those powers employing at least 1,000 vessels of considerable burthen, manned with not less than 30,000 seamen; the British not having more than five vessels and 50 men employed in the great deep-sea fishery on the banks of Newfoundland.

"Your committee have to draw your attention to the mode of fishing lately adopted by the French. They have adopted what is called the Bultow system, by which means they extend lines and hooks miles round the ship. For a particular and accurate description of this mode of fishing, your committee have to refer to the statements of Messrs. Mudge and Co. appended to this report. Your committee, in reference to this subject, have reason to believe that the Bultow sys-

tem of fishing is a mode of fishing not a violation of the law. It is a subject under the law. Your committee have particular attention to the American fisheries and the land.

"The French fisheries all those the French fisheries. Having particular attention to the Miquelon Bank which has the line of demarcation between the French and the British fisheries. It secures to the French a quantity of fish curing it.

"The French fisheries that quarrel with the French fisheries are consequently longer vessels means of fishing. The north of the French fisheries is precisely the same island in dry—a cargo of fish, and in the curing and drying process and the clearing of the fish.

"Your committee have exclusive French fisheries—concurrer with the French fisheries. The French fisheries have been since the British government.

"The French fisheries and Miquelon may be considered as a fishery, and from the French fisheries and the northern part of the supply of fish.

"We consider the French fisheries. The vessels are long, 50 to 60 fathoms of quarter-inch small cork baited with alternately and the wind running over in a strong current in the situation.

tem of fishing is most destructive:—it is a novel mode of fishing not sanctioned by any previous practice or custom. A question may arise, whether it is not a violation of the spirit of the treaty with France. It is a subject that should, without delay, be brought under the consideration of her majesty's government.* Your committee have not sufficient data to give a particular and authentic account of the French and American fisheries prosecuted in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and on the banks and shores of Newfoundland.

"*French Fisheries.*—It is universally admitted by all those who are acquainted with the subject, that the French occupy by far the best fishing stations. Having possession of the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, they can prosecute the fishery to the Grand Bank with the greatest facility. They have also what has been called the Garden of Newfoundland, the line of coast from Cape Ray to Cape John: that portion between Cape John and Straits Belle Isle secures to them the most prolific fishing-grounds; they not only have the advantage of catching a larger quantity of fish, but the climate is found, by the absence of fog, much more suitable for making and curing it, and preparing it for the foreign markets.

The principal British fishery was carried on in that quarter during the war. To use the words of an intelligent writer on the subject—British fishers are consequently driven to the shores of Labrador, a longer voyage, where the quality of the fish, and the means of drying and curing them, are far inferior. The north-eastern coast of Newfoundland happens to be precisely that which is most exempted from fog; the same winds which envelop other parts of the island in damp and mist, leave this portion clear and dry—a circumstance unknown, or apparently unregarded, by those who, in addition to other concessions of land and water, seem to have given away the light and heat of the sun—the consequence is, that in the curing of our fish a great part is destroyed by fog and damp, while the French fishermen, in addition to the abundance and quality of their fish, possess and monopolize the still greater advantage of the clearest and sunniest coast.

Your committee have reason to believe that this exclusive fishery is a usurpation on the part of the French—that all they are entitled to by treaty is a concurrent right; at the same time it must be admitted that their exclusive claim has, in some degree, been sanctioned by the forbearance and policy of the British government.

"The extent of the French fishery of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and on the other coasts of the islands, may be estimated by a catch of 1,000,000 quintals of fish, employing upwards of 700 sail of large ships, and from 20,000 to 25,000 fishermen and seamen. The French, both of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the northern part of the island, carry on an illicit trade with the British settlers, particularly in bait, for the supply of their bankers, which is greatly injurious to

* We copy the following account of the operations of the French fishermen on the coast of Newfoundland:—

"The vessels, it appears, mostly anchor in lat. 50° N. and long. 59° 20' W. in about 45 fathoms water, veer 50 or 100 fathoms of cable, and prepare to catch cod-fish with two quarter-inch lines of 3,000 fathoms long each. On these a small cork is placed at every 12 feet, and while metal hooks baited with parts of small fish (by us called kibblings) are alternately fastened by snoods of 3 feet long, 6 feet apart, and the whole neatly coiled in half-bushel baskets clear for running out. Half the number of baskets are then placed in a strong-but lugsail boat on each side; at three o'clock in the afternoon both make sail together at right angles

British interests, and calculated to destroy the British fisheries on the coast by depriving them of their regular supply of bait. Your committee have to draw particular attention to this point, and have to refer to the evidence appended to this report.

"In making this brief reference to the French fisheries, your committee must observe, that if the British and French fisheries were prosecuted without encouragement in the form of bounties, British industry, notwithstanding the other advantages possessed by the French, would assume its usual superiority; but it is impossible for them to compete with the French, upheld as they are by immense bounties. The object of France is not to create a trade, but to create a navy. It is forcibly said by Mr. McGregor, in his history—'In ceding to France the right of fishing on the shores of Newfoundland, from Cape John to Cape Ray, with the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, we gave that ambitious nation all the means that her government desires of manning a navy; and if we were determined to lay a train of circumstances which, by their operation, should sap the very vitals of our native strength, we could not more effectually have done so than by granting a full participation of those fisheries to France and America.'

"*American Fisheries.*—Your committee, in referring to the American fisheries, have also to say that they have no data to ground a correct estimate of them; but they can state that they are very extensive, employing from 1,500 to 2,000 sail of deck vessels, averaging from 40 to 100 tons burthen. The catch of fish in the British waters has been estimated at 1,100,000 quintals, which must give employment to 25,000 fishermen and seamen. The American fishers are observed in great numbers on the Grand Bank, and on the fishing-grounds in the Gulf of St. Lawrence—all along the shores of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward's Island, Newfoundland, and the shores of Labrador. They commence their fishery early in the spring, and follow it up with the greatest assiduity to the latest period of the fall. The American fishery is encouraged by a bounty of twenty shillings per ton, and the supply of their own markets protected by a duty of five shillings per quintal on foreign fish.

"Your committee have to observe, that the great catch of fish by the Americans, supported as it is by bounties and other encouragements, operates, concurrently with the French catch and bounties, to sap the foundation of the British fishery."

There is no further historical incident requiring record, save that in 1847 the capital, St. John, was again nearly totally destroyed by fire. The following is a list of the governors of Newfoundland, which includes some of the most distinguished names in the British navy:—

from the vessel, and when the lines are all run out straight, sink them to within five feet of the bottom. *The crew having rested all night, they proceed again the next morning at daybreak to trip the sicker, and while heaving in lines, unhooking fish, &c. the men left on board heave in the other end with a winch. When in that manner 400 cod-fish are caught in a night, some are then employed line-clearing, fish-beheading, splitting, salting, and stowing them away in layers across each other below: livers and refuse seems to be the average time employed,—arriving early in June, and departing again in October."*

Governors.	Year.	Governors.	Year
Capt. Osborne, R.N.	1729	Admiral Campbell	1782
" Clinton, R.N.	"	" Elliot	1786
" Vanbrugh, R.N.	1737	" Milbanke	1789
" Lord G. Graham, R.N.	1740	" King's	1793
" Hon. J. Byng, R.N.	1741	" Sir J. Wallace	1794
" Sir C. Hardy, R.N.	1744	" Wallograve	1797
" Rodney, R.N.	1749	" Pole	1800
" Drake, R.N.	1750	" Gambler	1802
" Bonfoy, R.N.	1753	" Sir E. Gower	1804
" Donril, R.N.	1755	" Holloway	1807
" Edwards, R.N.	1757	" Sir J. Duckworth	1810
" Webb, R.N.	1760	" Sir J. Keats	1813
" Groves, R.N.	1761	" Pickmore	1816
" Palliser, R.N.	1764	" Sir C. Hamilton	1818
" Hon. J. Byron, R.N.	1769	Capt. Sir T. Cochrane, R.N.	1825
Commodore Molyneux	1772	" Prescott, R.N.	1834
" Duff	1775	Major-General Sir J. Harvey	1841
Admiral Montague	1778	Hon. F. W. A. Bruce	1846
" Edwards	1779	Lieutenant-Colonel Sir J. G. Le Marchant	1847

CHAPTER II.

TOPOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, SOIL, AND CLIMATE. VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS.

NEWFOUNDLAND stands on an immense bank, in length about 600 miles, and in breadth about 200 miles, with soundings varying from 25 to 95 fathoms; the base being a mass of solid rock. There are apparently two banks, the outer one lying within $44^{\circ} 10'$ and $47^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat., and within $44^{\circ} 15'$ and $45^{\circ} 25'$ W. long., with soundings varying from 100 to 150 fathoms. Newfoundland is in form, nearly an equi-lateral triangle, the apex being to the northward and the base extending east and west, between Cape Ray and Cape Race. The coast is every where indented, at intervals of two or three miles, by broad and deep bays, innumerable harbours, coves, creeks, and rivers. The shores are all rocky, with pebble beaches, often covered with stunted wood nearly to the water's edge; with lofty headlands on the south-west side. The interior of the island remained unexplored until 1823, when Mr. Cormack, accompanied by some Indians, succeeded in traversing the island from east to west, viz. from Trinity Bay to St. George's Bay. From his account, the interior would appear to be rocky, with numerous tracts of moss; much intersected by rivers and lakes, and but thinly wooded, except on the banks of the rivers, where poplars, birches, and spruce firs grow. The

British settlements are almost entirely confined to the coast line; the best manner of conveying an idea of their relative positions, and of the country generally, or at least of the limited portion with which we are acquainted will therefore be by passing regularly round, examining by the way the chief bays, harbours, &c., commencing with the large peninsula, named Avalon, which constitutes the south-eastern portion of the island, and on which St. John's, the capital, is situated. The deep bays of Trinity and Placentia, form the peninsula, and are separated only by an isthmus about three miles broad. Two other considerable bays, those of St. Mary and Conception, run parallel with these, and dividing the peninsula into three lesser ones, give Avalon a very unusual proportion of water frontage, which from its proximity to the Great Bank, is of great value, and adds materially to the importance attached to it, from its situation with regard to Europe.

St. John is situated on the open eastern coast, in $47^{\circ} 33' 33''$ N. lat., and $52^{\circ} 45' 10''$ W. long. The harbour is spacious and secure, every where excepting towards its termination of great depth, having upwards of 90 feet in the centre, and land-locked by high hills, which on its south side afford no

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shore, and on its north admit a strand, built over with warehouses and wharfs. The remarkable entrance, called the Narrows, is thus described by Sir R. Bonnycastle:—"The ship, passing the open roadstead, or one-sided Bay of St. John's, scarcely sees the extremely narrow pass in the high land which she must make, and on entering the Narrows, she has nearly half a mile of intricate navigation before she opens the whole harbour. On entering she has on her right hand, a precipice of sandstone and slate rock, nearly perpendicular, to the height of 300 feet, above which almost as steep, frowns the citadel called Signal Hill, a very narrow crest, 510 feet above the ocean waters. The Narrows themselves are only 900 feet across their sea-face, and diminish to about 400; so that from the deck, in passing, one looks up to the batteries upon batteries frowning in the sky, or on the edge of perpendicular cliffs. On the left the mountain is above 600 feet in altitude, broken, abrupt, and very picturesque, admitting however, near the water, a sort of shoulder of small elevation, bristled with dangerous rocks, and shewing again batteries near the water's edge, with a jutting promontory of solid rock, on which there is a formidable work with the harbour-light perched on the top of a vaulted barrack. After she has passed two-thirds of the Narrows, the town begins to open. In front is old Fort-William; on her right here, a strong water-level battery; and immediately over her, Waldegrave's battery, half-way down the precipice, with the Crow's Nest, a beautiful cone, capping all." In war time a chain is thrown from here to the Pancake Rock (a dangerous shelf on the opposite side), to prevent the admission of any hostile vessel. "The harbour then opens by a turn at right angles to the westward, and the whole city appears climbing up the side of a hill."

From the above graphic account, it will be readily understood that St. John's is a place of considerable strength, both from its natural position, and the fortifications erected for its protection. The streets are long and straggling; Queen-street, the principal one, has good stone houses, and is from 30 to 40 feet broad. Fort Townsend, the former residence of the governor, stands in the rear of the town. The new government-house is on a scale very disproportionate to the income attached to the government; the position also appears ill-chosen, being bleak and

much exposed, for which the noble view it commands can hardly compensate. The first estimate for its erection was £9,000; it was said to have cost nearly £250,000, but Sir R. Bonnycastle, on the authority of the officer through whom the payments were made, states the ultimate expenditure at much less than £35,000, including the furniture. The chief public buildings are St. John's church—a fine stone cathedral in course of erection by the Roman catholics—the factory, to which the poor resort in winter to knit stockings, make nets, &c., and which contains a large and handsome public ball-room, an hospital, Wesleyan and congregational chapels, public schools, the old wooden court-house, with the jail, and some others. The town has been of late years much altered; indeed the calamitous fires mentioned in the foregoing chapter, by destroying great numbers of wretched wooden tenements made way for houses of a much better class. Sir Gaspard le Marchant, the present governor of Newfoundland, in a despatch dated 23rd May, 1848, thus adverts to the condition of the capital:—

"During the past year, great exertions have been made by the inhabitants of the town of St. John's to repair their losses, occasioned by the fire of the 9th June of the preceding year. New lines of streets have been laid out on an improved plan, both as to width and regularity, and intersected at suitable distances with cross streets or fire-breaks. In several quarters of the town new buildings have been commenced, and the works carried on with great spirit and energy.

"In the lower street, Water-street, on the side commanding the frontage of the harbour, many handsome shops and substantial warehouses of stone and brick have been erected, at very considerable expense, by the merchants, and this part of the town wears an improved appearance. Very many of these have been erected at a cost varying from £4,000 to £8,000, and the ground rental of the premises lining this frontage averages £3 a square foot. The Act, however, rendering it compulsory that all buildings in this street, as well as the south side of the street lying immediately above it in a parallel line, called Duckworth-street, should be either of brick or stone, does not come into operation till the next year; and it is much to be feared that, at the meeting of the local legislature, many and strenuous attempts will be made, and those successfully, for a further postponement of this most desirable measure; for, until this has been effected, in consequence of the contiguity of so many wooden buildings, serving only temporary purposes, the danger of a fire again spreading its ravages throughout the city, though to a certain degree lessened, will not be removed.

"The public buildings now in the course of erection are the custom-house, which will be completed in the spring, the colonial building, to be appropriated for the meetings of the local legislature, and the Protestant cathedral, towards which half the amount raised under the authority of the queen's

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letter for the relief of the sufferers by the fire has been appropriated. A site has been fixed on for a market-house, and a sum of money voted for its erection, but, owing to the embarrassed condition of the finances of the colony, as yet no progress has been made with the work.

"In the past year I have, out of the funds at the disposal of the government, formed two large tanks in the centre of the town, affording at all times a copious supply of pure and excellent water, and likewise, being frost proof, of the greatest utility in the event of accidents by fire occurring in their neighbourhood. At one of the chief outlets of the town, commanding the frontage of the river, and forming the upper part of the harbour, a public walk, affording a place of recreation to all classes, as well as contributing to the health of the inhabitants, has been commenced, and in the course of the ensuing season will be completed.

"The crowded state of the burial-grounds in this town has likewise occupied my most serious attention; and for the purpose of abating, if not entirely removing, this evil, so loudly complained of by the inhabitants generally, I have purchased a piece of ground without the town, of nine acres in extent, and intend dividing and appropriating it as a cemetery for parties of all religious denominations, in proportion to the number composing the several creeds, and shall use my best endeavours for the closing of those within the town. Two companies, the one for supplying the town with gas, the other for the supply of water, have been incorporated by acts of the local legislature, the former in the year 1844, whose works are completed and in full operation; the latter in the year 1846, whose pipes are now being laid down, and it is presumed the town will have the benefit of the undertaking in the course of the spring.

"As no assessments are in force for any local or fiscal purposes, it is impossible to form any accurate estimate of the value of either household or other property in this town; the rental, however, of Water and Duckworth Streets has been by competent judges computed at between £35,000 and £40,000 a-year. The accompanying return, marked No. 2, will more accurately show the classification of the population of this town, the number of their houses, warehouses, &c., as well as the foreign vessels trading at this port, and the extent to which the fisheries are prosecuted by the capital of the island."

A considerable portion of land in the neighbourhood of St. John's has been brought under cultivation, and though it doubtless requires much toil and expense to render it productive, and is certainly inferior to other districts, yet the capabilities of the soil here, as well as elsewhere, have been greatly underrated. In Captain Loch's Report of the Fisheries, dated October, 1848, he says, "St. John's has enjoyed a more productive season than for many years past, which, with the cheering prospect of abundant crops in grass, grain, and potatoes, has given new vigour and life to the capital after the fire and famine of the last and preceding years. Cape Spear, about eight miles from St. John's harbour, is the most

eastern point of Newfoundland. It has on it a light-house, and is in $47^{\circ} 30' 12''$ N. lat., and $52^{\circ} 33' 27''$ W. long. Petty Harbour is a small and secluded station picturesquely situated; more to the south is the Bay of Bulls, which extends two miles into the land. The harbour is difficult of access on account of a sunken rock; but once in, vessels may ride in safety. The settlement is prosperous, near it are those of Witless Bay, Momables, and Brigus Bay, the last being of some importance. Cape Broyle is a good harbour, but of difficult entrance; its south point is in $47^{\circ} 2' 15''$ N. lat., and $52^{\circ} 55' 15''$ W. long. Capelin Bay is an excellent harbour, a little to the south of it is that on which stands Ferryland, the first permanent settlement. Mr. McGregor states, "that a considerable extent of the surrounding land is under cultivation," while Mr. Chappell describes the vicinity as rocky and destitute of any trace of cultivation. On the harbours of Aquaforte, Fermeuse, and Renouves, are villages of the same names. We now arrive at Cape Race, the south-east point of the island, in $46^{\circ} 40' 15''$ N. lat., and $53^{\circ} 8' 15''$ W. long., further to the south-west are two capes, each called Mistaken Point, on account of their being frequently mistaken for Cape Race in approaching the land from the southward. The Virgin or Cape Race rocks, so much dreaded by mariners on this coast, are stated by Mr. Jones, master of H.M.S. *Hussar*, to be in $46^{\circ} 26' 15''$ N. lat., and $52^{\circ} 56' 35''$ W. long.; they extend in an irregular cluster, the length being about 800 yards; the breadth varying from 200 to 300 yards, the least water being four fathoms and a half.

Trepassey Bay, is a spacious inlet with a good harbour on its eastern shores, on which is a settlement of some importance. Trepassey Bay contains the smaller bays of Biscay and Mutton; passing Cape Pine and St. Shotts (the most dangerous portion of the coast), we arrive at St. Mary's Bay, which is well settled, and has several extensive cod-fishing establishments and salmon rivers, and is separated by a tract of only ten miles from the head of Conception Bay, and of eight from that of Trinity. The next bay is that of Placentia, which is about 60 miles deep and 45 broad. The entrance lies between Cape St. Mary and Cape Chapeau Rouge, with several rugged islands near its head. The port and town of Placentia lie on the eastern side; and the chief harbour, which can only be entered by one ship at a

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time, affords anchorage for 150. North Harbour is situated at the upper extremity of Placentia Bay, the western side of which is well populated, and contains many harbours, the principal of which are Marasheen island, Ragged island, and Mortier and Burin Bay. The eastern portion of the neck of land between the bays of Placentia and Fortune, is called Burin. From the head of Placentia Bay to Trinity Bay, there is a low isthmus, not more than three miles in length, across which the fishermen, during the time the French had possession, hauled their skiffs over ways laid for the purpose; it is this isthmus which connects the peninsula of Avalon with the main body of the island. The French paid much attention to their settlement on the east side of Placentia Bay, which they strongly fortified with the hope of driving the English entirely from the fisheries of Newfoundland.

May Point terminates the peninsula which separates Placentia Bay from Fortune Bay. From May Point to Cape La Hune is 17 leagues, and in this place lies Fortune Bay (60 to 70 miles deep, and 20 to 30 broad), which receives several rivers flowing from the inland lakes, and contains numerous harbours and stations. The villages of Fortune, Great Beach, and Lamelin, lie opposite the French islands of Miquelon and St. Pierre. Mr. Jukes speaks of two men in Lamelin who had "fifty head of cattle a piece," which they fed on the grass growing on the adjacent marshes. The islands of Great and Little Miquelon (the lesser of which is called Langley by the English), were, some 60 or 70 years ago, divided by a channel of two fathoms depth, which is now entirely filled up, and its place occupied by a long narrow line of sand hills, with a beach on each side. Mr. Jukes describes the scenery as very striking, the high land of Langley sloping down towards the west, covered with rich green moss, into a dense mass of wood, and speaks also "of extensive meadows, where enough sheep and cows are fed to supply St. Pierre and the neighbouring population;" he adds, "they have very strict regulations in the port: no English boats or vessels are allowed to come in having fish on board, on penalty of being seized, and no Englishman is allowed to bring English goods and manufactures, or to set up a shop in the town. There is, however, an American warehouse belonging to Atherton and Thorne, which seemed to be doing a large business." St. Pierre, Mr.

Jukes describes as a mass of rocky hummocks, the hills rising to a height of 400 or 500 feet, directly from the water, the hollows and flatter parts consisting of marshes and ponds. To the north of St. Pierre is a lofty islet called Colombier (dove-cote), from the multitude of puffins which breed there, and are continually flying about in large flocks. To return to Fortune Bay,—at Harbour Britain there is a large mercantile establishment; Hermitage Bay is being rapidly settled, and the Burgeo islands had in 1842, 650 inhabitants. The salmon fishery on this coast is extensive; and the neighbourhood is the scene of the Newfoundland whaling. At Little Barrys Bay, according to Sir R. Bonnycastle, 100 Mic-Mac Indians trade in salmon, geese, and furs. Proceeding westward we reach Port-aux-Basque, and passing Grand Bay, arrive at Cape Ray, the western extremity of the island, in 47° 36' 49" N. lat., and 59° 21' W. long. From this Cape to the Great Bay of Notre Dame, the French claim the exclusive control of the coast, that is, of all the western, northern, and north-eastern shores of this the oldest British colony. To quote once again the words of Sir R. Bonnycastle (and it would be difficult to find a better authority on the affairs of Newfoundland,) "notwithstanding all their treaties, their resident population amounts, it is said, to upwards of 12,000, and as they are nearly all engaged in a most lucrative fishery, they receive every encouragement from their government, are registered as seamen, and, in fact, constitute to France what Newfoundland was before the last war to England, the nursery for her seamen."

Captain Granville Loch, R.N., thus describes the condition of the British settlement at St. George's Bay, in an official report, under date 2nd October, 1848:—

"There are 200 resident planters in this bay who receive assistance in hands, during the fishing season, from Cape Breton and its adjacent shores. Their fishing usually commences a month or six weeks earlier than that on the coast of Labrador. This year they began the 27th April. They fish herring, salmon, trout, and eels, besides the cod. Up to the present date (17th August), their catch has been 10,000 barrels of herrings, 200 barrels of salmon, and but a small quantity of cod. They employ about 200 boats and 800 hands, and send their fish to the Halifax and Quebec markets during the summer and fall. The fishings end about the 1st of October, with the exception of the eels, which are caught in great quantities, and afford subsistence during the winter. They have bait without intermission during the entire fishing, and use herring, caplin, squid, and clams. The climate is usually dry and mild; and if their society was under proper control, St. George's Bay

would offer many inducements to the industrious settler. The harbour is occasionally blocked up by ice, but for no length of time, and is always open by the middle of April. The inhabitants consist of English, a few Irish, and a number of lawless adventurers, the very outcasts of society from Cape Breton and Canada, and it is very distressing to perceive a community, comprising nearly 1,000 inhabitants, settled in an English colony, under no law or restraint, and having no one to control them, if we except what may be exercised through the influence shown by the single clergyman of the Established Church, who is the only person of authority in the settlement. I am told, the reason why magistrates are not appointed is in obedience to direct orders from the Home Government, it being believed against the spirit of the treaty with France. Under these circumstances, I would recommend, either that a vessel of war should be appointed to remain stationary in the harbour, or that the society should be forcibly broken up and removed, for violent and lawless characters are rapidly increasing, and neither the lives nor property of any substantial or well-disposed settlers are safe. Four cases of violent assault were brought to my notice as having recently been committed upon parties, some of whom were injured for life, and others nearly murdered; and I am sorry to understand the culprits had succeeded in escaping into the woods upon the appearance of her majesty's ship.

The cultivation of grain has been commenced with considerable success. Wheat, oats, and barley ripen well, and turnips grow exceedingly fine. Potatoes and garden-stuff are cultivated also to a considerable extent. A great quantity of fur is collected; but the trappers suffer great losses by the frequent robbery of both traps and their contents."

Mr. Jukes describes the country south of St. George's Bay as gently undulating, with a fine short turf, and more like some parts of England than any he had seen in Newfoundland. He landed on 11th September, 1839, at the mouth of a brook near Crab's river, on a very pretty spot, with green meadows on each side of the brook, and a few neat houses clustered under the shelter of a rising bank, covered with green turf. Geese were feeding on the grass; ducks and poultry were scattered about; and a few cows and some sheep, gave it all the appearance of a pastoral scene at home. There was actually a fence and a stile to get over into a small field, with a footpath across it. The patriarch of the settlement, Mr. Morris, came and invited Mr. Jukes to sit down to breakfast with them, when he found plenty of fresh milk, eggs, and butter, hot rolls, excellent tea, and a snow-white table-cloth. It really seemed to the geologist a little paradise. From the rising ground behind the house the view was very beautiful. A tract of low undulating land, covered with a rich sea of wood, stretched away into the interior for 15 or 20 miles, and was backed by a range of blue hills in the horizon that

rose towards the S.W., while towards the N.E. they gradually died away, and coalesced with the hills at the head of the bay. The wood was not of the sombre hue so generally seen in Newfoundland, but was patched with the light green of the birch, and what the colonists term the *wych hazel*, the *barm*, and the *aps*, and probably the ash was present. Finally, says Mr. Jukes, the little rich-looking valley of the brook, with its bright waters winding away into the woods, completed a most lovely and most English picture. Mr. Morris and his son-in-law, Stephen Shears, arrived in Newfoundland without a shilling: they have now fields of wheat, cows, oxen, sheep, good habitations, and every comfort. The climate, by their account, is very fine during the summer; snow, they say, generally sets in about three weeks before Christmas, and breaks up in the beginning of April.

There are some Mic-Mac Indians in this fine bay, into which several rivers, emerging from the lakes in the interior, empty themselves, and on the N.W. lies the magnificent double harbour of Port-au-Port, divided from it only by a narrow isthmus, from which point the most successful attempts have been made to explore the interior of the country, which is reported to be mountainous, abounding in rivers, extensive lakes (or ponds, as they are called in Newfoundland), and grassy plains. The Bay of Islands stretches out three arms into the land, one of which forms the embouche of the Humber, the most considerable river yet known, its course having been traced for 114 miles to the north-westward, where it issues from a cape of about ten leagues in length. On this bay there are British settlers, a great timber station, and in it, as its name imports, are many islands—Pearl, Harbour, Tweed, &c. Bonne Bay has a good harbour, but of difficult entrance. Ingornchoix Bay contains three harbours, the chief of which is Port Saunders, a spacious inlet, so land-locked, that 90 or 100 vessels may lie perfectly secure from every wind; yet, owing to the absence of cod, it is uninhabited. To the north, round Point Riche, is St. John's Bay, which receives the waters of Castor river. Beyond Point Ferolle, the northern boundary of St. John's Bay, are a few inconsiderable inlets along the straits of Belleisle, which separate Newfoundland from the adjoining coast of Labrador, and are in length about 50 miles by 12 broad.

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ferrole, is the N.W. point of Newfoundland, and has on its E. side a large bay, called Pistolet Bay, bounded by Burnt Cape. Belleisle North, an island at the head of the strait, has an excellent cod fishery, claimed by the French. We next come to Quirpon Island and harbour, the northern point of Newfoundland, in $51^{\circ} 39' 45''$ N. lat., and $55^{\circ} 27' 50''$ W. long.; thence to Griquet Bay and St. Anthony's Harbour. Hare Bay is a deep gulf, the bottom of which intersects the island for two-thirds of its breadth at this point, branching off into innumerable bays and coves, sheltered by lofty hills. From this harbour to White Bay, and thence to Cape St. John, the coast is indented at short distances by commodious and much-frequented harbours.

Paequet Harbour has an excellent fishery. After passing Cape St. John, the limit of the French claim, we enter the bay of Notre Dame, whose shores are broken by innumerable smaller inlets. Nipper Harbour is well inhabited in summer; but, in winter, the people either go to St. John's, or retire to the woods. In Hall's Bay some trappers and hunters live, who cross to the Gulf of St. Lawrence in their hunting excursions.

The Bay of Exploits, which is of great extent, contains a number of islands, and several settlements, especially on Twillingate and Fogo islands. A large river of the same name falls into it, abounding in salmon, and flowing from Red Indian Lake, a course of about sixty miles, much broken by rapids. Gander Bay on Hamilton Sound has some thriving fishing establishments. From Cape St. John to Cape Freels the whole coast presents a continuation of ledges, shallows, islands, rocks, and winding bays, which afford excellent fishing grounds. To the south of Cape Freels is the Island of Greenspond, which is situated at the north-eastern extremity of Bonavista Bay, and has some extensive mercantile establishments. This noble bay is diversified by numerous islands, and contains many safe havens. It has several good fishing stations, the chief place being Bonavista at its eastern extremity. The next harbour is that of Catalina, where Jacques Cartier landed. It is situated in $48^{\circ} 42'$ N. lat., $52^{\circ} 59' 20''$ W. long., and stands almost at the head of the small peninsula between the great bays of Bonavista and Trinity. Trinity Bay has many settlements and harbours, the most important are those of Trinity town and harbour, besides which there are those of

Bonaventure, Ireland's Eye, Random Sound, Islands and Bay of Bulls, Tickle Harbour (a word often used in the Newfoundland charts, signifying a small safe harbour), Dildo Harbour, Heart's Delight, Heart's Desire, Heart's Content, New Perlican and Old Perlican Harbour, formerly a place of some note, which having passed we arrive at Break-heart Point, near which on the south-east is an insulated rock called Baccalao, said to have been first seen by Cabot in 1497, and called by him Prima Vista. The numerous birds on this island are called by its name. In a former work I stated them to be preserved by the governor's proclamation, because their cries being heard far at sea served as a warning to mariners during the frequent fogs; but Sir R. Bonnycastle, to whose authority I very willingly defer, says that I have been misinformed, the reason for their preservation being because they are sea marks for the banks and coast. To the south-east of the island the deep and spacious inlet of Conception Bay stretches into the land for a considerable distance, being about 50 miles long and 20 broad. The west shore is the best cultivated portion of Newfoundland, and the numerous, neat-looking villages render it an English-looking coast. There are several towns of rising importance. Carbonier, or Collier's Harbour is one of the chief, and is famous for the spirited defences made by its inhabitants against the French. The harbour, though spacious, is not considered at all seasons secure; there are several settlements, such as Brigus, Port de Grave, Bay of Roberts, Harbour Main, Spaniard's Bay; in fact the whole shore from Point de Grates to Holyrood, a considerable station at the bottom of the bay, is studded with villages placed in the deep inlets separated by lofty perpendicular rocks, which run out into the sea for two or three leagues, though they are not a mile in breadth. The scenery on this part of the coast is majestic and wild.

Near Port de Grave there is a remarkable basin hollowed out in the cliffs by the action of frost, or the more certain operation of time, in decaying the slate clay, of which the rocks are composed. First a circle is entered, 20 feet wide by 20 high: and beyond is the basin itself, which is about 300 feet in circumference, and surrounded by perpendicular rocks 120 feet in height, with a border of dwarf spruce at top. At one corner a little exit, among broken masses of rock, carries off the superfluous water; the

depth near the centre of the cavity is about 14 feet. Captain Robinson states Harbour Grace to be a good port, and although the space between the cud of the bar and the north shore is rather narrow, a large ship, well handled, may beat through or back, and fill in and out with the tide. Approaching the town from the northward you pass a large house surrounded by some considerable trees, which has an English appearance; as has also the little town, with its parsonage in the centre of a pretty garden, and weather-beaten church, bearing an antique, un-*Newfoundlandish* air.

On the eastern side of Conception Bay there are several islands, amongst which is Bell Isle (six miles long), so called from the shape of a remarkable rock close to its western side. This island is distant from Harbour Grace about twelve, and from Portugal Cove about four miles; and the soil, consisting of a loose deep black earth, is so extremely fertile as seldom to require manure, while wheat yields twentyfold, potatoes fifteen, and oats, hay, and vegetables thrive remarkably well. Portugal Cove is the only settlement of any consequence on the east side, but unlike most other positions it has no safe harbour, and only an open roadstead, rendered dangerous for the fishing craft in bad weather.

The scenery about Portugal Cove is described as strikingly picturesque, a succession of lofty hills on each side tower over the road, and slant out every other object; their conical or inamillated peaks are covered with wild stunted forest and bold masses of rock, intersected by cascades or tiny waterfalls. The scenery of the village at Portugal Cove is very beautiful, although the shore is a succession of ragged and broken rocks.

Cape St. Francis, the E. boundary of Conception Bay, is distant seven leagues from St. John's Harbour; four leagues lower is Torbay, a fishing station; and three leagues further is St. John's.

Having now completed the circle of the island, it remains only to observe that there is much fine scenery in Newfoundland, many fertile spots even on the coast, and that British industry, economy, and skill have already laid the foundation of many towns and villages, which, from their position, will probably before long attain considerable importance.

THE LABRADOR REGION is little known; it is thus described by Captain G. Loch in his recent report:—

"This extensive coast, commencing from the estuary of the St. Lawrence, and stretching far north to the regions of perpetual snow, is one of the most barren and desolate in the world; and it seems that nature has removed the means of supporting human life from its surface to the waters which surround it, the abundant productions of which offer the inducement, and reward the industry and perseverance of the thousands of adventurers who resort to it from both Europe and America. The portion forming the northern boundary of the straits of Belleisle is not so well marked or grand in feature as when it recedes from the island of Newfoundland, either to the north or south. From the sea, the country has a green and alluvial appearance, and it is not until close to it that this is lost, and nothing is seen but bare granite rocks, partially covered with moss and stunted shrubs; juniper, birch, and poplar trees grow in the valleys, where the soil is of sandy clay, the temperature much higher, and the fogs less frequent than upon the coast. Here deer, bears, wolves, foxes, martins, otters, beavers, and a great variety of wild fowl take up their abode, until driven to the coast by the snow drifts of approaching winter. The ice does not usually leave the bays free for vessels to enter before June, and it begins to form again in the shallow bays and pools in the beginning of September.

"The entrance of the Strait of Belleisle between York Point and Cape Bauld is 26 miles wide, the latter point bearing from the former S. by E. At Cape Norman, 18 miles to the westward of Cape Bauld, the opposite coast of Labrador is distant only 14 miles, but the narrowest part of the strait is at Point Amour, in Forteau Bay, where it is only nine and a-quarter miles wide; the western entrance of the strait, between Greenly Island and Point Ferroll, is nearly 21 miles wide, the point bearing from the island S.S.W. The course and distance through the strait is S. 64° W. true, or, according to the mean variation, W. $\frac{1}{2}$ S. 65 miles.

"The navigation of this strait is attended with very considerable danger, from sudden fogs, wandering icebergs, and strong irregular currents. In spring, the entrance of the strait to the northward is frequently almost blocked up by large ice islands, which are set to the S.W., even against strong winds from that quarter; these are broken up into smaller pieces as the summer advances, and are met with throughout the entire season. It is thus apparent, that the dangers of the coast are greatly increased in dark or foggy nights, during which no vessel should attempt to run, for it is impossible, under these circumstances, even with the most careful watching, to guard against unknown dangers, or to be sure of the vessel's position within ten miles, owing to the frequent irregularity in the set of the currents. The prevailing current runs directly through the strait to the S.W., and its rate is at times two knots, diminishing gradually in force as it spreads out in the wider parts of the gulf; but yet its course and velocity is greatly influenced by the prevailing winds; for example, with the wind from S.W., the stream sets along the west coast of Newfoundland, from Point Ferroll past Point Mliche. In short, there is no constancy either in the rate or set of these streams, for the winds and the irregular tides modify the set and rate of the equally irregular current, in a manner which it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to calculate upon with any degree of certainty. It would be prudent, therefore, on the approach of a dark or foggy night, to secure a safe anchorage, if possible; and

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even if a vessel bound to the gulf, and running with an easterly wind, should find no port fit for that purpose, I would advise her standing over to the Newfoundland side of the strait, where the soundings are not so deep, and the icebergs not so prevalent, and then either lying to until daylight, or anchoring in the stream."

Mountains and Hills.—On the gulf shore of Newfoundland, distinct ranges of mountains extend from Cape Ray, where they commence with three sugar-loaf hills, and then proceed continuously in a N.E. and W. direction. These ranges, says Sir R. Bonycastle, stretch very far up the west coast, and with occasional lofty off-shoots which reach the sea, are usually so distant from it as to leave a belt of comparatively level country, of considerable width, through which the small river drainage passes. The elevations have a steep face towards the N.W., and are rather flat and regular at the summit. One conspicuous hill bears true N.E. from St. George's harbour, distant 20 miles in a straight line. The "Blow-meadow hills," on the south side of the Humber river, have their least elevation at 800 feet. Beyond the coast ranges to the eastward and northward the country is covered with rivers and lakes, of great extent, and is of course well drained by them in a vast area, reaching almost to the Atlantic cliffs on the east coast.

In Avalon district or province, there are two ranges of hills, one from the back of Renews to Holyrood, in Conception Bay, extending for 20 miles in length, not lofty, but with precipitous and rugged outlines, the heights or hummocks called the "Butter pots" at either end are about 1,000 feet, and there are other eminences of nearly equal altitude in other parts of the range. The other ridge passes from Cape Dog, in St. Mary's Bay, to near Chapel Arm in Trinity Bay; it is less broken and rugged than the former mentioned, has a more continuous outline, and its highest elevations of 1200 to 1,500 feet, are for the most part rounded or flat topped. The Sawyer's Hills (so called from their outline), south of Placentia Bay, is a subordinate ridge, as is also some high rough land forming the isthmus connecting Avalon with the main part of the island, and the elevations about St. John's, viz. Signal Hill 520 feet, South-side Hill 700 feet, and Branscombe Hill 870 feet above the sea.

A mountainous country in miniature (none of the hills exceeding 1,000 feet), extends along the west shores of Placentia Bay and the adjacent islands, from Chapeau

Rouge to Piper's Note. This range of lofty, broken, and precipitous land, runs along the west side of Trinity Bay to Trinity harbour, and thence crosses into Bonavista Bay about Keel's Head. Mr. Jukes states that it has an irregular width of several miles, occupies the east half of the peninsula between Fortune and Placentia bays, and forms a fine peaked and serrated mass of hills some miles west of Random Sound in Trinity Bay, which stretches also to the neighbourhood of Goose Bay in Bonavista Bay. One isolated peak upwards of 1,000 feet above the sea, named Sainter's Hill, or Centre Hill, or Powderhorn Hill, overlooks nearly the whole of the Bays of Placentia and Trinity, as well as some of the high grounds about Conception, Bonavista, and Fortune Bays. The west side of Bonavista Bay from Clode Sound, northwards, is low, but as far as Mr. Jukes could judge of the interior, the country towards the N.W. consists of regularly undulating ridges, running generally N.N.E. and S.S.W., never rising more than 300 or 400 feet, and covered with dense wood.

The "Bluc Hills" run about N.N.E. and S.S.W., in a line with the promontory between Gander Bay and Dildo Run, and are not supposed to exceed 1,000 feet in height. Another range of 1,000 to 1,500 feet in elevation, are seen from the mouth of the river of Exploits, closing the view up the valley of the lower part of the river: they are flat-topped with precipitous sides, which gives them a square appearance. A ridge of high land runs from them towards the S.S.W.

The southern portion of Newfoundland has very lofty cliffs, and the high land contiguous the sea, excludes all view of the interior from the sea. The country is said to be grooved in every direction by small valleys and ravines, covered with round hummocky knobs and hills, with rocky and precipitous sides.

The summits of the hills and ridges and other elevated and exposed tracts termed "barrens" are covered with a thin and scrubby vegetation, and are somewhat similar in appearance to the moorlands of Yorkshire; they are frequently devoid of vegetable soil, and consist of bare patches of gravel, boulders, and crumbling fragments of rocks. In the hollows of these barrens, as in other situations, the dwarf junipers, called in Newfoundland "tucking bushes," grow about breast high, with strong branches at right angles to the stem, and stiffly interlacing, their flat tops are as level as if they had

been regularly clipped. They are so stiff that it is almost possible to walk on the summits of a dwarf juniper tract, but to penetrate far through the bushes is impracticable; and this is one of the obstacles towards the exploration of the interior.

Lakes.—Newfoundland is covered with lakes and lakelets (called ponds). They are found all over the face of the country, not only in the valleys, but on the higher lands, and even in the hollows of the summits of the ridges, and on the very tops of the hills. They vary in size, from pools of 50 yards in diameter, to lakes of 30 miles long by 5 broad. From the top of the N.E. mountains in Avalon, 67 ponds were counted, some of them 2 or 3 miles across; none less than 100 yards, and none more than 10 miles from the base of the hill. The principal are the Grand Pond, Red Indian, Gander Pond, George the Fourth's, Jameson, Wilmot, and Bathurst lakes. There is also a large unexplored lake on the E. part of the island, near Bonavista Bay.

Grand Pond is 50 to 60 miles long, five miles broad at the widest part, viz., to the N.E., and has, at its western extremity, an island 20 miles long by 4 or 5 wide, which causes the lake to divide into two arms. The island is steep and lofty, like the surrounding country, at the S.W. end, but is lower to the N.E. The Indians say, that by means of a chain of ponds, they can navigate to the Great Lake from St. George's harbour.

Red Indian Lake is said by the Indians to be about 30 miles due E. from Grand Pond, and is about 30 miles long by 5 to 6 broad.

Victoria Lake is about the same length as the preceding, but not so wide. This lake has a water communication with Bathurst, Wilmot, and George the Fourth lakes; but we know too little of their extent, or of the surrounding country, to say more on the subject.

GEOLOGY.—A considerable part of the coast line of Newfoundland was examined by Mr. J. B. Jukes, as geological surveyor to the local government in 1839-40. The aqueous or stratified rocks consist of the following formations:—

Formations.	Subdivisions.
1. Coal	{ * Upper portion. * Lower or red ditto.
1 ¹ . Magnesian limestone.	{ * Belleisle shale and gritstones. * Variegated slates.
2. Upper slate formation	{ * Signal hill sandstones. * St. John's slate.
3. Lower slate ditto	
4. Gneiss and mica slate.	

The unstratified or igneous rocks consist of various kinds of trap, greenstone, serpentine, hypersthene, porphyry, sienite, and granite.

The upper part of the *coal formation* consists principally of dark shales, with brown and yellow sandstones or gritstones in thin beds. The lower part is characterized by beds of red sandstone, red and green marls, and gypsum. The two parts pass by insensible gradations into each other. Yellow, brown, and whitish flags and sand stones, dark blue clay, and an occasional bed of black shale occur throughout the formation. Some of the lighter coloured sandstones contain carbonate of lime and the red and green marl, and large masses of gypsum, in thick beds. The total thickness of the coal formation is considerable, the portion examined by Mr. Jukes had a depth of 1,000 to 1,500 feet. The *magnesian limestone* seen, was generally of a yellow colour, about 50 feet thick, in beds of two to three feet each, frequently splitting into flags. One bed of carbonate of lime was found of a grey colour, two feet thick, with a band of brown chert. The magnesian limestone seen by Mr. Jukes had generally a yellow colour, but rudely spheroidal concentric stripes of pink frequently occurred. These, whichever direction the rock was split, produced markings similar to those seen in fortification agate, but on a much larger scale, being often two or three feet across. The *upper slate* formation is supposed to be below the coal formation in the series. The superior portion consists of dark micaceous shale, splitting into thin laminae, with interstratified beds of a very fine-grained grey gritstone, which increase in number, thickness, and coarseness of grain with the increasing depth, until the shale disappears altogether. The thickness of the two portions seen was several hundred feet. The *lower slate* series is deemed by Mr. Jukes to belong to an older formation, and to be composed of two groups, viz., a mass of red and grey sandstone, which, at the Signal hill entrance of St. John's harbour, has a thickness of 800 feet, and the St. John's slate, in which beds of red, green, and greystone alternate near the junction of the sandstone, with the slate rocks forming the transition beds between the two. The thickness of this formation is estimated at 2,000 to 3,000 feet or more. The change of the slate is frequently parallel to the line of stratification, and produces excellent roofing slate. Veins of white quartz and masses

of porphyry
slates.

The igneous rocks found in the country pass into the indistinct formations seen in the north.

Near the coast the composition of the country is composed of sandstone, of the formation of the West. It consists of gneiss, mica slate, and W. coal. The castle, says the geologist, is a very large mass of the W. coal. The broken northern part of St. John's Bay is a Grand slate.

was found to be 10 feet thick, and (4) coal of 2 feet. The Port of St. John's is probably a lofty stratum of river sandstone. About the Bay and surrounding country are pure n. procured from the island of St. John's Bay, and serpentine of the Bay of gneiss, and mica slates.

of porphyry are found associated with the slates.

The *Mica slate and Gneiss*, and also the igneous rocks, do not differ from those usually found in other parts of the globe; the mica and the gneiss, however, alternate with and pass into each other; excepting some very indistinct vegetable impressions in the coal formation, no organic remains have yet been found in any rock in Newfoundland.

Nearly the whole peninsula of Avalon is composed of the *lower slate formation*. The country W. and N.W. of Avalon is composed chiefly of variegated slate, coarse mica slate, and conglomerate. The region of Fortune Bay, and E. of Cape Ray, consists of primitive rocks, chiefly granite; also gneiss, sienite (porphyry and basalt), quartz, mica slate, clay slate, and turpentine. The W. coast from St. George's Bay to the northward contains, according to Sir R. Bonycastle, the carboniferous rocks. Mr. Jukes says that mica slate, gneiss, and their associated rocks, with occasional patches of primary limestone, extend along the whole of the W. side of Newfoundland, and from the Humber river he supposes they form an unbroken ridge to Cape Quirpon, the extreme northern point of the island. On the N. side of St. George's Bay magnesian limestone dips at a slight angle to the N.N.W. At Grand Pond the cliffs are of gneiss and mica slate. In the N.E. corner an exposed section was found to contain (1) sand and boulders, 10 feet; (2) softish grey and yellowish sandstone, 5 feet; (3) ditto ditto shaly, 1 foot; (4) coal, some part like cannel coal, 6 inches; (5) yellow chert, 2 inches; (6) grey sand, 2 feet. All these beds dipped at an angle of 30° to the S.E. The country between Port aux Ports and the Bay of Islands is probably composed of igneous rocks: it is lofty and unbroken. A calcareous formation stretches across the mouth of the Humber river, in hills of 400 to 500 feet high. About three miles up the river are lofty precipices of pure white marble, crowned and surrounded by thick woods, which closing in upon the rapids, produce most picturesque scenery. Mr. Jukes says that blocks of this pure marble of any required size may be procured. Mr. Cormack, when crossing the island from Random Sound to St. George's Bay, mentions having seen abundance of serpentine E. of Jameson's lake; N. of the Bay of Despair, granite, sienite, quartz, gneiss, fine clay slate, alum slate, and indications of coal and iron. From the hills at

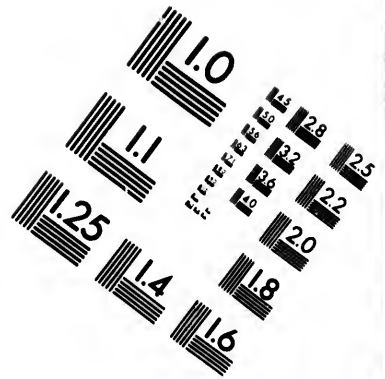
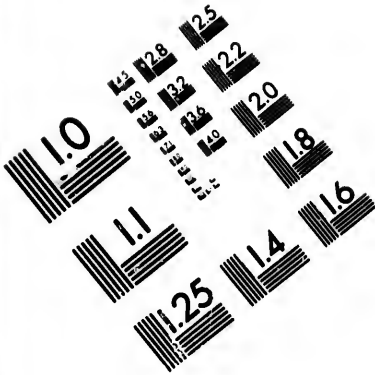
the back of St. George's Bay, to nearly the centre of the island, he mentions no other rock than granite. In the neighbourhood of Canada Bay on the W. side of White Bay the geological surveyor was informed that limestone exists in abundance, and a specimen brought to St. John's was identical in mineralogical character with the white marble of the Humber.

The "strike" throughout the island rarely varies from a true N.N.E. and S.S.W. direction, hence all the other prominent features of the country run in the same direction, not only as regards the ranges of hills, but also the principal lakes, deep bays, and valleys, lie in the same line of bearing. The Bay of Islands is the only important exception to this rule. The "strike" and cleavage of the rocks are not absolutely dependent on the strike and dip of the beds; the "strike" of the cleavage is not invariably parallel to the strike of the beds; but the cleavage is much more constant as regards its strike and dip in relation to the points of the compass than it is in relation to the strike and dip of the beds, or than those latter are to the horizon and points of the compass.

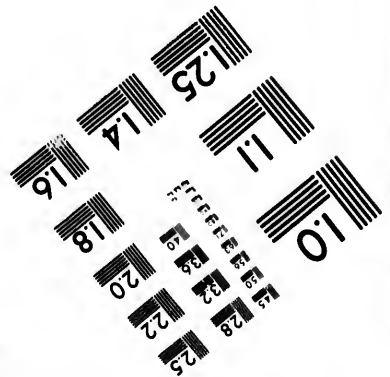
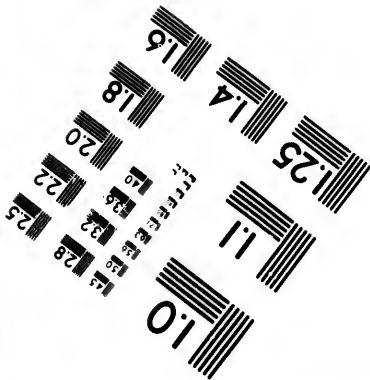
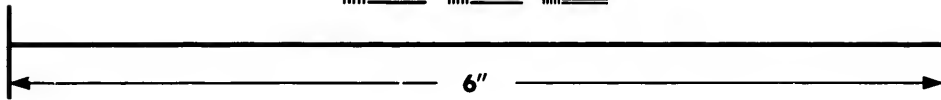
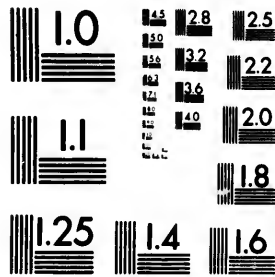
As regards the relative age of the igneous rocks, Mr. Jukes supposes that the granites are generally newer than the mica slate, and the gneiss which repose upon them. The coal formation seems to be contemporaneous with that of Western Europe, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and New Brunswick, and the most modern group of stratified rocks in Newfoundland; he adds, "the mass of the granites and other unstratified rocks are more recent than the lower slate formation; some of them at least more recent than the upper slate formation, and they may be more modern even than the coal formation." Lieutenant-colonel Sir R. Bonycastle, alludes to the evident volcanic action among the primary sandstones and conglomerates, and other indications of the same power which has been exhibited in Canada, and generally British America. Granite boulders are plentiful, and frequently of large size, and found on the tops of hills 400 to 500 feet, composed of gritstone, slate, or sienite, 20 or 30 miles from where any granite is to be found. Over the greater part of the island, drifted materials to the depth of several feet are to be met with.

At the river Exploits, was found a fine unctuous clay, perfectly plastic, 15 or 20 feet thick, and lying in thin layers, usually of a





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slate colour, with a reddish band here and there, but no sand. Above the clay rests a bed of fine sand two or three feet thick. It is evident from the foregoing, that abundance of building and of roofing materials, of limestone and of marble are obtainable in Newfoundland.

The prevailing rock on the Labrador coast, so far as we know, is gneiss. On this at Anse le Loup, a bed of old red sandstone is super-ground, about 200 feet thick, and extending above half a mile inland. Here also, as on every other part of the coast of Labrador visited, the appearance of the cliffs, and of the land near them, and the rolled masses, inland, which have evidently been exposed to the action of the sea, seem to prove that it has considerably receded. The sandstone is generally red and white, in alternate stripes, and presents a remarkable mural front to the sea. Near the surface it was strongly marked with iron. The whole of the rock was composed of white quartz and yellow felspar; the grains being generally as fine as oatmeal, though occasionally coarser, even to the extent of half an inch in diameter. Both coarse and fine, bear marks of being a mechanical deposit, and are, with few exceptions, perfectly distinct, without the least appearance of amalgamation. Over the red sandstone was a thin stratum of red compact felspar, containing vegetable impressions, and also horizontal. Above this were varieties of secondary limestone, arranged in parallel strata several feet thick, and full of shells. Detached masses of primitive limestone were also found; and a few miles from the shore the secondary formations generally disappeared, leaving gneiss and mica slate on the surface.

MINERALOGY.—Coal. There are beds of this valuable mineral on the south side of St. George's Bay, and in the counties north of the Great Pond; there are probably other beds on the west coast. The Newfoundland coal field is evidently a continuation of the coal strata in Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, New Brunswick, and Gaspé. Mr. Jukes says, that the seams he saw were of no great thickness, but that more important ones will probably be found. At eight miles from the Gulf shore a bed of coal, known to the Mic-mac Indians, was seen of three feet in thickness and of excellent quality. The guides said that equally valuable beds, in a similar parallel were to be found up the Codroy river. The extent of the coal field is estimated at 25 miles long by 10 broad.

As population increases in the island this discovery will be found of great value, and tend much to its improvement.

Gypsum comes out in abundance on the sea cliffs at Codroy harbour, and the S. side of St. George's Bay. Beds of limestone of inferior quality are found in Mortier Bay, and Chapel Cove in Holyrood, and in Conception Bay.

Copper.—A small vein of sulphuret and green carbonate exist in the Signal Hill sandstone of Shoal Bay, and was worked to some extent in the middle of the last century.

Lead.—Crystals of galena were seen in the sienite on the west side of the harbour of Great St. Lawrence. There is said to be an *iron mine* on the northern side of Belle-isle, and another at Harbour Grace. There is also a quantity of the mineral called marcasite, copperas stone, and horse gold, iron pyrites (which some of the earlier discoverers mistook for gold), found in the vicinity of Catalina harbour.

Salt springs are reported near the W. coast.

SOILS.—The thick coating of moss, which Mr. Jukes calls the "curse of the country," prevents the nature of the soil being generally known: where this moss has been cleared away, as at the south side of St. George's bay, the excellence of the earth has been manifested. The soft sandstones and rich marls which compose the coal formation, generally form very fertile districts. The timber, natural grass, and clover found in various places, indicate a productive soil. There are valuable alluviums in the neighbourhood of the rivers and lakes. The stunted forests on the east and south shores mark a poor country; but the large forests in the interior and to the westward, show that there is abundant room for successful agriculture, and that Newfoundland could well supply itself with vegetable and animal food. On the settled parts of the east coast there is none of the rich black soil caused by accumulating vegetable decomposition. Around St. John's the soil is shallow, poor, and hungry, formed of decomposed sandstone and slate rocks, with a loose and friable mixture of silicious and aluminous matters. It requires constant manuring of fish, seaweed, mud, and ashes, to produce crops. There is much of a whitish-gray clay about St. John's; passing through the usual gradations to pipe-clay, unless largely mixed with lime, it is too purely aluminous to be

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serviceable. Wherever the variegated slate, or the igneous rocks, are found, the land is better, the grasses more luxuriant, the forest-trees finer, and the potato crops are more certain. The belt of a few miles along the east coast, consisting of decayed sandstone coloured by iron, with a saline atmosphere, and exposed to almost constant tempestuous weather, affords no criterion of the fertility of other parts of the island.

CLIMATE AND DISEASES.—The climate of Newfoundland is different in the northern and southern districts, and the west coast is more sheltered, and therefore milder than the east coast. The weather, although severe, is less fierce than that of Lower or Eastern Canada. The summer is shorter than that of Canada, the autumn less certain, and the winter a series of storms of wind, rain, and snow. Snow does not lie long on the ground, and the frost is less intense than in Western Canada. Winter lasts from the beginning of December until the middle of April. January and February are the coldest months. Severe gales of wind extend along the coast, the coldest from the N.W. The land or westerly winds are naturally drier than the easterly winds, which sweep over the Atlantic for three-fourths of the year, and cause considerable evaporation from the ocean over the banks. In Newfoundland, as in Canada, the land or N.W. wind in winter is bitterly cold; in summer it is pleasantly warm. The sea, or north-easterly wind, is cold both in summer and winter; the south-easterly, warm. During a long winter, the brilliancy of the aurora borealis, and the splendid lustre of the moon and stars give peculiar beauty to the atmosphere. The most remarkable feature connected with Newfoundland is the fogs on its banks and neighbouring shores.

The fogs of the Gulf of St. Lawrence are attributed to the *coldness* of the Gulf waters, which is believed to be constant a few feet below the surface as well as at great depths; every gale of wind brings this cold water to the surface, by which the temperature of the air is reduced below the dew point, at which suspended vapours are precipitated and become visible. Those on the Banks of Newfoundland are most probably caused by the cold deep water flowing from the Pole to the Equator, being there forced to the surface in consequence of the interruption given by the banks to its southward course. The surface water on the Great Bank is many degrees colder than that of the neighbouring sea,

and much less than that of the Gulf stream, which is within a short distance.

Mr. Jukes describes the water in Trinity Bay as "bitterly cold," even in the middle of a warm July, and so singularly clear that when the surface was still, the echini, shell-fish, and cretinise clinging to the rocks, crabs and lobsters crawling on the bottom, fish, medusæ, and myriads of sea creatures floating in its depths, were as clearly visible to a depth of 30 or 40 feet, as in the air itself.

The fogs on the banks of Newfoundland, and even in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, are sometimes so dense, that in fine, almost calm weather, with the sun shining over head, two vessels pass each other unseen, while the voices of persons talking can be heard from either ship. The fog appears to lie on the surface of the water, for when near land, an observer from the mast-head may descry it quite distinctly, while on deck no object within a few yards distance is visible. The fogs are not generally attended with rain, but the decks are often kept wet, and the higher masts and rigging collect the condensed moisture of the atmosphere in large drops. Fogs do not prevail at all seasons; in May and the beginning of June they are most prevalent. The annual register of fogs for 1841, shews: January, one day and a half; February and March, none; April, one; May, three; June, two; July, one; August, one; September, four; October, one; November, two; December, one. Total, 17½ days. Of light fogs or mists there were in 1841, 19½ days: shewing, altogether, 37 days of foggy weather throughout the year. The E. and S. shore of Newfoundland are more subject to fogs than the W. coast. In summer, an easterly wind brings fog; W. and S.W. winds, rain. The land or W. winds are drier.

In the early part of summer, when the waters have acquired a temperature approaching that of the air, a peculiar mirage is observable off Newfoundland and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence; during its early existence the line of trees with which the hills are covered, seem raised much above the level of the rest, resembling a lofty hedge row; this, however, is soon lost, as all the trees apparently attain the same height, giving the appearance of an immense table, stretching from hill to hill; the shores in the mean time assume the semblance of a great wall, and the island seems girt with a similar inclosure, or bounded with precipices all

round; their tops also look flat like tables, and the small island often assumes a flower-pot shape. Dr. Kelly observed one instance in the river St. Lawrence, where the islands of Bic and Bicquette appeared to join—their wooded tops to meet, leaving an arch, beneath which the waters seemed to flow. On the beach the spray seems to rise in foam to the tops of these imaginary cliffs, while the houses, &c., attain a similar height. Ships, according to their distance, present different elevations, sometimes rising to twice their real height, at others the masts reach only a few feet from the deck; sometimes the upper sails seem double—a second set being seen at a considerable height above the first—while again a second vessel's hull, sails and all, is seen above the first; but in no instance is inversion observed, and the object thus refracted is always visible to the naked eye. The fogs do not appear to be injurious to health. The longevity of the inhabitants is indeed the best proof of the salubrity of Newfoundland; in no country is old age attended with greater bodily vigour and mental animation. There are instances of fishermen 100 years of age being actively employed in the arduous duties of their calling.

In 1829, Martin Galten was living at Marasheen island, Placentia Bay: he was then more than 100 years old, in excellent health, and caught with his brother that year nine quintals of cod fish. Seventy years previous he piloted Captain Cook into Placentia Bay. In the same place lived Nancy Zibeau, mother of four living generations. A Mrs. Tait died there in 1819, aged 125 years: she was with her third husband at the siege of Quebec by General Wolfe. Colonel Bonnycastle stated in 1842 that a woman died recently at Torbay, near St. Johns, aged 125 years, and before her death she sent for a doctor to see what was the matter with her poor child, who was sick, the said child being then 90 years of age.

The reports furnished to the "Horse Guards" and "Army Medical Board," confirm this view of the salubrity of the island. This official return states, that

"The climate of the southern portion of Newfoundland is similar to that of Nova Scotia, except that the summers are colder, of shorter duration, and liable to more sudden vicissitudes, owing to the melting of the icebergs on the coast, which exerts considerable influence on the temperature; the island has also been long noted for the frequent and dense fogs which prevail along its banks, and often continue during a great part of the summer. None of these agencies, however, seem to operate prejudicially

on the health of the inhabitants, among whom the mortality is on a lower scale than in any portion of the American continent.

"According to the population returns, the deaths are only 1 in 78 of the population—an exceedingly low ratio indeed, especially when it is considered that upwards of 20,000 are children under 15 years of age. As the inhabitants are scattered over a great extent of coast, several of the deaths may possibly have been omitted; but, even making all due allowance for that source of error, their rapid increase, without any material aid from immigration, furnishes sufficient proof that the climate, however unpleasant to the feelings, is highly favourable to the constitution.

"Had we drawn our conclusions in regard to the climate, however, from the mortality among the troops at this station, we should have been led to very different conclusions. Unfortunately, we cannot extend our observations on this subject to an earlier date than 1825, because, prior to that period, the garrison having principally consisted of two companies of one of the regiments at Halifax, their returns were frequently included with those of that station. Since 1825, however, a corps has been formed for service in this colony, consisting of three companies of veterans, who, although for the most part aged or disabled, have been reported as fit for garrison duty. These, with a company of artillery, have generally constituted the whole force, among whom the sickness and mortality has been as follows:—

Years.	Newfoundland Veteran Companies.			Royal Artillery.		
	Average Strength	Deaths.	Mean Sickness.	Average Strength	Deaths.	Mean Sickness.
1825 .	321	18	20	61	4	4
1826 .	292	7	17	56	1	1-2
1827 .	310	9	18	62	...	2
1828 .	336	14	20	?	1	3-6
1829 .	275	15	13	?	1	2
1830 .	258	15	11	?	3	1
1831 .	239	16	16	65	3	2
1832 .	205	8	24	57	1	3
1833 .	189	7	10	55	...	1-3
1834 .	241	3	12	60	1	1-6
1835 .	255	11	12	66	1	2
1836 .	263	10	14	71	...	2-7
Total .	3,189	132	101	762	17	22-8
Ratio per 1000 of Strength		41	60	...	22	30

"From this table it appears that the mortality among the veterans has been upwards of 41 per 1,000 annually, on the average of the last 12 years, while that of the artillery has been only 22 per 1,000 during the same period. The high ratio among the former may in part be accounted for by their advanced age, nearly one half being between 33 and 40, and the other half above that period of life; but it appears still more attributable to the immediate effects of intemperance, as the records of that corps furnish most startling evidence of the general prevalence and destructive consequence of this vice.

"In a nominal roll, transmitted to the medical department, of those who died between 1825 and 1832 in the veteran companies, we find the following causes of death recorded:—

Total
Whereof—
Died by

"
" Found
Drowned
Contused

Died by
By Fever

" Disease
" Disease
" Disease
" Dropsy

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AVERAGE TEMPERATURE IN NEWFOUNDLAND.

Total deaths from 1825 to 1832 inclusive	100
Whereof—	
Died by suffocation from drinking	10
" delirium tremens	15
" apoplexy, principally from intoxication	16
Found dead, supposed from same cause	2
Drowned	1
Contusion	1
	— 44
Died by disease	56, viz.—
By Fevers	{ Feb. Cont. Com. 1 } 3
	{ Typhus . . . 1 } 3
	{ Pyrexia . . . 1 } 3
	{ Pneumonia . . . 3 } 37
" Diseases of the Lungs	{ Phthisis . . . 18 } 37
	{ Catarrhus . . . 17 } 37
	{ Asthma . . . 1 } 6
" Diseases of the Liver	{ Hepatitis . . . 5 } 6
	{ Icterus . . . 1 } 6
" Diseases of the Stomach and Bowels	{ Gastritis . . . 5 } 7
	{ Diarrhoea . . . 2 } 7
" Dropsy	{ Ascitis . . . 3 } 3
	{ Total . . . 56

"Thus little more than one-half of the mortality among the veterans has been in any way attributable to natural causes, and as large a proportion might have occurred among persons at the same period of life, even in this country. The returns from this station are not sufficiently complete to admit of our detailing the diseases of the artillery with similar minuteness, nor even to carry the investigation relative to the veterans beyond 1832; but, as so large a proportion of the deaths has been traced to intemperance, many of the admissions into hospital are likely to have been attributable to the same cause; consequently, even if obtained, these returns, when subject to so manifest source of error, could have afforded no accurate data for determining the influence of this climate on the constitution of our troops.

"The fate of so large a proportion of this garrison, by their own imprudence in the use of spirituous liquors, affords a striking illustration of the progressive effect and ultimate consequence of long-continued habits of intemperance. In Nova Scotia, for instance, we find, that though this vice prevails to a great extent among the troops, the mortality is as low as can be expected in any climate, even among persons of abstemious habits. But there the troops are, for the most part, men in the prime of life, whose excesses produce little sickness or mortality, while they have the advantage of youth on their side; but they are silently laying the seeds of disease in their constitution, and inducing premature old age and disability, so that by the time they attain the same advanced period of life as the veterans, a repetition of excesses, which might formerly have been

indulged in with comparative impunity, hurries them to an untimely grave.

"In regiments of the line, the number of men at an advanced period of life being but small, the premature deaths caused by drunkenness are lost in the mass, and add little to the general mortality. It is only when a corps is composed of men advanced in years that the ultimate consequences of this vice can be traced to their full extent, or so strikingly manifested as in the present instance."

The highest and lowest of the thermometer and barometer in 1841, registered by Sir R. Bonnycastle, was:—

Months.	Thermometer.		Barometer.	
	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
January . . .	44.0	3.0	30.3	28.7
February . . .	42.6	4.6	30.2	28.6
March . . .	47.0	0.5	30.3	28.8
April . . .	56.5	14.3	30.2	28.9
May . . .	62.0	21.8	30.2	29.1
June . . .	74.0	29.8	30.1	29.2
July . . .	79.5	34.8	30.1	29.3
August . . .	78.3	36.5	30.2	29.3
September . . .	75.3	33.5	30.2	29.3
October . . .	68.3	24.0	30.3	29.2
November . . .	57.0	16.5	30.2	28.9
December . . .	44.5	5.0	30.4	28.9

On the 15th February, 1841, during a severe storm from W.S.W., the thermometer fell from 40 to 19, and the barometer from 29.8 to 28.5.

The annual average of the thermometer and barometer for six years was as follows:—

Months.	Ther.		Bar.		Months.	Ther.		Bar.	
	Ther.	Bar.	Months.	Ther.		Bar.	Ther.	Bar.	
January . . .	22.7	29.6	July . . .	57.4	29.7				
February . . .	42.6	29.6	August . . .	58.3	29.8				
March . . .	24.0	29.6	September . . .	53.3	29.8				
April . . .	33.8	29.6	October . . .	44.0	29.8				
May . . .	39.5	29.7	November . . .	34.0	29.6				
June . . .	49.8	29.7	December . . .	26.0	29.6				

The Newfoundland almanac for 1845 gives the following comparison of the barometrical and thermometrical averages in Newfoundland and England; the averages are the mean of observations for six years:—

Months.	Barometer.						Thermometer.					
	Mean Height.		Highest.		Lowest.		Mean Temp.		Highest.		Lowest.	
	N.	E.	N.	E.	N.	E.	N.	E.	N.	E.	N.	E.
January . . .	29.68	29.72	30.35	30.77	28.73	28.89	22.7	36.0	44.0	52.0	3.0	11.0
February . . .	29.62	30.06	30.24	30.82	28.69	29.17	19.75	38.0	42.67	53.0	4.67	21.0
March . . .	29.74	29.84	30.34	30.77	28.82	28.87	24.0	43.9	47.0	63.0	0.5	23.0
April . . .	29.08	29.88	30.20	30.64	28.91	29.20	33.8	49.9	56.5	74.0	14.3	29.0
May . . .	29.78	29.80	30.22	30.38	29.13	29.66	39.5	54.0	62.0	70.0	21.8	33.0
June . . .	29.77	30.02	30.14	30.46	29.22	29.80	49.8	59.7	74.0	90.0	29.8	37.0
July . . .	29.79	29.87	30.18	30.30	29.37	29.39	57.4	61.0	79.5	79.0	34.8	42.0
August . . .	29.83	29.80	30.21	30.28	29.35	29.35	58.3	61.6	78.3	82.0	38.5	41.0
September . . .	29.83	29.93	30.29	30.41	29.32	29.41	53.3	57.8	75.3	76.0	33.5	36.0
October . . .	29.89	29.77	30.31	30.61	29.26	29.74	44.0	43.9	68.3	68.0	24.0	27.0
November . . .	29.67	29.77	30.27	30.27	28.90	29.08	34.0	42.9	57.0	62.0	16.5	23.0
December . . .	29.68	29.69	30.40	30.32	28.93	29.12	26.10	39.3	44.50	55.0	5.06	17.0

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CHAPTER III.

GOVERNMENT, REVENUE, POPULATION, RELIGION, EDUCATION, AND CRIME.

GOVERNMENT is administered under a constitution granted in 1832, and subsequently modified in accordance with the responsible system which exists in the other North American colonies. The executive council consists of nine members, who also compose the legislative council. The House of Assembly consists of fifteen representatives. St. John's returns three members, Conception Bay four, and the other districts one each. The elective franchise was conferred in 1832 on the whole male population occupying dwelling-houses either as owners or tenants for one year.

Judicature and Police.—The official report on this subject in 1843 is complete:—

"The Supreme Court is constituted under the imperial statute, 5 Geo. IV. c. 67, and the Royal Charter issued in pursuance of the statute. It is composed of a chief justice at a salary of £1,200 sterling, and two assistant judges, each at a salary of £700 sterling, secured by Act of the Legislature. The Court has jurisdiction throughout the whole government of Newfoundland and its dependencies, and on the seas and banks to which vessels resort for carrying on the fishery, and has all criminal and civil jurisdiction, as fully and amply to all intents and purposes, as the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer, and High Court of Chancery in England, and is also a Court of Oyer and Terminer and General Gaol Delivery. The Court sits only at St. John's, the capital of the island, at such times as the governor by his proclamation may appoint. The terms rarely exceed two, one in spring and one in autumn, for a period of about three or four weeks each. All civil actions, in which the matter in dispute exceeds forty shillings, are tried by jury. The practice on the common law side is in general the same as that of the Court of Queen's Bench, modified by rules adapted to the circumstances of the colony. The practice on the equity side is governed by a code of rules, subject to which modification, the practice of the English Court of Chancery prevails. In prosecutions for breaches of the laws relating to trade and revenue, the Supreme Court proceeds according to the rules and practice of the courts of Vice-Admiralty. This Court alone, is also invested with the power of granting probates of wills and letters of administration, and with the control of the persons and property of infants and lunatics. An appeal lies from the Supreme Court to the Queen in Council, where the matter in dispute exceeds £500. The officers of the court are the chief clerk and registrar, at a salary, in lieu of fees, of £350 sterling, (lately reduced from £500) who is also by virtue of his office, Registrar of Deeds for the central district, appointed by warrant under the Royal Sign Manual. A crier, at a salary of £80 sterling, appointed by the chief justice for the time being, both salaries voted annually by the Assembly.

"**Circuit Courts.**—The island is divided into three judicial districts, the central, northern, and southern, within which, respectively, there is a superior Court of Record, styled the Circuit Court, held by the chief or one of the assistant judges of the Supreme Court. This Court has the same jurisdiction, powers, and authority within the district as the Supreme Court throughout the whole island, save in cases of treason, and capital felonies, and in prosecutions for breach of the revenue laws.

"The Circuit Court for the central district (or district of St. John's) sits at the town of St. John's only. Its terms generally precede those of the Supreme Court in spring and autumn, and last for periods of about four weeks, and its practice is the same as that of the Supreme Court.

"The Circuit Court for the northern circuit sits twice in the year at Harbor Grace for periods of about four weeks in spring and autumn; and once a year during the months of September and October at the following places, viz.—Twillingate, Fogo, Greenpond, Bonavista, and Trinity, for periods of a week or 10 days at the respective places.

"The Circuit Court for the southern district sits once in the year only, at the following places, during the months of September and October, viz., Harbor Briton, Burin, Placentia, St. Mary's, and Ferryland.

"The terms and places of holding the Circuit Courts are annually fixed by the governor's proclamation. The practice of the northern and southern Circuit Courts is governed by a code of rules adapted to the state and circumstances of the outports. An appeal lies from the Circuit Courts to the Supreme Court in matters exceeding £50 sterling. Each of these Courts has a clerk, (who is also the Registrar of Deeds within the district,) appointed by warrant and under the Royal Sign Manual at a salary of £200, and fees amounting in the northern district to £150 or £180, and in the southern district to less than £50.

"Courts of General and Quarter Sessions are also held at St. John's and the principal outports, the sittings of which are regulated by the governor's proclamation. The English Criminal Law being in force in the colony, these Courts and the magistrates have (so far as the law can be applied) jurisdiction and powers similar to those of the quarter sessions and justices of the peace in England. Trials, however, by jury, in criminal cases, with occasional exceptions at St. John's, always take place in the superior Courts. The courts of Session have also a summary jurisdiction in the recovery of debts for sums not exceeding 40s.; in disputes relating to the curing of fish to the amount of £5, and concerning the wages of seamen and fishermen, hiring of boats, and the supply of bait to an unlimited amount. These courts are presided over by the stipendiary magistrates, of whom there are three at St. John's at salaries of £300 sterling each, two at Harbor Grace at salaries of £180 and £150, and one at each of the 13 other outports at salaries varying from £100 to £150; the total cost being £2,930 sterling, voted annually by the Assembly.

Sheriffs.—There are three sheriffs, one for each of

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the judicial districts, at salaries of £750 for the central, £300 for the northern, and £200 for the southern district, secured by an Act of the Legislature. The sheriffs are appointed annually by the governor.

Clerks of the Peace.—There are 11 clerks of the peace, one at St. John's at a salary of £300, one at Harbour Grace at a salary of £150, and one respectively at Brigus, Ferryland, Placentia, Burin, Harbor Briton, Trinity, Bonavista, Carboner, and Twillingate, at salaries from £35 to £80 without fees. Their salaries, with the exception of that of the clerk of the peace for St. John's are voted annually by the Assembly. The clerks of the peace are appointed by the governor.

Constables.—There are, at various places throughout the island, in all, 66 paid constables, at an annual stipend varying from £12 to £25, with the exception of the high constable at St. John's, who has £80, and at a total cost of £1,394 sterling, voted annually by the Assembly. These are all the constables of the island, there being none who serve gratuitously.

Goalers.—There are six goalers, one at St. John's at a salary of £150, one at Harbour Grace at £90, and one respectively at Ferryland, Placentia, Burin, and Trinity, at £25 each (in lieu of fees), voted annually by the Assembly. There being no local rates or assessments in the different districts, the whole expense of the administration of justice, support of the

poor, and for other public services and works, is defrayed out of the public revenue."

POPULATION.—In consequence of the extensive fisheries carried on along its coasts, the population of Newfoundland necessarily fluctuates. Until recently there has been no accurate census. In 1785, the resident population was estimated at 10,224; in 1806, at 26,505. Since 1822, as follows:—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
In 1822.	31,748	20,401	52,149	516	1,675	735
" 1827.	34,617	23,471	58,088	442	1,870	696
" 1836.	41,467	32,238	73,705	—	—	—
" 1845.	52,274	44,232	96,506	—	—	—

According to a census taken in 1825, of classes, there were of masters, 6,131; mistresses, 6,211; men servants, 11,537; women-servants, 4,210; children under 15 years, 20,204. The number of French on the coast was then stated to be 12,000.

The census of 1836 contains the following:—

Districts.	No. of Dwelling-houses.	Family.						Total Population.
		Males.			Females.			
		Under 14 years.	14 to 60 years.	Upwards of 60 years.	Under 14 years.	14 to 60 years.	Upwards of 60 years.	
St. John's	2,781	3,718	4,984	166	3,611	4,123	201	18,926
Conception Bay	3,521	4,971	5,289	202	4,452	4,842	261	23,215
Trinity Bay	959	1,546	1,565	108	1,372	1,320	110	6,803
Bonavista Bay	801	1,182	1,149	98	1,059	1,010	71	5,183
Fogo and Twillingate	703	1,124	1,059	87	1,101	872	59	4,886
Ferryland	619	882	1,223	77	768	878	53	5,860
Placentia and St. Mary's	712	1,024	853	68	989	925	49	4,701
Burin	461	639	664	35	644	605	32	3,140
Fortune Bay	454	680	600	69	623	604	28	3,129
Totals	11,071	15,768	17,356	910	14,909	15,197	864	75,843

The latest census of Newfoundland, dated 1845, gives the following results:—

Census of 1845.	Males.	Females.	Total.
St. John's	13,177	12,019	25,196
Conception Bay	14,899	13,127	28,026
Trinity	4,687	4,112	8,799
Bonavista	3,943	3,234	7,227
Fogo	3,771	2,973	6,744
Ferryland	2,623	1,958	4,581
Placentia and St. Mary's	3,578	2,895	6,473
Burin	2,845	1,873	4,718
Fortune Bay	3,109	1,991	5,100
Total in 1845	52,274	44,232	96,506

At present, the population is upwards of 100,000. At St. John's, society is composed of the same classes as in other British settlements. Along the coasts many of the colonists employ themselves in farming as well

as in fishing; and since the period that attention has been paid to religion and education—aided by temperance societies—the population has become far more orderly and continuously industrious than they were in by-gone times.

When Newfoundland was first visited after the general discovery of the continent of America, it was found to contain two distinct races of men—the one termed *Red Indian*, the other the *Esquimaux*; both are now almost extinct, the former perhaps entirely so, as recriminating hostilities were waged between them and the early settlers, who shot and speared each other whenever an occasion presented itself. The destruction of the *Red Indians* was not owing solely to the occupation of the island by Europeans, but to the exterminating war of the *Mic-Macs*.

Military Defence.—There are 11 harbour batteries. There is no militia or local corps. The military defence is defrayed entirely by Great Britain, and amounted, in 1848, to £27,474. Fifty pounds are allowed by the colony towards the payment of the duties on wines imported or purchased annually for the use of the military.

Ecclesiastical Establishment.—In 1839, Newfoundland, which until then had been a part of the diocese of Nova Scotia, was, with the Bermudas, erected into a separate see. The established church has 32 clergymen, 18 parsonage houses, 64 churches, or places for the celebration of divine service. Of Roman catholic chapels there are 35. There are about 80 dissenting places of worship, of various denominations. Of the reformed religion, the class the most numerous, and by far the wealthiest, is that of the church of England; they number 84,281 persons. Next to them, in point of number, are the Wesleyans, of whom there are 14,239 persons: their establishment consists of 13 ministers, and they have 34 places of worship. The Presbyterians of the church of Scotland number 576 persons, and they have one minister resident in St. John's, and one place of worship. There is likewise a congregational church at St. John's, and one resident minister; this section numbers 394 persons. The Roman catholic population number 46,785 persons; they have 42 churches, and a cathedral at St. John's, not yet consecrated. Their establishment consists of a bishop and 24 clergymen. To the bishop, a salary of £75 a-year, drawn from the North American clergy estimate, was formerly assigned; but that sum, by a vote of the House of Commons in the past year, was raised to £300.

The census of 1836 shows:—

Districts.	Schools.	Male Pupils.	Female Pupils.	Protestant Episcopians.	Protestant Dissenters.	Roman Catholics.
St. John's	37	1,041	1,379	3,813	1,067	14,056
Conception Bay	22	621	492	6,519	6,333	10,063
Trinity Bay	2	168	127	4,096	1,839	1,066
Bonaville Bay	6	128	138	3,473	461	1,240
Fogo and Twillingate	1	48	38	4,022	45	819
Ferryland	6	138	106	313	—	4,798
Placentia and St. Mary's	4	90	30	719	6	3,586
Burin	1	8	12	671	1,066	1,374
Fortune Bay	1	—	—	2,312	—	308

EDUCATION.—There is a male orphan asylum with 470 children; six grammar schools and academies, under the control of the local government; 40 schools established by the "Newfoundland and British North

American School Society," on the Madras system, with about 2,784 male and female pupils in 1848, to which the local government subscribed £500 per annum; and eight schools under the Wesleyan methodist connexion, to which the local government contributes £250 per annum. There is a "presentation convent school," with 400 female children, conducted by 11 ladies, nuns of a religious order. The superior, Mrs. Risevare, superintends under the Roman catholic bishop for the time being. Dr. Fleming, the present Roman catholic bishop, has, it is said, hitherto supported the establishment, with the exception of an annual grant from the colonial legislature. Since the fire of 1846 the number of pupils has not exceeded 500. A want of accommodation alone prevents a much larger attendance: the Blue Book for 1848 states, that

"Under an Act of the local Legislature for the encouragement of education in the colony, elementary schools have been established in every district in the island. By the provisions of this Act of the Legislature, power is given to the governor to constitute in each district two separate and distinct Boards of Education, Roman catholic and protestant; by nominating seven respectable inhabitants of each creed to each section. One resident clergyman of each persuasion being *ex officio* a member of his respective Board, and to their care the regulation and supervision of these schools is entrusted.

"The scheme for the government of these schools has been found to be both efficient and satisfactory. The amount expended in furtherance of this object for the year 1847, was £3,067. His Excellency rightly adds, that in the present state of the great mass of the population of the colony, consisting, as it does, of simple and hardy fishermen, the subjects of instruction must necessarily be of a simple and elementary nature. For the benefit of this class the colonial grant is given, a separate provision having been likewise made for those, whose children require a higher education, it being the intention of the Legislature to provide for the education of the sons and daughters of fishermen; of children that are to live the same simple, laborious, and honourable life as their parents are now doing. For it should not be lost sight of that the instruction must always have reference to the station in life which the child is hereafter to fill, the two-fold scope and object of all education being first to impart to the child that practical knowledge of his duty to God and man, and of the grand purpose of his existence here, which may, through his mercy, ensure his present and eternal happiness, and secondly, to convey that secular instruction which may best enable him to perform the part assigned to him among his fellow-men for their mutual good."

The census of 1845 shows 209 schools:—

Conducted by Masters.		Conducted by Mistresses.		Total.
Male Pupils.	Female Pupils.	Male Pupils.	Female Pupils.	
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The Press and Institutions.—There are twelve newspapers published in the colony, viz.—ten at St. John's, and two at Conception Bay. There is a chamber of commerce, an association of underwriters, a gas-light company, two public libraries, fire companies, agricultural, benevolent, law, and other societies, &c.

Roads and bridges are under construction or repair in every district of the colony, and a large part of the revenue is being devoted to this important purpose. A colonial legislative building is constructing at St. John's, at an estimated expense of £15,000, and a market at £7,000; £9,000 had been spent on the former, and £4,000 on the latter up to 1848.

Crime.—There are three prisons, viz., at St. John's, Harbour Grace, and Ferryland; and the number of prisoners in confinement at Michaelmas, 1848, was nine males and one female; of felons there were, tried, males, five; females, three. Untried, males, six. The number of debtors was 19. The tried misdemeanours were, males, 78; females, 8. Untried, males, 31; females, one. Of the total number of prisoners committed during the year 17 were under 18 years of age; of those who could not read or write, 2½ were males and 6 females.

Revenue.—The sums collected in 1828 from customs, duties, rent of crown lands, licences, &c., amounted to £15,972; in 1836 to £35,222; in 1843 to £50,884; in 1847 to £69,049.

The revenue of Newfoundland for 1848 and 1847 was—

Heda of Revenue.	1848.	1847.
	£	£
Under imperial acts	5,783	6,211
" colonial acts	48,164	62,127
Light dues	1,627	1,728
Land sales and rents	1,188	382
Licences, fines, &c.	574	534
Fees of public offices	1,204	832
From N. A. clergy establishment	800	800
By loan under colonial acts	1,885
Parliamentary grant for fire sufferers	4,160
Drawn from treasury for expenses on a shipwrecked vessel	387
	69,300	69,049
Expenditure	62,711	74,873

The civil department cost, in 1848, £5,921; Customs estimated, £7,580; Judi-

cial, £6,580; police and magistracy, £5,574; ecclesiastical, £800; legislative, £119 (in 1847, £3,317); printing and stationery, £492; gaols, £721; coroners, £200; relief of poor, £9,700; education, £5,128; interest on loans, £4,328; loans paid, £5,400; and various other items, including rewards amounting to £25, for killing wolves. The governor has a salary of £3,000 a-year, with a house, and £200 for fuel and light, and a private secretary £200; colonial secretary, £500; treasurer, £500; surveyor-general, £500; collector, £800; chief judge, £1,200; two assistant judges, £700 each; attorney-general, £450; registrar of supreme court, £350; sheriff of central district, £750; ditto of northern, £300; ditto of southern, £200; three stipendiary magistrates at St. John's, £300 each; two at Harbour Grace, £300 and £180 each: one at Carbonar, Brigus, Trinity, Twillingate, and Bonavista, each £150; and eight others at salaries of £100 to £180 each. At St. John's, a high constable, £80; eight other stipendiary constables, £360; and in the other districts, stipendiary constables, whose salaries amount to £954 per annum. The Protestant bishop has £500; the Roman catholic bishop, £300. The Protestant bishop receives also £900 from the "society for promoting the gospel in foreign parts."

A recapitulation of the establishment in 1848, shews:—

Heda of Expenditure.	Paid by Gt. Britain.	Paid by Colony.
	£	£
Civil establishment	10,321
Contingent expenses	3,180
Judicial	11,134
Contingent	1,020
Ecclesiastical	800	—
Miscellaneous	36,098
Pensions	159
Totals	800	61,911

Coins.—British money and Spanish dollars, established by the governor's proclamation at 4s. 4d. sterling, but passing current at 5s. The amount of coin in circulation is estimated at £80,000 to £100,000. The greater part of the trade of the colony is effected by barter.

Paper Money.—Quantity not known; the bank of British North America has a branch at St. John's, and it is the only bank in the island.

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Madras female govern- and Methodist government there is a th 400 ladies, superior, the Ro- being. catholic orted the of an legislature. of pupils accom- larger at- tes, that or the en- elementary ict in the Legisla- stitute in boards of t; by no- each creed a of each respective d supervi- e schools in- satisfactory. his object xcellency the great ting, as it subjects of d clemen- e colonial been like- a higher tature to laughter the same r parents sight of ace to the to fill, the eing first ge of his urpose of n-eracy, en- secondly, may best to him d."

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CHAPTER IV.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS, AGRICULTURE AND FISHERIES, COMMERCE, TARIFF, SHIPPING, &c.

THE VEGETABLE KINGDOM differs but little from that of the adjacent continent. The interior is supposed to be covered with vast forests; on the east and south coasts the trees are smaller than those growing in the same parallel on the main land, owing to the exposure to the sea and tempestuous weather, but on the W. and N.W. the trees are thickly planted and of considerable size. Of the conifers, the most prominent are the spruces, viz. the *pinus balsamea* or Canada balsam spruce, which reaches the usual height of its species, 30 feet; the *pinus nigra*, or black spruce, grows well at St. George's Bay, as does also the *pinus alba* or white spruce. The *pinus rubra*, red pine, grows about 30 feet in height. The *pinus peniculata*, black larch, and *pinus microcarpus*, red pine, (the *larix Americana* of Michaux), are the most useful of the island forest trees. The timber of the black larch is very solid, strong, and lasting. Excellent brigs and schooners are built in Newfoundland, entirely of the island timber, except the planking, which, as there are no saw mills to prepare, can be procured cheaper from the continent. The consumption of spruce and pine in the island for fishing stages, or places to dry the fish on, is enormous. These erections are formed at the edges of harbours, by uprights of great length, and cross beams from the hill side, forming a platform, which is then loosely covered with the boughs and branches of the pines, so as to admit air from beneath. The steep iron-bound coast renders the construction of these stages absolutely necessary for the prosecution of the trade; the abundance of timber enables the fishermen to erect them at every available spot. The birch tribe are all common, the beech and elm are rare, the *Ostrya Virginica*, iron or lever wood, exists on strong lands. The balsam poplar, trembling or aspen leaved, and the Lombardy poplar, flourish pretty well. The Canadian yew is sometimes of considerable size, the willow thrives well and attains a large size; the mountain ash grows 15 to 20

feet high. The dog wood is plentiful, but is merely a bush.

The timber is larger and more varied at St. George's Bay, the Bay of Islands, and in the country around the Grand Pond, than in any other part of the island. The Bay of Islands has long been a valuable resort for the ship builder, and the whole coast to the northward to the beautiful double bay of Ingornachoix is equally capable of supplying timber for the same purpose. The fir, pine, ash, beech, birch, and juniper (the latter not the shrub of that name, but a larch) are all to be obtained in the interior of the island. The country about the river Humber is densely covered with fine woods. Dr. Chappell describes the banks of the St. George's or Main River as composed of loose earth, covered with various lichens, and surmounted with whole forests of black and white spruce, larch, fir, and birch. There is an immense variety of recumbent and trailing evergreens, and the berry-bearing shrubs clothe every swamp and open tract; the whortleberry, cowberry, hawthorn, partridge berry, trailing arbutus, raspberry, strawberry, and a small kind of prickly gooseberry—carpet the soil in desert places. Sarsaparilla (*aralia medicaulus*) is produced in the woods. Mr. Jukee notices that after the forest is burned down, a crop of wild raspberries springs up, and is succeeded by birch trees; and he also speaks of good currants, raspberries, and gooseberries growing in the garden hedges, and wild in the woods. "At one part," he says, "of Lark Harbour (Humber Sound) where there had been one or two temporary huts and cleared spots, the raspberries were in the utmost profusion, and were equal both in size and in flavour to the best garden raspberries of England. Currants were found pretty plentifully, also chiefly on the cliffs, or wherever there was a broken bank with rocky ledges. They were both red and black, and of a different species from our English currant, being covered over with small spines like the rough red gooseberry; the branches, too, had occasionally a soft

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thorn. The flavour was rather harsh, but still very agreeable, especially when made into puddings." The wild gooseberries are more rare; the fruit is small and sweet, precisely like the small rough red English gooseberry. The wild or choke-cherry is a very ornamental tree, the bunches of minute yellowish-white fragrant flowers are followed by long pendulous grape-like fruit, placed on a stalk resembling currants. The fruit is first of a dark red colour, and when ripe, black,—pleasantly astringent, and devoured greedily by birds. The Kentish cherry thrives with care at St. John's. The wild plum, and the *prunus depressa* are common in the woods. The hop thrives near gardens; the melon is reared, and the cucumber and vegetable marrow without much difficulty. The garden strawberry and raspberry are excellent. The apple, pear, and plum do not arrive at great perfection on the east side of the island; but cabbages, cauliflowers, brocoli, lettuce, spinach, cress, beet, parsnips, carrots, peas, Windsor beans, French beans, celery, thyme, mint, savory, and all the British culinary vegetables and herbs arrive at great perfection. Sir R. Bonnycastle says in reference to the remarkable yield of potatoes, that "from one rowan potato cut into pieces he had a crop of 108 good sized tubers." The potato disease reached Newfoundland in 1846-7, and caused great destruction.

There are three species of rose, natives of Newfoundland; this beautiful flower grows in rich profusion; *rosa blanda*, with its slender purple-red branches, flourishes in the vicinity of streams. The moss, damask, maiden's blush, and Provence rose thrive well in gardens. The moose wood, or heather wood shrub (*Dirca palustris*) produces yellow flowers, and a small yellow berry; its bark is flexible, strong, and well adapted for withes to tie packages. Violets are common, but inodorous. In the tribe of lilies, says Sir R. Bonnycastle, "Solomon in all his glory exceeded not the beauty of those produced in this unheeded wilderness. *L. Philadelphicum* is almost the same in appearance as the common orange lily; *L. Superbum* ornaments some of the ponds, and is orange with dark blue spots; *L. Canadense* also grows in wet places, and has a collection of yellow or reddish flowers maculated darkly. The *Iris* or wild flag, is a superb flower, and very common in Newfoundland, its rich blue dotting every marshy place in the flowering season. *Sisyrinchium anceps*, or the blue-eyed grass, also assists the rich display."

The guelder rose is a native of the country; the "hearts-case" once planted in a garden are with difficulty extirpated. The lily of the valley, Solomon's seal, the campanula, convolvulus, Jacob's ladder, honeysuckle, the painted herb, fox-glove, columbine, wild lupino, potentilla, cowslip, yellow and white water-lily, and other flowers, charming and common to England, are found either wild or cultivated in Newfoundland. In sheltered gardens, the dahlia does well by covering its roots in winter. Perennials thrive better than annuals, on account of the shortness of the summer. In general, the flowers are larger and more spread than those of Europe, but not so odorous. The "pitcher plant," or lady's saddle, with its large, handsome, purple flowers, is the natural production of the swamps. The leaves are tubular, or pitcher-shaped, and always filled with about a wine-glass of the purest water: the receptacles are lined with inverted hairs, which prevent the escape of insects, many of whom find their graves in the pitchers, and are supposed to serve for the food of the plant. The lids expand or shut, according to the necessities of the plant, and the pitchers are of so strong a texture, that they bear heat enough, for some minutes, to boil water in them.

There is a very great variety of European and American grasses; the juncus, or reed tribe, are numerous, and the lichens and ferns afford a fine field of research for the botanist. One of the most beautiful of the ferns, termed the "maiden hair," (*Adiantum pedatum*,) is a little trailing plant, bearing a small white fruit, like the egg of an ant, which contains so much saccharine matter as to be lusciously sweet when preserved. Natural red and white clover, and the vetch, cover the sandy banks near the sea, in Newfoundland and Labrador, to such an extent, especially in Labrador, that vessels requiring fodder, send their boats ashore to gather this rich natural crop. These details, although they refer to but a part of the vegetable kingdom of Newfoundland, are sufficient to disprove the assertions by which it was so long misrepresented as a barren region of fog, ice, and snow, adapted only for the temporary residence of cod fishers and seal hunters.

ANIMAL KINGDOM.—The deer, bear, wolf, fox, hare, marten, dog, wild cat, rat, and mouse, constitute the chief land quadrupeds of Newfoundland with which we are acquainted. Of the deer tribe there are several

varieties: the *caribou*, or *reindeer*, is a very large animal, with immense antlers; their paths, which resemble sheep-walks, are found all over the country; the foot-marks are like those of a cow, but wider and larger. The moss on which they feed is abundant. During the early part of summer they separate into pairs, and hide themselves in the recesses of the woods: In September and October they are in the best condition, and migrate from the north towards the south, swimming in herds across the lakes and arms of the sea. Formerly, the herds that came to the south coast are stated to have been enormous. Mr. Bagg, of La Froile, says he has seen "thousands," and has killed seven at one shot, with heavy slugs, from a large scaling gun. About March they re-migrate towards the north. The flesh is soft, juicy, and tender, and is sold in St. John's, during winter, for fifteen shillings a quarter. This useful animal might be domesticated in Scotland.

Black bears are becoming scarce; they are the long-legged variety, with a pointed muzzle, of a terrier's spot colour, and very large. They live principally on berries; will run from a man, and are not savage, except when wounded. They appear to be fond of pork and molasses; and, in winter, will approach lone houses in the woods in search of food. The white, or polar bear, occasionally lands from the ice at Newfoundland. A fine one was recently killed near St. John's, while endeavouring to make his way across the country, from the east to the west coast.

The wolf is a large and very powerful animal, grey on the back, and yellow beneath. They rarely, if ever, attack men, or even children, but will dodge the steps of a traveller—one or more on each side of him—ready to take advantage of any accident which may befall him. Mr. Lane, of Freshwater Bay, walked, on a winter evening, up Gambo Pond, on the snow, to visit a person living at the head of the pond. On his return, the next day, he found the tracks of two wolves, one on each side of his own foot-marks, who seemed to have methodically accompanied him. The tracks, every now and then, separated for about 100 yards; then, at regular intervals, closed in again on his track. They appeared to have followed him one on each side, in order to come on his track should he diverge, while they met occasionally, to be sure he had not passed them. A wolf is more than a match for a Newfoundland dog. Large numbers of

deer and some young cattle are destroyed by these rapacious animals, for each of whose heads a reward of £5 is given by the colonial government.

The Fox is tolerably abundant; besides the common yellow or reddish, there are the black, silver, blue, and white foxes. The black and silver are much valued for their fur.

The Hare in some parts is plentiful, of a large size compared with those in England; it becomes of a dirty white in winter.

Martens are now becoming scarce; they are considered by some farmers excellent eating, but taste too much of spruce and other woods.

The Dog, so celebrated for its beauty, sagacity, and fidelity, appears to be much neglected in Newfoundland; at St. John's and its neighbourhood they are described by Mr. Jukes as the most ill-looking set of mongrels that can be conceived. In the outports the breed is said to be better preserved. Colonel Sir R. Bonnycastle says, that at the Twillingate islands on the north coast there are still some splendid dogs to be found: they are of two kinds, the short wiry-haired Labrador dog, and the long, curly-haired Newfoundland species, generally black, with a white cross on the breast. Their habits adapt them as much to the water as to the land. The common dogs used in the catamarans are of every possible cross with these, and of every variety of colour and fur. They all appear to prefer fish to any other food, and seem stoically indifferent as to whether it be fresh, salted, or putrid. The spotted mahogany-coloured short-haired Labrador dog, is said to be the most attached to man, and the best house guardian; the other variety with bushy, curling tail, the best water dog; both endure the extreme cold, and prefer a snow bed to any sheltered sleeping-place. The whole race appear to be particularly fond of children: but the Labrador dog, if not well fed, is a sheep biter and a dexterous thief. Newfoundland and Labrador dogs, when removed to a warmer climate are subject to glandular swellings in the ear, which require lancing; they are seldom attacked with hydrophobia, and it is said when ill and past cure they frequently retire to woody or secret coverts to die unobserved.

The Beaver is found only in the interior of ponds and marshes.

The Musquash (fiber zibeticus) or musk rat, whose habits are like those of the

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beaver, is abundant; the tail is thick and round, whereas the tail of the beaver is like a trowel.

The common Rat is destructively numerous.

The wild Cat is found only in the interior.

Birds are numerous in the interior; among those known are the osprey or sea-eagle, the hawk tribe, owls in amazing number and variety, particularly the snow white and the light gray; among the pie family, the raven as elsewhere attends the labour of man; the crow frequents the fields, and a variety of the blue jay is known. Two kinds of woodpeckers are occasionally seen, one the speckled sort. The Newfoundland blackbird is supposed by Sir R. Bonnycastle to be the rose-coloured ouzel, and is called in the island a robin, though as large as a blackbird. The martin stays about ten weeks in summer; the yellow willow wren is very common, and the little wren is seen; the ferruginous thrush, fly-catcher, yellow-breasted chatterer, little black-cap, titmouse, the crossbeak, the snow bird resembling an ortolan, and the sparrow, the latter not of the true genus, are all, with various other species of the winged tribes, found in Newfoundland. Ptarmigan are in abundance; they are very like the Scotch grouse, and there is said to be little specific difference between the red grouse, gorcock or moorcock of Bewick, (tetrao Scoticus) and the ptarmigan of Newfoundland, which must not, however, be confounded with the arctic or northern ptarmigan (tetrao lagopus), both turn white in winter; but the Newfoundland bird has a rufous brown plumage, mixed with white in summer. Three of these birds shot near Trepassy, on the 10th of May, weighed together five pounds thirteen ounces and a half. One cock bird, shot 21st January, with nearly white plumage, weighed twenty-eight ounces. They are much used for the table, roasted and made into white soups. Of the grallæ there are two or three species; of plover, the golden and the grey; the bittern, long-billed curlew, snipe, whimbrel, and sand-piper are common.

Of water birds there are the Canada and snow goose, blue-winged teal, shoveller or great brown duck; widegon and mallard frequent the interior ponds; and varieties of sea birds, among others the gull, lazy cormorant, baccalao, pin-tailed duck or sea pheasant, eider duck, kittiwake, tern, ice-bird or sea dove, goosander, noddy, divers or loon, auk, puffin, and razor-bill, the coast. The Newfoundland goose is a remarkably

elegant bird, with a swan-like form and a black ring round its neck; it is easily domesticated but does not breed. In winter many arctic birds frequent the coast; but the large auk or penguin (alea impennis), which less than half a century ago was a sure sea-mark on or within the edge of the Newfoundland bank, has disappeared, from the destructive trade carried on for their eggs and skin. They are about the size of a goose, with a coal black head and back, a white belly, and a milk-white spot under the right eye. Their wings are more like fins, and have down and short feathers on them. The auks are said to have no thumbs like the South Sea penguins.

Reptiles.—There is a total absence of venomous reptiles; even toads, frogs, or lizards, which are abundant on the neighbouring continent, are unknown in Newfoundland.

Insects, such as mosquitoes, stinging midges and flies, are in myriads.

Amphibia.—The morse or sea-horse (trichicus rosmarus) formerly abounded on the coast of Newfoundland and on the straits of Belle-Isle, but has been destroyed for its blubber and hide, the latter being used for coach traces. The morse is larger than an ox, has been seen 20 feet long, covered with short yellow hair, and has two canine tusks in the lower jaw, 2 feet long, pointing downwards.

The seal abounds around Newfoundland; they are killed on the ice with clubs, in thousands. The cries of a young seal are like those of a child in extreme agony, and are something between shrieks and convulsive sobbing. These cries seem to be the amusement of the young seals when left alone on the ice; and the same cry is used to express enjoyment or pain, fear or defiance. The young seal is of a dirty white colour. The common seal (phoca bitulina), is of a yellowish-grey or brownish, with yellow spots, becomes white from age, and is from three to five feet long. The hooded seal (phoca crystals) is of a dark grey colour, with many irregular shaped spots and blotches of considerable size, seven to eight feet long, with a piece of loose skin on it which can be inflated and drawn over the eyes, and is nearly ball proof. It has the power of distending its nostrils, which gives it a formidable appearance. The harp seal is so named from the old male animal having, in addition to a number of spots, a broad curved line of connecting blotches proceeding from each

shoulder, and meeting on the back above the tail, something like an ancient lyre. The female has not the harp; she leaves her young on the ice and returns from fishing occasionally to suckle them; the milk is of a thick creamy consistence, and of a yellowish-white colour. The "square flipper" seal is rarely seen off Newfoundland; it is said to attain a size of 12 to 15 feet.

Cetacea.—The whale, grampus, and porpoise abound. The true Greenland balæna or toothless whale, of which seven species have been observed, do not often visit the Newfoundland waters: they vary in size from 45 to 70 feet, and the quantity of oil yielded is in proportion to the longest blade of whalebone, viz., at the rate of one gallon and a half to one foot of whalebone. The inferior jaw bone sometimes measures 25 feet. It has a black skin; the gray whale is longer than the above mentioned. The balænoptera, or finned whale, with a horny fin on the lower portion of the back, is sometimes more than 100 feet in length. The beaked whale is only about 25 feet long; it has pouches or folds of fat on its throat and belly. The broad-nosed whale attains a huge length. The cachelots, or whales with teeth in their lower jaw, have an immense head, which is frequently in size one-half or more than a third of the whole animal; the physeter species attains an almost incredible length; on good authority it has been seen 144 feet in length; the usual size is 60 feet. It feeds on the hump fish, cuttle, dog-fish, and even small shark; the toothless whale feeds on mollusca, or gelatinous matter. The toothed whale furnishes spermaceti, which is found below the nose or snout. The trumpo, blunt-headed, or New England cachelot, has an enormous head, the upper jaw has 18 teeth, is five feet longer than the lower; length of animal 60 feet; it is very ugly, bold, and swift, and opens its huge jaws in fight like the hippopotamus. It yields a very fine, pure oil, which is obtained in cells near the brain, and is procured by boring the skull. On the coast of Newfoundland, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the Labrador shore, cetacea of all sizes are seen, from the physeter malar, or great finned cachelot whale, with its huge back fin, like the mast of a ship, down to the porpoise. The whale fishing is now becoming an important branch of trade for the colony. The monadons or narwals, the unicorns of the deep, are furnished with a piercer or tusk, and called sword-fish; some are single-

sworded, 13 to 16 feet long, others double sworded, 12 to 25 feet long. The Esquimaux value their flesh and oil as aperients. The sword grampus, a species of dolphin, has a singular scimitar-shaped high dorsal fin; long, bony, and broad at the base. He is about 30 feet in length, ferocious, has 90 cylindrical teeth, 1½ inches above the gum, and a fierce persecutor of the whale and seal. In Sir R. Bonnycastle's volumes there is a detailed and very interesting account of the cetacea, of which tribe the author seems to have acquired much information in the Arctic and Northern Atlantic seas.

Fish.—The banks of Newfoundland swarm with almost every variety of the finny tribe, of which the smaller sorts serve as food for the omnivorous cod. "The incredible shoals of lance, a small, elongated, silvery, eel-like creature, the interminable armies of migratory herrings, the hosts of capelin which are met with in their several seasons, cause the seas to boil and glitter in their rapid paths, producing the effects of currents upon the bosom of the tranquil deep." The locusts that darken the air, in the countries subject to their devastation, are not to be compared in numbers to the periodical journeyers of the Newfoundland seas. The capelin, (*salmo arcticus*), which is the great object of attraction to the cod, whale, &c., is about seven inches long, with a slight, elegantly-shaped body, greenish back, and silver belly, and some of their scales tinged with red. The male fish has a rough fascia, beset with minute pyramidal scales, standing upright, like a pile of plash above the lateral fins. Sir R. Bonnycastle says, that when the female seeks the shore for the purpose of depositing spawn, she is taken between two of these ridged males, and they all three rush violently onwards, the compression excluding the ova: two, three, and even as many as ten have been observed thus glued together by these villous crests. The eggs are deposited among the smaller fuci and confervæ, on which they feed. The dorsal fin is in the middle of the back; tail forked; scales minute. In taste, it resembles the smelt. This beautiful little fish, in June, and early in July, crowds into the shores of Newfoundland in countless myriads to spawn. Wherever there is a strip of beach at the head of a bay, every rolling wave strews the sand with hundreds of capelin, leaping and glancing in the sun till the next wave sweeps them off and deposits a fresh multitude: the white foam, and the glit-

tering sight.

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tering colours of the fish, form a beautiful sight.

Mr. Anspach, who resided in Conception Bay, thus describes the arrival of a capelin shoal, or shoal:—

"It is impossible to conceive, much more to describe, the splendid appearance, on a beautiful moonlight night, at this time. Then its vast surface is completely covered with myriads of fishes, of various kinds and sizes, all actively engaged, either in pursuing or avoiding each other; the whales, alternately rising and plunging, throwing into the air spouts of water; the cod-fish, bounding above the waves, and reflecting the light of the moon from their silvery surface; the capelins, hurrying away in immense shoals, to seek a refuge on the shore, where each retiring wave leaves multitudes skipping upon the sand, an easy prey to the women and children, who stand there with barrows and buckets, ready to seize upon the precious and plentiful booty; whilst the fishermen, in their skiffs, with nets made for that purpose, are industriously employed in securing a sufficient quantity of this valuable bait for their fishery."

There are several varieties of the cod-fish on the Newfoundland shores; the principal fish caught is like the *gadus morrhua* of Linnæus, or ash-coloured cod; the *gadus carbonarius* or coal cod (sewfish of Norway) is largely dispersed, and the best eating of the two; it sometimes weighs 20 or 30 pounds. The fish caught on the bank are supposed to be better than the shore fish. The bait used for the cod, when taken with hook and line, is the capelin; when the capelin leaves in August, the young squids or cuttle-fish are caught up for bait, and when their season is over, the autumnal, or "fall," herrings are used; shell-fish, both fresh and salted, is used for the hook. Sometimes food is so abundant, the fish will not bite; they are then taken with a jigger or plummet of lead, armed with hooks, and drawn quickly up and down in the water, by which the cod is attracted and struck with the hook as he swims round the jigger; this mode is deemed objectionable, as more fish are wounded than caught. In some places the cod is taken in nets or sieves. The cod fishing closes in September; the quantity one man may catch during the season is very great, as the fishers say they have the chance every day of catching five pounds worth of fish. A quintal of dry fish is made from about 300 weight of "green" or fresh fish, and the quintal is worth about 15s., consequently it would require a man to catch nearly a ton weight to produce a quantity of the value of £5: in other words he must catch 224 cod of an average weight of 10 pounds each, in one day. The wages are generally £20 for the summer, or five

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or six active individuals club together and catch cod to the value of £100. Some families do not cure the fish themselves, but take it as it is caught to the stores of merchants, whose men cure it for the proprietors of the stores. The cod constitutes the wealth of Newfoundland; notwithstanding the myriads which have been taken by Europeans during the last two centuries, it seems as abundant as when the banks were first visited. So prolific is the fish, that the spawn of a single cod if unmolested, would, it is supposed, in a few years fill the ocean. Salmon fishing is followed during the summer by several families; the dog fish is caught for the sake of the oil contained in his liver; the herring fishery is increasing, and the capelin is used for the food of man, as well as for bait for the cod. Of 22 known kinds of mackerel only one frequents the arctic regions. The yellow mackerel, which abounds in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is supposed to cross the Atlantic from the African coast. The gigantic mackerel or tunny fish is occasionally taken. Herrings appear in vast numbers. The mullet (*mullus barbatus* and *ruber*), frequent the coasts. The lance is a long thin fish like a sand eel; the sea on the banks sometimes seems alive with this little creature, which serves many other fish for food. The lakes and rivers in the interior contain excellent fish, so that the inhabitants possess at least abundance of this description of food, on which all the animals in the island, from the cow down to the domestic poultry, feed.

AGRICULTURE.—The governor, Sir G. Le Marchant, has devoted great attention to this subject; and his report to Earl Grey, in 1848, is very valuable. It shows that Newfoundland has not the inhospitable climate and barren soil which has long been supposed peculiar to the place:—

"It may be said that the cultivation of the soil made little or no progress in Newfoundland until after the peace with France in 1814. The sole occupation of the resident inhabitants was confined to the fishery; an opinion generally prevailed, that the soil and climate raised impassable barriers to agriculture. It was further considered, that the encouragement of settlement and agriculture, even if it were practicable, would be injurious to the interests of the fishery; in consequence, every obstruction and impediment was thrown in its way. It was an offence against the laws of the fishery to clear, to inhabit, or to cultivate the waste lands of Newfoundland. Before that period there may have been some few gardens for vegetables, and a few spots of land cleared for raising potatoes. Farming, as an occupation, or as a means of employment or subsistence, was unknown. The first relaxation was made in the olden

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system regarding the land in 1816, by governor Sir Richard Keats; he was authorized to make small grants of land, limited from two to four acres. Many lots of ground, now so valuable in the vicinity of St. John's, were granted during his government. From 1818 to 1824, governor Sir Charles Hamilton, the first resident governor, made some larger grants of land, and on more favourable terms.

"Sir Thomas Cochrane commenced his government in 1825. Immediately on his arrival he entered warmly into the subject of the agricultural improvements of the colony; made liberal grants of land from 500 to 250 acres. During his government, the first main road that was opened in the island, the road from St. John's to Portugal Cove, was projected and completed. Much land was cleared, and very considerable progress made in agricultural improvement.

"His excellency Captain Prescott followed in his footsteps, he gave every facility and every encouragement in his power to the general clearance and cultivation of the land. Through his recommendation to Her Majesty's government, much of the obstructions that remained to the obtaining of land was removed, and it may be said, that during his government, hundreds of poor industrious persons were located on land which now affords a comfortable support to themselves and families. The large amount of appropriations, during his government, for the formation of roads, greatly facilitated the progress of agriculture; not only the margins of the various roads branching from St. John's, but likewise in Conception Bay, Trinity Bay, Bonavista, Ferryland, Prepassey, St. Mary's, Placentia, Burin, and in all the inhabited districts of the island, no matter where, a road was opened; cultivation and population was certain to follow in its course.

During the administration of his successor, Sir John Harvey, large votes were recommended to the Assembly for roads and bridges. These public improvements rapidly progressed, as a matter of course cultivation and settlement followed. The land, particularly in the neighbourhood of St. John's, doubled in value. Agriculture became a recognised and most important branch of industry, a source of employment and subsistence to a large portion of the people.

"At present it will be scarcely considered necessary to adduce arguments or proofs as to the capability of the soil of Newfoundland for agricultural purposes, as a general principle it may be safely laid down that in no case where due skill and industry have been employed, have they failed to repay the husbandman's toil. Farms have been successfully cultivated in the districts of St. John's, Trinity, Bonavista, Conception Bay, St. Mary's, Placentia, Burin, Fortune Bay. And in every part of the island, wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, turnips, have been produced of the best quality.

"It may be said without fear of contradiction that in no instance, when industry and skill have been used in clearing and cultivating the soil of Newfoundland, has it failed to make an ample recompense. The most successful cultivator is the man who works himself. The cultivators of small portions of ground were truly the pioneers, who were first in making inroads on the wilderness. The judicious expenditure of capital will also meet a profitable and certain return.

"When it is taken into consideration the difficulties and prejudices that the cultivator of the soil had to contend with, the surprise should be, not the

slow progress that agriculture has made, but that so much has been accomplished. Necessity, more than choice, drove the inhabitants to the cultivation of the soil. As long as the fisheries made such profitable returns, and enabled the fisherman to support himself and family for the whole year from the fruits of a few months' employment in the fishery, he never would voluntarily turn to the laborious task of clearing the wilderness. The unequal competition of the French and the Americans reduced the profits in the fishery; it scarcely paid its own expenses. The only alternative left to the inhabitants was either to emigrate or to cultivate the soil. Whatever proportion of the fisheries that remain to the British has been preserved by the auxiliary support which the inhabitants were enabled to obtain from the cultivation of the soil.

"The cost of grubbing up and cultivating the waste land of this country must necessarily vary much according to the quality and condition of the land itself and its locality. That in the vicinity of the town of St. John's has more of rocks and stones on the surface than in some other parts of the district, and the cost of grubbing, clearing rocks and stones, burning stumps and roots, ploughing, harrowing, and manuring for a crop cannot be safely calculated at less than £13 sterling per acre, out of which may be deducted the net value of a fair crop of oats, potatoes, or turnips, which the land will yield the first year from the manure and burnt ashes. In some other parts of the district land may be doubtless grubbed up and cultivated at much less expense, being comparatively free from stones, and requiring little labour previously to the plough being used. It may be observed that the land in this portion of the island is, generally speaking, of a light, gravelly nature, easy to work and cultivate, soon warming with the heat of the summer, and quick in forcing forward the crops when planted. On the other hand, it appears to require a liberal supply of manure to put it in condition, and from its porous nature, repeated applications of manure are desirable until the land is laid down to grass, which yields crops of hay, of great abundance, as also of excellent quality. When again ploughed, it is generally much improved in texture and quality, and will carry grain crops well, especially if a small supply of lime be harrowed into the surface, for this latter article is at present too dear to admit of the free use of it as in England. At no distant period it may be hoped we shall have plenty of lime brought from other parts of the country, where it exists in great abundance.

"The grain crops of last year, though in some instances sown late, all answered remarkably well. The governor was assured on authority that could be relied on, that on one of the farms in the vicinity of this town, two bushels and two gallons of beer barley were, on the 19th May, sown upon three-quarters of an acre of potato land, and from it were threshed 42 bushels of excellent quality, being at the rate of 56 bushels per acre. Of which 30 bushels were sold at 5s. currency per bushel for malting and brewing, and the crop paid the party better than any crop grown on an equal space of land for many years. Wheat has also been known on another farm in this neighbourhood to produce at the rate of 60 bushels per acre, and this is a heavy crop for any country. This large produce may be in a great degree attributed to the repeated applications of fish and other manures to the previous crops of potatoes.

"In the past year, 1796 acres of land have been sold, the price at auction averaging about 10s. per

acre. These lands supplied or imported and various cultivators of gentian has been and an of the soil, avail the been offered virgin la barley, ar

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acre. The number of separate grants, into which these lands were divided, amounted to 178. Large supplies of seed (wheat, barley, and oats,) have been imported by the government, as well as vegetable and various sorts of garden seeds; these will be distributed in the course of this spring amongst the cultivators of land in the colony; and a committee of gentlemen is appointed, to whom such distribution has been entrusted. In the hope of adding a stimulus and an encouragement to the further cultivation of the soil, as also of inducing the working farmers to avail themselves of these opportunities, prizes have been offered for the clearance and planting of new virgin land; as also for the best crops of wheat, barley, and oats.

"Two mills, adapted for the grinding of meal as well as grain, have likewise, with the assistance of government, been established; the one in this town, and the other in Conception Bay. By a steady perseverance on the part of the people in the prosecution of measures such as these, abundance and plenty will again be restored to this island, and the more general extension of agriculture will, I am confident, be attended with vast benefits to the present and future generations of Newfoundland.

"*Horticultural*.—It has been frequently remarked by strangers as well as residents, that the culinary vegetables grown here are not inferior to the best of their kinds in Europe, doubtless owing to the rapidity with which vegetation takes place, when the frigid temperature of winter is dispelled by the genial heat of summer weather, a change which, some seasons, occurs very suddenly. All ordinary garden vegetables are grown with as little trouble as in England. Amongst those most commonly cultivated are lettuce, endive, radish, asparagus, seakale, beets, turnips, cabbages, cauliflowers, peas, beans, both French and broad, all of which attain maturity with common care, although, in very few instances, have they much of that skill and good management bestowed upon them which, in gardens in England, appears almost a matter of course.

"Melons and cucumbers are grown every year in slight hotbeds, and the latter may be transplanted from the seed-bed to the open air, where they will generally produce abundantly. Turnips, cabbages, and all of the Brassica tribe, have, in the early stages, numerous enemies in the turnip-fly, caterpillars, &c.; but, independently of this, the climate and soil are fitted to produce large crops of them. It may be observed, that many of the perennial and other herbaceous plants of Britain bear the severity of the Newfoundland winter well, among which may be mentioned the polyanthus, pansy, and sweet William, also pinks and carnations generally; and among bulbous roots, all kinds of lily, even the white lily, tulip, hyacinths, &c., are rarely known to fail, though kept in the ground all winter.

"Of fruit trees, those of the more hardy kinds, and which produce their fruit at an early season, of course answer best. The climate is well adapted to gooseberries and currants of every variety, and they produce abundant crops almost invariably. The insect tribe alone seems inimical to them, and the trees are frequently divested of their foliage by caterpillars, except in low or moist situations, where these trees generally succeed best. Cherries of most kinds also bear the climate, and produce well; but the Kentish and Mayduke may be relied on as standing the climate, and bearing fruit as well as in England.

"With respect to apples, pears, and plums, the

early varieties only may be considered as well adapted. Plums of many kinds, and damsons have been grown for many years in Conception Bay, as well as in St. John's. The earliest kinds ripen, and the late sorts answer for culinary purposes. Raspberries and strawberries succeed as well here as in any country; they are, in fact, indigenous, and are found wild in considerable quantities. The cultivated kinds rarely, if ever, fail to yield fruit, and the strawberries are remarkable for abundant produce and fine flavour."

The honourable P. Morris, treasurer of Newfoundland, who has paid much attention to the affairs of the island, says, in reference to tillage—

"If agriculture has rapidly advanced in the worst and most sterile part of the island, and has been found most remunerative to those engaged in it, there can be no doubt of its succeeding in parts where the soil and climate are more favourable. The question does not rest on speculation or problematical opinions. Some of the finest and most productive farms are in successful occupation and cultivation in the various remote districts of the island.

"The best practical proof of the capabilities of the soil of Newfoundland for agricultural purposes is to be found in the census returns of 1836 and 1845.

"There is no means of accurately ascertaining the extent of land cultivated and annual produce before the year 1836, in which year, under a local Act, the following returns were made:—

RETURNS FOR 1836.

24,117 acres of land in possession.	
11,062 ditto in cultivation, at £20 per acre	£221,250
1,559 horses, at £10	15,590
5,832 neat cattle, at £5	29,160
6,923 sheep, at 20s.	6,923
3,155 hogs, at 30s.	4,732
Goats not taken in the return of the year, say 4,000 at 20s.	4,000
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	£281,655

Annual Produce.

1,168,127 bushels of potatoes, equal to 467,250 4-5 barrels, at 5s.	£116,812
10,310 bushels of grain, at 3s.	1,546
6,975 tons of hay, at £5	34,875
Increase of stock, calves, sheep, &c., &c.	8,000
Milk, butter, &c., &c.	20,000
Vegetables, garden stuffs, &c.	10,000
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	£101,233

RETURNS FOR 1845.

83,435½ acres of land in possession.	
29,656½ acres of land in cultivation, at £20	£598,125
2,409 horses, at £10	24,090
8,135 neat cattle, at £5	40,675
5,750 sheep, at 20s.	6,750
5,077 hogs, at 30s.	7,613
5,791 goats, at 20s.	5,791
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	£682,046

Annual Produce.

341,341 barrels of potatoes, at 5s.	85,535
11,695 bushels of grain, at 3s.	1,754
11,013 tons of hay and fodder, at £5	55,065
Increase of stock, calves, sheep, &c.	15,000
Milk, butter, poultry, eggs, &c.	30,000
Garden stuffs, vegetables, &c.	15,000
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	£202,354

Estimated value of Land in cultivation, and Agricultural Stock, showing the increase in nine years.—Estimated value of land in cultivation, and agricultural stock, in 1836, £277,075 10s.; estimated value of land in cultivation, and agricultural stock, in 1845, £377,046 10s. Increase in value of land in cultivation, and agricultural stock, in nine years, from 1836 to 1845, £399,371. Annual produce for the year 1836, £191,234 4s.; annual produce for the year 1845, £202,354 10s. Increase in annual value of produce, £11,120 6s.

“There must be some material error in the returns, either for the year 1836 or 1845, in respect to the produce. In the former year, with only 11,062½ acres of land in cultivation, the quantity of potatoes is given at 467,250,485 barrels. In 1845, with 296,564½ acres in cultivation, there is given only 341,341 barrels, showing a deficiency of potatoes in the latter year to the extent of 125,909 barrels, which, valuing at 6s. per barrel, amounts to £31,975 5s. This, added to the estimated value of the annual produce for 1845, supposing the potato crop of that year to have equalled the produce for 1836, and there is no doubt whatever of it having far exceeded it, the annual value of agricultural productions for 1845 would amount to the sum of £233,329 15s.

“The produce may appear excessive in reference to the limited amount of land in cultivation; but it must be taken into account that a great portion of it is cultivated as garden ground, highly manured with fish offal. The produce is abundant, particularly of potatoes, the great object with all the small occupiers, who compose a vast majority of the whole. The estimate of the value of land, at £20 per acre, and of stock, without taking into account the land in occupation but not cleared, nearly £700,000, would startle those who have not turned their attention to

the subject. It is a curious fact, but not more curious than true, that the depression of the fisheries, and the consequent distress of the people of Newfoundland, have forced into existence, a capital, a permanent capital, almost equal in amount to the whole value of ships, boats, and fishery stock, in the palmy days of monopoly, at any period for centuries past. What has yet been done only forms a nucleus for further advancement; and, in all probability, before another quarter of a century passes over the heads of the present generation, the agricultural capital of Newfoundland, with other products of industry, will exceed many times the amount of any capital invested in the fisheries; and what is better, unlike that capital, it cannot, when increased in bulk, be removed by migratory birds of passage, to increase the stock and improve the condition of every other country but that in which it was produced.”

The total number of acres of land granted is about 23,400; and sold, 11,528. The quantity ungranted cannot be correctly ascertained. The number of grants under 100 acres, in 1848, in the central district, was 50; acres, 947. Northern, 10; acres, 242. Southern, 15; acres, 152. The census of 1836 states the number of horses then in the island, 1,551; neat cattle, 6,136; sheep, 2,995; hogs, 3,261. The returns of produce are imperfectly given for the several districts.

The census of 1845 does not supply any information relative to the quantity of land under different crops; but it furnishes the following detail:—

District.	Acres under crop.	Acres un-mentioned.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Oats.	Potatoes.	Hay.	Straw and Fodder.
							Bushels.	Bushels.	Tons.	Tons.
St. John's	19,099	41,078	771	1,307	228	1,125	3,346	48,543	3,469	844
Conception Bay	3,798	4,579	949	1,576	2,243	2,944	6,768	152,878	2,108	221
Trinity Bay	1,079	399	121	997	179	187	8	29,628	516	3
Bonavista Bay	612	196	52	505	243	680	272	25,971	366	1½
Twillingate and Fogo	406	181	5	278	38	338	14	13,682	51	2
Ferryland	1,202	1,073	176	607	315	276	558	28,556	878	37
Placentia and St. Mary's	2,200	2,072	245	1,618	1,938	226	588	28,759	1,557	16
Burin	1,347	484	85	589	127	8	20	11,081	777	—
Fortune Bay	212	115	5	360	439	7	3	2,067	174	2½
Totals	29,654	52,605	2,409	8,135	5,750	5,791	11,895	341,165	9,886	1,127

There is no established market for agricultural produce, and comparatively little is sold, the greater part being consumed by the growers. The average value of the crops is—oats, 2s. to 2s. 6d.; potatoes, 1s. 3d. to 1s. 9d.; turnips, 1s. to 1s. 3d. per bushel; hay, £4 to £5 per ton; outer fodder, 50s. to £3 per ton.

In 1776 a copper mine was discovered and worked for a short time near Shoal Bay, about 15 miles from St. John's. Some quarries of limestone have also been found; in one at Canada harbour, on what is called

the French coast, the stone is said to be of excellent quality.

Manufactures.—The number of vessels built at St. John's, in 1848, was 19; tonnage, 794. There are in the capital two corn mills, one saw and one bone mill, a gas manufactory, an iron foundry, and a brewery.

Prices of produce and merchandize in 1848.—Wheaten flour, per cwt., 35s. to 40s.; wheaten bread, per lb., 2d.; horned cattle, £8 to £12; horses, £15; sheep, 15s. in July, 35s. in January; goats, 20s. to 25s.; swine, 6d. per lb.; milk, per quart, 3½d. to

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5*d.*; butter, fresh, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.*; ditto salt, 9*d.*; cheese, 5*d.*; beef, 5*d.* to 7*d.*; mutton, 6*d.* to 8*d.*; pork, 5*d.* to 7*d.* per lb.; rice, 25*s.* to 28*s.* per cwt.; coffee, 7*d.*; tea, 2*s.* per lb.; sugar, 35*s.* per cwt.; salt, 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* for 8 bushels; wine, per gallon, 7*s.* 6*d.*; brandy, 12*s.* 6*d.* to 14*s.* 6*d.*; beer, per hogshead, 60*s.*; tobacco, 7*d.* to 8*d.* per lb.

Wages for labour.—Domestic, £20 to £30 per annum; predial, £18 to £25; trades, 5*s.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* per diem.

Fisheries.—The official report of the governor, in 1848, on the subject, contains some interesting facts; and first with regard to the seal fishery:—

“The capture of the seal for the sake of its skin, and the oil that is produced from its fat, has been an object to the inhabitants from its earliest settlement, either by means of nets along its shores, or by vessels proceeding to the fields of ice that annually drift from the arctic regions. No date can be assigned when nets were first introduced; but the fishery by this means was carried on to some considerable extent on that part of the eastern coast which was ceded to the French at the close of the last war; but now very few establishments exist in Newfoundland; but there are still some of considerable extent on the coasts of Labrador, and in the straits of Belle Isle.

“The prosecution of the seal fishery by vessels is quite of a modern date, it being only 64 years ago that the first vessel sailed on this expedition, and it has in this short period arrived at its present extent, and now gives employment to near 11,000 men, actually engaged in catching the seal, and employs 340 vessels, of the aggregate burthen of 29,800 tons, new measurement. In 1793 a merchant of St. John’s commenced it by fitting out two small vessels, of about 45 tons each, which sailed the first week in April, and were very successful, one returning with over 800 seals, and the other with not quite so many.

“In the year 1796 four vessels sailed from St. John’s, and a few from Conception Bay; originally the vessels engaged in this fishery were of a small description, even open boats that were employed in the cod fishery of 30 tons, and even less, were sent out on this hazardous voyage, and a few rarely exceeded 50 tons, with a crew of 11 men, but they gradually increased in size, and the number of hands sent in them. In fact there was for a long period a prejudice of employing vessels over 60 tons, as they were considered too large and too heavy to prosecute the fishery successfully; this prejudice existed even so late as the year 1825, when two vessels of 120 tons each were built in Conception Bay expressly for the seal fishery. Both of these vessels were very fortunate the first time of going out; one bringing home in the spring of the year 1826, 6,666 seals, and the other 5,328 seals.

“This seems to have set the question as regarded size at rest, and from that period the old class vessels, of small tonnage, have been gradually superseded by those of a larger class. The vessels now engaged in the seal fishery are many of them over 115 tons, new measurement; or 140, old measurement; very few, indeed, now going out so small as 80 tons, new measurement.

“This fishery is now of very great importance to

the inhabitants of this colony; for besides employing 11,000 men in actually catching the seals, it gives employment to almost every class of mechanics, as well as common labourers, in manufacturing the seals, the value of which, in the spring of the past year, exceeded £214,000. Its great value may be well imagined, when the shortness of the period of this fishery is considered; these large sums being realized within the space of six weeks.

“The usual time of leaving for the ice is from the 1st to the 10th of March, if the vessels can get out, though formerly no vessel thought of leaving before the 25th of March to the 10th of April. The crews are shipped on shares, each man being directly interested in the quantity of seals caught; they pay the owner a sum varying from 10*s.* to 35*s.* for being allowed to proceed in the vessel, which is called berth-money; each man has to find a gun, or to pay the hire of one, and also has to find 25 sticks of fire-wood for fuel while on the voyage. The owner of the vessel receives one-half the seals brought home in the vessel for fitting her out, &c., with all necessary material; the other half is taken by the crew, and equally divided among them according to the number, the owner receiving the master’s share, who is paid by the owner 4*d.* to 6*d.* for each seal the vessel brings in, or 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* per cwt., according to the agreement that may be made between them previous to the commencement of the voyage.

“The vessels in Conception Bay are insured in mutual societies, that is, a certain number of owners enter into an agreement with each other that they will pay all losses that may occur to each other’s vessels during the season. There are two of this description now in Conception Bay, one at Harbour Grace, the other at Brigus. Each one has a secretary, who keeps the records of the society, for which he is paid 15*s.* for each vessel insured. There are also three surveyors to inspect the vessels previous to proceeding on the voyage, and to see they are properly equipped to encounter its dangers: they are paid a small sum for their services. The insurance in the Brigus society has been very light indeed, only five vessels having been lost since the year 1833, whereas the Harbour Grace society has been very unfortunate lately, the losses being very heavy. The vessels of St. John’s are insured in a society, and a certain premium is charged each vessel, according to her class.”

The fishing or catching of the seals is an extremely hazardous employment; the vessels are from 60 to 150 tons, with crews of from 16 to 30 men each, provided with firearms, &c., to kill the seal, and poles to defend their vessels from the pressure of the ice. In the beginning of March, the crews of the vessels in their respective harbours collect on the ice with hatchets, saws, &c., and cut two lines in the frozen surface, wide enough apart to allow their schooners to pass—an operation of great labour, as after the thick flakes have been sawn or cut through, they have to be pushed beneath the firm ice with long poles. The vessels then get out to sea, if possible, through the openings, and work their perilous way to windward of the vast fields of ice, until they arrive at one covered with the animals of which they are

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in quest, and which is termed a seal meadow. The seals are attacked by the fishers, or, more properly speaking, hunters, with fire arms, or generally with short heavy batons, a blow of which on the nose is instantly fatal. The hooded seals sometimes draw their hoods, which are shot-proof, over their heads. The large ones frequently turn on the men, especially when they have young ones beside them, and the pitcous cries and moans of the latter are truly distressing to those who are not accustomed to the immense slaughter which is attended with so great a profit. The skins, with the fat surrounding the bodies, are stripped off together, and the carcasses left on the ice. The winter tenants on the Labrador coast say the young seal is excellent eating. The pelts or scalps are carried to the vessels, whose situation during a tempest is attended with fearful danger; many have been known to be crushed to pieces by the ice closing on them. Storms during the dark night, among vast icebergs, can only be imagined by a person who has been on a lee shore in a gale of wind; but the hardy seal hunters seem to court such hazardous adventures.

In 1834 the number of vessels employed in the seal fishery was 353, of which 120 were from St. John's. The number of seals caught was: in 1831, 744,000; in 1832, 523,000; in 1833, 438,000; in 1834, 401,000.

Number of Vessels sailing for the Seal Fishery, Spring, 1847.

Districts.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.
St. John's	95	9,353	3,215
Brigus	66	5,010	2,111
Carbonear	54	4,634	1,672
Harbor Grace	51	5,084	1,684
Ports to the Northward	74	5,803	2,123
Total	340	29,884	10,805

Number of Seals caught, Spring, 1847.

Fishing Stations.	Seals caught.
Manufactured in St. John's	334,270
Manufactured in Conception and Trinity Bay	110,910
Total number caught	455,180
Estimated value of seals caught, Spring, 1847	£214,175

"Cod Fishery.—The extraordinary abundance of cod fish on the banks and shores of Newfoundland was speedily ascertained after the discovery of the island in the year 1470. The fishery in 1620 was rapidly growing into importance, and at that time

the island began to supply the demand in Spain and Italy. At the close of the late war the fisheries rose to a pitch of prosperity quite unprecedented, the exports in the year 1814 amounting to £2,831,638. When, however, peace was restored, the British government conceded to France her extensive rights of fishing exactly as they stood at the commencement of the war; and now, owing to the large bounties with which that government supports and encourages their fisheries, we are obliged to compete with them on very unequal terms in the supplying of foreign markets, so much so that the British Bank Fishery has ceased to exist, and the fisheries have dwindled down to an open boat in-shore fishery, and even that is year after year getting worse, and has ceased to give the remunerative employment to those engaged in it, as was the case in bygone years.

"The cod fishery opens at the beginning of June, and lasts till about the middle of October, and may be said to form the staple occupation of the inhabitants of this colony; it is prosecuted by the planters and their assistant fishermen, who form one of the two classes of this community; they live under the control and influence of the other class, the merchant, on whom they are solely dependent for the supplies and requisite means for pursuing their calling.

"By the census of 1845 the planters, fishermen, and shoremen amounted in number to 18,503 persons, and their boats, which are divided into three classes according to the burthen of fish they can carry, amounted to 10,089; the divisions being—8,092 boats, carrying from 4 to 15 quintals of fish; 1,025 boats, from 15 to 30 quintals; and 972 boats, from 30 quintals upwards.

"The quantity of dried cod fish exported in the year 1847 was 637,973 quintals, the value of which may be estimated at £489,940. The liver of the cod yields a large quantity of oil, which is extracted from it by natural heat, no other preparation being necessary than merely putting it into casks, and when it is fully decayed drawing off the oil. A quintal of good fish will yield more than a gallon of oil, but the produce of the season is not more than 80 gallons to 100 quintals of fish. The quantity of cod oil exported in the past year was 2,369 tons, the value of which may be estimated at £60,320.

There are, as above stated, an immense number of boats of different descriptions engaged in the shore fishery; viz. punts, skiffs, jacks, or jackasses, western boats, and shallops, employing from one to seven men each, according to their size, and the distance they may have to sail before they reach their respective fishing grounds. The punts and small boats are generally manned by two persons, and occupied in fishing within a very short distance of the harbour, or circles to which they belong; the skiffs, carrying three or four hands, proceed to more distant stations, sometimes twenty or thirty miles; the western boats are larger than skiffs, and usually fish off Cape St. Mary's, off the entrance of a bay so named; the shallops are still larger craft, but now almost obsolete: some of this latter class have been known to admeasure 50 or 60

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tons each. The punts and skiffs, constituting what is termed a "Mosquito fleet," start at the earliest dawn of day, and proceed to the fishing grounds, when the cod are expected in great abundance, for at certain seasons they congregate and swim in shoals, and are not unfrequently as capricious in their resort as the winds which are said to influence their movements: these boats generally land their cargoes at the "stage" at least once a day, usually in the evening, except it be in the height of the season, during capelin time, when they may occasionally load twice a day; the western boats and shallows split and salt their fish abroad, and return to their respective harbours when they may have expended all their salt, or loaded their craft.

The stage is erected on posts, and juts out into the sea, far enough to allow the boats to come close to its extremity, for the ready discharge of their cargoes; it is generally covered over, as the rain will injure the fish, and on the same platform is the salt house, with the benches for the *cut-throat*, *header*, *splitter*, and *salter*, the two latter having in point of wages the precedence, and the two former being on a par.

Having thus explained the method of cod-fishing, it remains only to describe the manner of curing. Each salting-house is provided with one or more tables, around which are placed wooden seats and leathern aprons for the *cut-throats*, *headers*, and *splitters*. The fish having been thrown from the boats, a man is generally employed to pitch them with a pike from the stage upon the table before the *cut-throat*, who rips open the bowels, and having also nearly severed the head from the body, he passes it along the table to his right-hand neighbour, the *header*, whose business is to pull off the head, and tear out the entrails; from these he selects the liver, and in some instances the sound; the head and entrails being precipitated through a trunk into a flat-bottomed boat placed under the stage, and taken to the shore for manure; the liver is thrown into a cask exposed to the sun, where it distils into oil, and the remaining blubber is boiled to procure an oil of inferior quality, and the sounds, if intended for preservation, are salted. After having undergone this operation, the cod is next passed across the table to the *splitter*, who cuts out the back bone, as low as the navel, in the twinkling of an eye.

With such amazing celerity is the ope-

ration of heading, splitting, and salting performed, that it is not an unusual thing to see ten codfish decapitated, their entrails thrown into the sea, and their back bones torn out, in the short space of one minute and a half. The splitter receives the highest wages, and holds a rank next to the master of the voyage; but the *salter* is also a person of great consideration, upon whose skill the chief preservation of the cod depends.

For the next process, the cod are carried in hand barrows to the *salter*, by whom they are spread in layers upon the top of each other, with a proper quantity of salt between each layer.

In this state the fish continue for a few days, when they are again taken in barrows to a square flat wooden trough (commonly called the *ram's horn*, supposed to be a corrupt term from the French verb *Rincer*,) full of holes, which is suspended from the stage head in the sea. The washer stands up to his knees in this trough, and rubs the salt and slime off the cod with a soft mop. The fish are then taken to a convenient spot, and piled up to drain; and the heap thus formed is called a "water-horse." On the following day or two the cod are removed to the fish flakes, where they are spread in the sun to dry; and from thenceforward they are kept constantly turned during the day, and piled up in small heaps called faggots at night. The upper fish are always laid with their bellies downwards, so that the skins of their backs answer the purpose of thatch to keep the lower fish dry.

By degrees the size of these faggots is increased, until at length, instead of small parcels, they assume the form of large circular stacks or piles; and in this state the cod are left for a few days, as the fishermen say, to "sweat." The process of *curing* is now nearly complete, and the fish exposed one or twice to the sun are afterwards stored up in warehouses, lying ready for exportation.

There are three qualities of cured codfish in Newfoundland. They are distinguished by the titles of *merchantable fish*, *Madeira*, and *West India fish*. *Merchantable fish* are those cured in the best possible manner, and having no apparent defect: *Madeira* are those having some slight blemish on the face, occasioned by an undue quantity of salt, or being sun-burnt; *West India* having, in addition to the defect of the *Madeira*, some cracks in the middle, or broken at the fins.

Merchantable fish are generally shipped for the Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and South American markets. Madeira and West India fish are supplied to the West Indies, and of late years a considerable quantity has been annually exported to the southern and western counties of Ireland. The west of England also consumes no unimportant quantity of salted cod annually. Madeira is 1s. a quintal under Merchantable, and 1s. 6d. more than West India.

It will be evident, when the foregoing statements are examined, that the cod fisheries of Newfoundland are to England more precious than the mines of Peru and Mexico; and, in truth, if we consider the vast quantities of fish annually drawn from the banks and adjacent coast, it will be found that as the mere representative value of gold, their worth far exceeds that of the precious metals, to say nothing of the importance of the subject in a maritime, commercial, and political point of view.

"*Herring Fishery.*—Though the shores of Newfoundland swarm with herrings from March to December, yet the curing of these valuable fish has been in a certain degree totally neglected, though there is no country in the world better adapted for prosecuting this fishery with success. It is the opinion of many persons well versed in the trade, that if proper attention was paid to it, and more care used in curing them than there is at present, in a few years the fishery would rise to such an importance, as not merely to be an auxiliary to the cod fishery as it is at present, but that it would almost rival it. In the past year the number of barrels exported was 9,907, and their value may be estimated at £5,111.

"*Salmon Fishery.*—The salmon fishery has been carried on in this country from its earliest discovery, and nearly to the same extent as it is at present. The export of them has ranged from 2,500 to 5,000 tierces of 300 lbs. each for the past 50 years, though that is not near half the quantity caught, as a great deal of salmon is shipped at the Labrador and parts of Newfoundland, the accounts of which do not pass through the Custom House, being sold generally to American traders, who buy them loose from 18s. to 25s. per 100 lbs. The number of barrels exported in the past year was 4,917, the value of which may be taken at £9,782.

The fisheries employed and produced as follows:—

Years.	Employed.			Produce.		
	No. of Boats.	Tons.	Men.	Quintals of Fish.	Tuns of Train Oil.	Tuns of Seal Oil.
In 1820	107	5,796	275	810,074	4,487	2,219
" 1821	756	43,642	10,799	No Returns.		3,761

The quintal of fish was then estimated at 8s. to 12s.; train oil at £18 to £20 per tun; seal ditto, £21 to £25.

The following tables, exhibiting a com-

parative statement of the quantity and value of the staple articles of produce exported in three years, will best show the items in which this deficiency occurs:—

Years.	Quantity.				
	Dried Fish.	Oils.	Seal Skins.	Salmon.	Herrings.
1845	1,000,233	8,070	352,202	3,543	20,903
1846	879,915	7,507	265,109	5,201	12,119
1847	837,973	8,024	436,831	4,917	9,907

Years.	Value.				
	£	£	£	£	£
1845	596,090	243,640	40,123	12,794	11,234
1846	504,008	182,974	29,500	10,508	6,876
1847	489,940	229,185	46,280	9,782	5,111

The following abstract of a report on the French fisheries in Newfoundland, prepared by direction of the collector of her majesty's customs in Newfoundland, is worthy of consideration:—

"The five years' average of fish taken, say 1831 to 1835 inclusive, at the *French shore*, on the banks and in the neighbourhood of St. Pierre and Miquelon, did not exceed 300,000 quintals, which, in 1835, was thus disposed of:—27,000 was sent to Spain, Portugal, and Italy; 40,000 nearly was sent to the French colonies in the West Indies; 170,000 consumed in France; and 63,000 sent to France in a green state and re-exported: total, 300,000 quintals.

"The amount of premiums, drawbacks, and bounties, granted in support of the French fisheries in 1835, was £883,000 sterling, or nearly 20,000,000 francs. Premiums from 100 to 500, and, in many instances, as high as 1,000 francs a man, were granted. The number of fishermen employed was 6,200.

"The bounty on fish re-exported from France to the French colonies in the West Indies, was 40 francs, 33s. 4d. a quintal. It was shortly after that period reduced, and now remains at 24 francs. On fish sent direct to foreign ports in the Mediterranean a bounty of 12 francs (10s.) is paid; and on re-exportation from France to foreign ports, or in crossing the frontier by land into Spain, 10 francs, 8s. 4d. The largest premium granted a French fisherman does not at present, in any instance, exceed 150 francs.

"In the year 1845 the number of French vessels which arrived at St. Pierre was 197; tons, 28,760; foreign vessels arriving at St. Pierre, 1845,—119; total arriving at St. Pierre, 316; value of cargoes, £49,538.

"The number of French vessels engaged fishing on the Banks and baited at St. Pierre 1845, 104; 16,760 tons; 2,601 men.

"The quantity of fish taken by French vessels on the Banks alone, and baited at St. Pierre in 1845, was 208,900 quintals; caught in the neighbourhood of St. Pierre and Miquelon, 48,000; total, 256,900 quintals.

"The fish taken on the French shore is not included in the above quantity of 256,900 quintals; but it will be seen that the fishery at St. Pierre in 1845, was only 43,100 quintals short of the whole catch, including the French shore, in 1835.

"Of the last-mentioned quantity (48,000 quintals) taken in the neighbourhood of St. Pierre and Miquelon,

nearly one ground.

"The quantity of fish taken in 1845, was to the French consumed green state Portugal, 1845, and

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nearly one-half was taken on the British fishing-ground.

"The catch, as regards the fishery at St. Pierre, 1845, was thus disposed of:—48,000 were sent direct to the French colonies in the West Indies; 119,000 consumed in France; 68,000 sent to France in a green state, and re-exported; and 31,900 to Spain, Portugal, and Italy: total, 266,900 quintals.

"The quantity of herrings supplied the French, 1845, and used as bait on the banks:—

"Say 25 vessels, averaging each 110 brls.—	2730
" 25 " " " " 80 "	2500
" 25 " " " " 100 "	2040
" 29 " " " " 69 "	2000

104 vessels. Total . 9270 brls.

"The quantity of capelin taken to the Banks and used as bait, is, as compared with herrings, in the proportion of a hogshead to a barrel—one hogshead of capelin being equivalent to one barrel of herrings; thus the quantity of capelin consumed by the French on the Banks in 1845, was 9,270 hds., or 20,858 barrels, to which must be added 4,000 barrels used on the shore fishery, making in the whole 24,858 barrels.

"For many seasons past, until 1846, the quantity of capelin annually supplied to the French islands by our fishermen, was not less than 20,000 barrels. Up to the first of July last, capelin was in abundance at St. Pierre and Miquelon; a very unusual circumstance, which is attributed to a prevalence of southerly and easterly winds. It was not therefore in demand at St. Pierre up to that date, and subsequently from our being in the neighbourhood of Lameline, not more than 300 hds. were conveyed to St. Pierre from our shore. The consequence was, four or five of their first-class Bankers were entirely deprived of bait, and I am informed that they were only enabled

to proceed to the Banks late in July on obtaining a supply of squids from our people.

"The sums paid for bait at St. Pierre in 1845, was, for herrings, £6,950, and for capelin, nearly £5,000. The former cost on an average 15s., the latter 5s. per barrel; and not less than £2,800 was paid for firewood; the quantity sold was 3,200 cords, at 17s. 6d. per cord. These amounts, making in the whole £13,750, were mostly paid in cash, and the greater part of them eventually expended at St. Pierre in the purchase of dutiable articles. Along the line of coast extending from Burin to Harbour Britain, a distance of 100 miles and upwards, there is not at present a single mercantile establishment."

Commerce.—The trade of Newfoundland, for the reasons stated by several authorities, namely, French and American competition, has not of late years increased. The following table will serve as a comparison between the past and present trade of the colony:—

Exports in Years.	Quintals	Barrels	Kegs.	Oil Tuns.	Seal Skins.
Ave. of 1796, 1, 2	656,600	6,276	—	1,891	—
Ave. of 1798, 9, 1800	382,881	2,223	—	2,131	—
1805	626,380	5,876	—	—	—
1810	—	—	—	—	—
1815	1,215,808	5,380	1,892	8,225	141,374
1820	899,729	4,913	20,926	8,224	221,334
1825	973,464	3,796	6,680	7,806	221,510
1830	709,171	1,799	3,696	12,371	559,842

In 1820 the imports were valued at £819,399, and the exports at £690,309. The following is a comparative statement of the staple articles exported from 1838 to 1843:—

Years.	Dried Fish.		Oils.		Seal Skins.		Salmon.		Herrings.	
	Quintals.	Value.	Gallons.	Value.	No.	Value.	Tierces.	Value.	Barrels.	Value.
1838	721,515	£184,649	2,173,634	£249,428	375,361	£30,474	4,408	£13,310	15,276	£10,723
1839	865,370	608,157	2,224,262	245,269	437,501	46,336	2,922	11,092	20,806	13,840
1840	915,795	676,245	3,206,583	305,197	631,385	39,408	3,390	12,939	14,686	9,036
1841	1,009,725	605,014	2,673,574	266,832	417,115	29,961	3,642	12,302	9,965	6,361
1842	1,007,980	561,950	2,262,031	233,313	344,683	23,200	4,715	13,678	13,839	7,119
1843	936,202	632,194	3,111,312	335,975	651,370	40,497	4,058	12,216	9,649	4,570

Imports and Exports in 1848:—

Countries.	Imports.	Exports.	Shipping.	
			In.	Out.
			Tons.	Tons.
Great Britain . . .	276,769	339,647	27,952	17,257
West Indies . . .	2,496	55,641		
B. N. America . . .	127,060	42,251	41,899	67,504
Elsewhere . . .	7,512	8,596		
United States . . .	229,279	16,268	19,848	4,653
Foreign States . . .	126,512	375,148	35,456	38,051
Total . . .	769,628	837,551	125,155	127,365

Total value of Trade for the last four years.

	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Imports . . .	801,330	802,247	843,409	769,628
Exports . . .	930,436	759,103	806,565	837,581

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In 1846-47 the colony was afflicted with a series of calamities; short fisheries, failure of the potato crop, the destruction by fire of a great part of the capital, a hurricane which devastated the coasts on the 19th of September, and the reaction on America of commercial distress in Europe. These disasters sufficiently account for the check given to commerce.

The imports from Great Britain, include bread and biscuit, 115,303 cwts., valued at £23,946; candles, value £2,046; coals, £3,595; cordage and cables, £10,964; cotton manufactures, £35,582; flour, £1,766; Geneva, 1,289 gallons; gunpowder, £1,400; hardware and cutlery, £7,940; iron, bar, &c., £7,113; lead, bar and sheet, £1,748; lead shot, £1,368; lead paints, £1,712; leather

manufactures, £32,234; linen manufactures, £5,016; sails, 9,509; lines and twines, £13,148; nails, £3,460; rum, £1,124; salt, £8,997; silk manufactures, £5,850; slops, £1,339; soap, £4,897; stationery, £4,176; building-stone, £1,793. These are some of the items of imports from England.

The exports of dried fish in 1848 were in value £491,124, of which £30,469 came to Great Britain; £51,807 to the West Indies; £26,273 to British North America; other colonies, £5,820; to United States, £7,592; and to foreign states, £369,963. The value of seal oil exported was £160,909; of cod ditto, £87,622; salmon, £6,597; seal-skins, £50,426.

The fish exported in 1848, was, of dried cod, 920,366 quintals, value £491,924; core, 18, £10; salmon, 3,822 barrels, £6,597; herrings, 13,872 barrels, £7,644; capelin, cod sounds, and tongues, 758 packages, £232; oils, 10,704 tuns, £253,472; seal-skins, 521,004, £58,426. Total value of fish, oil, and skins, £818,305. The consumption of fish in the colony is estimated at $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 quintals for each mouth of the population, which raises the quantity of the fish caught from 140,000 to 200,000 quintals.

In 1836 the number of fishing boats belonging to the different places in Newfoundland was:—

Districts.	Under 15 Quintals.	15 to 30 Quintals.	Upwards of 30 Quintals.
St. John's	700	43	13
Conception Bay	1157	46	109
Trinity Bay	798	168	11
Bonavista Bay	181	197	51
Fogo and Twillingate	737	36	6
Ferryland	370	139	77
Placentia and St. Mary's	297	128	90
Burin	169	55	138
Fortune Bay	632	21	19
Totals	5141	833	514

Ship building is carried on in Newfoundland. The number and tonnage of those built were:—in 1837, 26 vessels, 1,170 tons; in 1838, 28 vessels, 1,652 tons; in 1839, 16 vessels, 811 tons; in 1840, 31 vessels, 1,659 tons; in 1841, 33 vessels, 1,683 tons; in 1842, 32 vessels, 1,553 tons; in 1843, 24 vessels, 1,192 tons.

Colonial duties levied in Newfoundland in 1844:—On bread, 3*d.* per cwt.; flour, 1*s.* 6*d.* per barrel; oatmeal, 1*s.* 6*d.* per barrel; coals,

1*s.* per ton; salt meat, 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.; ale and porter, and household furniture, 10 per cent.; wine in bottles, 2*s.* 6*d.*; all other wines, 1*s.* 6*d.*; brandy and gin, 2*s.* 6*d.*; rum and whiskey, 1*s.* 3*d.* per gallon; apples, 1*s.* 6*d.* per barrel; molasses, 1*d.* per gallon; refined sugar, 5*s.* per cwt.; tea, 3*d.* per lb.; tobacco, 2*s.* per lb.; timber, 2*s.* 6*d.* per M. ton; timber and scantling, 1*s.* 6*d.* per ton; shingles, 1*s.* per M.; salt implements and materials for fisheries, horses, cattle, sheep, pigs, corn, seeds, vegetables, manures, books, unrefined sugar, coffee, coin, and bullion, *free of duties*; non-enumerated articles, 5 per cent.

I have described somewhat fully the history and present condition of this important colony, whose annals (in themselves fraught with much interest), are closely connected with the maritime supremacy of Britain, since on its shores have been reared a skilful and hardy race of seamen, employed in a traffic, which, during the last two hundred and fifty years, has furnished fish and oil to the value of about £120,000,000 sterling. It is impossible to review, without deep regret, the mistaken and most injurious policy so long pursued with regard to Newfoundland. Its brave and loyal, but rude, uncivilized, and mis-governed people, deserted, and had their real position been understood, would most certainly have received very different treatment from the home government; but the mis-representations of a monopolizing party, aided by the infrequency and difficulty of communication, except through an interested medium, prevailed, and Newfoundland with its commanding position, fine harbours, and salubrious climate, was taboed as a barren and inhospitable island, totally unfit for the habitation of man, and capable only of maintaining a few fishing stations. These misapprehensions are now passing away, the truth, unwarped by prejudice and unvarnished by exaggeration, is gradually becoming understood, and the results of an improved and improving system of legislation, are shewn in the progress of this ancient and truly British colony. The French and American encroachments, on the privileges granted by the treaty, have been already adverted to; any further comment would be, perhaps, ill-judged.

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BOOK VI.—HUDSON'S BAY TERRITORIES.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION, AREA, HISTORY, CONSTITUTION, AND WORKING OF THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY; PHYSICAL ASPECT, FORTS AND STATIONS, POPULATION, &c.

The north-west territories of British America, exclusive of Canada, extend from the Pacific Ocean and Vancouver's Island along the parallel of the 49th degree of north latitude, near to the head of Lake Superior, and thence in a north-easterly direction to the coast of Labrador and the Atlantic. The Arctic Ocean forms the northern boundary. The whole region between the meridians of 55° and 141° of west longitude is included, excepting a strip of Russian territory on the Pacific Ocean, between 54° and 60° north latitude, of ten leagues in breadth, following the sinuosities of the coast.

It is extremely difficult to form anything like a correct estimate of the dimensions of this vast region, from the number and extent of its inland seas. Its length is stated by Murray at about 2,600 miles, and its breadth at nearly 1,460 English miles. Its area is calculated by Arrowsmith at 3,060,000 square miles.

HISTORY.—In 1517 Sebastian Cabot, while in search of the north-west passage, penetrated into Hudson's Bay, but without discovering it to be an enclosed sea. In 1585 Davis, whilst prosecuting a similar investigation, discovered the strait since called by his name. In 1610 Hudson sailed through the strait, and into the bay named from him Fretum Hudson, "the Hudson Sea;" but being compelled to winter there, extreme cold and severe suffering led to a mutiny among his crew, and he, with several of his adherents, was exposed in a small boat, and doubtless perished; a few only of the sailors returned to tell the tale. In 1616 Baffin traced the outlines of another great bay, to which his name was given. Subsequent voyages, made by several English navigators, proved that the vast expanse which had been taken by Hudson and others for the open sea, had no other outlet but the strait through which it had been entered, while its shores

were found to be tenanted by furred animals of great value. The first idea of forming a settlement was suggested by a Frenchman, named Grosselicz, to his own government, but being coldly received he obtained, through the British ambassador, an interview with Prince Rupert, before whom he laid his plan. The prince, entering warmly into the project, by his assistance, a vessel was fitted out, which, in September, 1668, reached a river then called Nemisco, to which the adventurers gave the name of Rupert. They wintered there with less suffering and difficulty than had been anticipated, and on their return made so favourable a report, as to induce Prince Rupert, the Duke of Albe-marle, Earl of Craven, Lord Ashley, and others, to form a company and commence a traffic in furs, for which purpose £10,500 was subscribed. A charter of incorporation was granted by Charles II., giving to the company full possession of

"All the lands and territories upon the countries, coasts, and confines of the seas, bays, lakes, rivers, creeks, and sounds, in whatsoever latitude they shall be, that lie within the entrance of the straits, commonly called Hudson's Straits, that are not already actually possessed by, or granted to any of our subjects, or possessed by the subjects of any other Christian Prince or State."

The charter proceeds to grant further,

"The whole and entire trade and traffic to and from all havens, bays, creeks, rivers, lakes, and seas, into which they shall find entrance or passage by water or land out of the territories, limits, or places aforesaid; and to and with all the natives and people inhabiting, or which shall inhabit within the territories, limits, and places aforesaid; and to and with all other nations inhabiting any the coasts adjacent to the said territories, limits, and places which are not already possessed as aforesaid, or whereof the sole liberty or privilege of trade and traffic is not granted to any other of our subjects."

A settlement was immediately formed by the company on Rupert's river. In 1674 stations were established on Moose river, and a few years after on the Albany, to

which were soon added two more on the Nelson and the Severn. These vigorous measures awakened the French court to a sense of their neglect, and Grosscliez, already detached from the English service, was sent out, in 1682, to found a factory on Hayes River, which he succeeded in doing, and also in surprising the British one on the Nelson. From this time hostilities were of frequent occurrence between the English and French settlers, yet notwithstanding we find from a document laid before parliament in 1842, that the profits of the company must have been very large, since, notwithstanding losses sustained by the capture of the company's establishments by the French in the years 1682 to 1688, amounting to £118,014, they were enabled to make a payment to the proprietors in 1684 of 50 per cent.; another payment in 1688 of 50 per cent.; and a further payment in 1689 of 25 per cent. In 1690 the stock was trebled without any call being made, besides affording a payment to the proprietors of 25 per cent. on the increased or newly-created stock; in the years 1692, 1694, 1696, and 1697, the company incurred loss and damage, to the amount of £97,500, by other captures of their establishments by the French.

These establishments were restored to the company by the peace of Utrecht in 1713, who in 1720 were enabled again to treble their capital stock with only a call of 10 per cent. on the proprietors. The forts were strengthened and new stations formed in the interior. In 1749 a question arose in parliament concerning the rights of the company, which was decided in their favour. In 1782 several of their establishments were taken by the French, under La Perouse, nevertheless their traffic appears to have been very profitable until their rights of territory and trade were invaded by a rival association called the North-West Company, whose fierce competition caused much animosity, and even bloodshed, proved very injurious to the Indians, and destructive to the fur trade. In 1813 an agricultural settlement was founded by Earl Selkirk on the Red River, which suffered greatly from the incursions of the Indians incited by the North-West adventurers, who in a wild foray slew Governor Semple, the head of the British settlement.

When the partnership of the North-West associates was about to expire in 1821, three gentlemen in London, Edward Ellie, Esq., and W. and S. McGillivray, who repre-

sented in England the interests of the wintering partners of the North-West traders in America, offered to merge their interests in those of the Hudson's Bay Company: this was assented to, and in 1821 an act of Parliament was passed, under which the Crown granted to the Hudson's Bay Company, and to the three representative agents of the North-West Association in London and Montreal, a licence of exclusive trade for 21 years, in what were termed the "Indian territories," that is, over those tracts which might not be included in the grant of Charles II., and also over those tracts which, by mutual consent, were open to the subjects of England, and to those of the United States. The three North-West Association agents merged into the Hudson's Bay Company; the exclusive trading licence was surrendered in 1838, and, after careful examination and investigation, on 30th May, 1838, the crown granted, under covenant, another licence for 21 years of exclusive trade over the aforesaid Indian and neutral territories. These licences which extended "to those parts in North America beyond the limits of the charter which the Hudson's Bay Company at present enjoy," (see Board of Trade letter, 2nd of June, 1837, in Parliamentary papers of 8th August, 1842,) in nowise invalidated or questioned the rights possessed by the Hudson's Bay Company, under the Royal Charter of 2nd May, 1670, which has been recognised by various treaties and acts of Parliament.

Previous to the recent Oregon treaty, the Hudson's Bay Company had formed settlements on the Columbia River, and some of its servants and retired officers established an agricultural farm at Puget Sound, south of the 49th parallel, and within the present American territories; but the Oregon treaty expressly guaranteed the "possessory rights" of the Hudson's Bay Company in the United American States, and of course thus acknowledged the possessory rights of the Hudson's Bay Company north of the 49th parallel. In the trading licence of 1838, the crown reserved to itself the right of establishing any colony in the territory over which the licence extended: hence the power now exercised by the crown of disposing of Vancouver's Island, by vesting it in the Hudson's Bay Company under certain conditions.

Constitution and Working of the Hudson's Bay Company.—The Hudson's Bay Company, according to the printed list of 17th

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November, 1847, consists of 239 proprietors, representing a capital stock of £400,000. The affairs of the corporation are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and committee of seven, elected by proprietors holding each not less than £500 stock for six months previous to voting, except such stock be acquired by bequest, marriage, &c. Of the 239 proprietors, 55 have more than two votes. Each member of the committee must hold not less than £1,800 stock. The charter of 1670 prescribes the mode of election, oaths to be administered, &c.; authorises the governor and company to make laws and ordinances for the good government of their territory, and the advancement of trade, and to impose penalties and punishments not repugnant to the laws of England. The company has, accordingly, established, at the Red River Settlement, at a considerable expense, a governor, council, recorder, sheriff, coroner, &c., for the due government of the affairs of the Assiniboia or Red River territory, and for the careful and legal administration of justice throughout Rupert's Land.

Trial by jury, although not enjoined by the Royal Charter of 1670, was introduced into the Red River settlement by Sir George Simpson, under the directions of the Hudson's Bay authorities in England. It appears that crime is comparatively rare in Rupert's Land, and that justice is effectively and mercifully administered under the same safeguards that exist in England.

The fur and peltry traffic of the Company is regulated by a Deed Poll, bearing date 26th March, 1821, on the junction of the North-West traders with the Hudson's Bay Company; and by another Deed Poll, bearing date 6th June, 1834, "for ascertaining the rights and prescribing the duties of the chief factors and the chief traders, and for conducting the trade." The Deed Poll of 1821 was a co-partnership for 21 years between the Hudson's Bay Company and the representatives of the North-West Company, on the basis that each should provide an equal capital for carrying on the trade. The expenses of establishments in England and America to be paid out of the trade, and no expense relating to colonization, or to any business separate from trade, to form a charge on the concern. Profits were divided into 100 shares, of which 40 were divided between the chief factors and chief traders, according to profit and loss; if a loss occurred in one year on these 40 shares, it was

to be made good out of the profits of next year. Inventory, general account, and tariff of goods, to be made out yearly on 1st June; and if profits were not paid to parties within 14 days after 1st June, interest allowed of five per cent.

The governor and company appointed governors to preside at councils of chief factors, who carried into effect all acts authorized by the charter. Senior chief traders assisted in forming council, if there were not seven chief factors present; each member of council had a vote; two-thirds formed a majority for decision. Three chief factors must be present, besides the president, to constitute a council. By the Deed Poll of 1821, there were 25 chief factors and 28 chief traders appointed, who were named in alternate succession from the Hudson's Bay Company, and North-West Company's servants.

The servants of both companies were placed on an equal footing; the 40 shares out of the 100, were sub-divided into 85 shares, and each of the 25 chief factors was entitled to 2 shares or $\frac{2}{25}$ th, and each of the 28 chief traders to $\frac{2}{7}$ th,—the remaining 7 out of the 85 shares were appropriated to old servants, in certain proportions, for seven years.

The chief factors superintend the business of the company at the respective stations, and the chief traders under them carry on the trade with the Indians. The clerks serve under both; the humblest clerk, who goes out from the Orkneys or elsewhere, by good conduct may rise to the chief positions in the service of the company. The salaries of the clerks vary from £20 to £100 per annum. The chief factors and traders who winter in the interior are allowed, in addition to their share of profits, certain personal necessaries free of charge; they are not of course permitted to carry on any private trade for themselves with the Indians; strict accounts, inventories, valuations, &c., are required of them annually, and the councils at the respective posts have power to mulct, admonish, or suspend any of the company's servants. Three chief factors and two chief traders are allowed to leave the country annually for one year. A chief factor or a chief trader, after wintering three years in the service of the company, may retire and hold his full share of profits for one year after retiring, and half of the share for the four ensuing years if he winters for five years, then half for six years.

Three chief factors, or two chief factors and two chief traders, are allowed to retire annually according to rotation. The representatives of a chief factor or chief trader, who may die after having wintered five years, receive all the benefit to which the deceased himself would have been entitled had he lived; and in like proportions for less duration of service.

The accounts are kept with great accuracy, the business conducted with punctuality, and the whole machinery of the company is worked with order and economy, under the watchful care of a governor and committee in London. Sales are made by public auction of furs or peltry, several times in each year, at the company's premises in London. There is no upset price for the goods: they are sold to the highest bidder. The company has no monopoly, as some suppose, of the importation of furs, &c., into England; they have to compete with the furs of the United States of America, of Russia, Norway, &c., and if other traders can sell lower than the company, the public have, of course, the benefit. Beaver and other skins are now sold at much lower prices than formerly, and the steady supply from the Hudson's Bay territories has materially tended to the reduction of the price of foreign furs and skins, and has made "London undoubtedly the most extensive market for furs in the world." [*Greenhow's Hist. Oregon*, p. 412.]

Caprice, fashion, changes in trade, or in the use of the different articles for manufacture, materially influences the price of goods; thus, for instance, the introduction of silk hats has much reduced the price of heavier skins and other furs. The fall in the price of all skins has been very great, but as beaver constitutes the largest item in value, the reduction of profit to the company will be seen by a comparison with the prices and amount of sales. Price of beaver skin, in 1839, 27s. 6d.; in 1846, 3s. 5d.; number of skins sold in 1839, 55,486; in 1846, 45,389; sale proceeds in 1839, £76,312; in 1846, £7,856.

There is also great variety in the prices of articles of similar denomination. At the sales on 30th August 1848, two lots of otter, 66 in the lot, sold for 33s.; another lot, with 72 in it, sold only for £1 11s. Fisher skins varied from 26s. 3d. to 3s. each; bear skins, 45s. to 12s.; martens, 14s. 8d. to 3s. 1d.; silver fox from £7 to 2s. per skin. But the Hudson's Bay Company are obliged to pay the same price to the Indians for all skins,

according to tariff; whether the skins be good or bad, the company must buy them. By the time these skins are conveyed from the interior to the coast, warehoused, and shipped, their cost is greatly enhanced, irrespective of loss by damage, interest of money, insurances, &c. The profits of the shareholders are not therefore to be estimated by the difference in price between the cost of a skin at one of the company's forts in the interior, and its sale price in London. There are the heavy charges of different forts in the north-west territories—the losses by non-fulfilment of contracts (for the Indians, like the Eastern nations, almost invariably require advances, and always endeavour to be in debt to the Company)—the deficiency of skins or furs in scarce seasons—and the reduction in price at home—the long period for which the company lose interest on their outlay, from the time of the transmission of their goods from London, to the re-payment of the same in five, six, or sometimes seven years, by the fur sales in London, as the company always keep one year's stock of goods on hand in their territories; the expense of obtaining and transmitting food is often a heavy item, for at many of the company's forts, the poor Indians would perish during unusually inclement winters, when the buffalo and deer flee from the wind-swept plains to the shelter of the woods.

Whatever be the profits, after paying the whole expenses at home and abroad, they are divided, according to the provisions of the Decd-Poll just quoted, into fifths; of which three go to the proprietary, and two among the chief factors and chief traders of the company, instead of salaries. Considerable expenditure is necessary to try new districts, which sometimes, however originally promising, are ultimately found not to answer, and the establishments have to be withdrawn at a loss. The expenses incident to the Red River settlement are also a drain. The annual dividend is now about six per cent.

The Hudson's Bay Company have now about 136 establishments, besides hunting expeditions and shipping, affording employment to 25 chief factors, 27 chief traders, 152 clerks, 1,200 regular servants, besides occasional labour in boating and other services of a great number of the natives; a steam vessel and five sailing vessels of 100 to 300 tons, all armed. Their forts or stockaded positions extend from the coast of

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Labrador, westward to the Pacific, and from the northern boundaries of Canada to the confines of the Arctic Ocean. Several medical officers are maintained for different forts, and at every large trading establishment; there is in fact an "Indian hospital" from which the natives derive the greatest benefit, as they resort thither in great numbers when suffering from age, infirmities, or other causes. Ministers of the Gospel of every denomination are protected and encouraged by the company, and a bishop of the church of England has been recently nominated for the newly created diocese of Rupert's Land.

Physical Aspect, Forts, and Stations.—It is difficult to convey an idea of the aspect of the vast territory belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, or of that included in their trading licence. A large portion of the country east of the Rocky Mountains consists of inland seas, bays, lakes, rivers, swamps, treeless hills and hollows, "tossed together in a wave-like form, as if the ocean had been suddenly petrified while heaving its huge billows in a tumultuous swell."—*Simpson's Life and Travels.*

Beginning with the coast of Labrador, the prevailing features from 50° to 60° N. lat., and from 56° to 78° W. long., are, so far as we know, rocks, lakes, swamps, and mountains.

From the coast of Labrador, a ridge of table land runs nearly south-west to the source of the Ottawa river, and divides the waters which flow into the River and Gulf

of St. Lawrence, from those which flow into Hudson's Bay; it may be considered the south-eastern boundary of the Hudson's Bay Company's territories. From the Ottawa this ridge (table land, or division of waters,) takes a generally west direction till it reaches the Rocky Mountains, in about 115° W. long., separating the waters of Rainy Lake River, Red River, and the Saskatchewan, which have their embouchure in Hudson's Bay, from the Mississippi and Missouri, which flow into the Gulf of Mexico. This very slightly elevated feature was formerly considered to represent the boundary between the Hudson's Bay Company and the United States, to the westward of the source of Rainy Lake River. The treaty of 1818, defined Rainy Lake River, the Lake of the Woods, and the 49th parallel of latitude as far west as Rocky Mountains, as the boundary; and by the recent treaty, 15th June, 1846, the 49th parallel of latitude has been continued as the boundary west of the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean.* The Rocky Mountains have their northern extremity in the Arctic Ocean, lat. 70° N. long. 140° W., and run nearly S.S.E., parallel with the west coast, forming the eastern boundary of the Oregon region, sending off, at different places, spurs and buttresses, and dividing the waters that flow into the Atlantic from those that flow into the Pacific.

At Mount Browne, 16,000, and Mount Hooker, 15,700 feet high, in lat. 52° 30' N.,

through the middle of the sound between Ile Royale and the north-western mainland, to the mouth of Pigeon River, and up the said river to and through the north and south Fowl Lakes, to the lakes of the height of land between Lake Superior and the Lake of the woods; thence along the water-communication to Lake Saisaginaga and through that lake; thence to and through Cypress Lake, Lac du Bois Blanc, Lac la Croix, Little Vermillion Lake, and Lake Namecan, and through the several smaller lakes, straits, or streams connecting the lakes here mentioned, to that point in Lac la Pluie, or Rainy Lake, at the Chaudière Falls, from which the commissioners traced the line to the most north-western point of the Lake of the Woods; thence along the said line to the said most north-western point, being in lat. 49° 23' 55" N., and in long. 95° 14' 38" W., from the observatory at Greenwich; thence, according to existing treaties, due south to its intersection with the 49th parallel of north latitude, and along that parallel to the Rocky Mountains. It being understood that all the water-communications, and all the usual portages along the line from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods, and also Grand Portage from the shore of Lake Superior to the Pigeon River, as now actually used, shall be free and open to the use of the subjects and citizens of both countries."

* The following is the second article of the treaty of 9th August, 1842, defining the boundaries between the United States and Canada:—"Article II.—It is moreover agreed, that from the place where the joint commissioners terminated their labours under the sixth article of the treaty of Ghent, to wit, at a point in the Neebish Channel, near Muddy Lake, the line shall run into and along the ship channel between St. Joseph's and St. Tammany Islands, to the division of the channel at or near the head of St. Joseph's island; thence turning eastwardly and northwardly around the lower end of St. George's or Sugar Island, and following the middle of the channel which divides St. George's from St. Joseph's Island; thence up the east Neebish Channel nearest to St. George's Island, through the middle of Lake George; thence west of Jonas' Island into St. Mary's River, to a point in the middle of that river about one mile above St. George's or Sugar Island, so as to appropriate and assign the said island to the United States; thence adopting the line traced on the maps by the commissioners, through the River St. Mary and Lake Superior, to a point north of Ile Royale in said lake, 100 yards to the north and east of Ile Chapeau, which last-mentioned island lies near the north-eastern point of Ile Royale, where the line marked by the commissioners terminates; and from the last-mentioned point south-westerly

two of the loftiest peaks of the "Rocky Mountains," a dividing range of moderate hills runs to the north-east, from whence flows some of the branches of the Saskatchewan, Churchill, or English River, Deer Lake, Winnipeg Lake, and those streams which feed Wollaston Lake, Athabasca Lake, Slave Lake, and also several other lakes. It is, however, difficult to say what waters flow towards Hudson's Bay, or towards the Arctic Sea, as several of the lakes have different outlets, and each lake communicates with another,—the Great Slave Lake, with Lake Athabasca; Lake Athabasca, with Wollaston and Deer Lakes, the latter descending by Churchill River into Hudson's Bay. For instance, the Oungigan or River of Peace descends from a ridge of the Rocky Mountains towards Lake Athabasca, or the Lake of the Mountains; when high it flows into the lake, but when low it receives the lake waters, and flows towards the Great Slave Lake, under the name of the Slave River. Winnipeg, Winnepigos, and Manitoba Lakes, receive the waters of the Saskatchewan, Assiniboine, and Red River, and communicate with Hudson's Bay by the Nelson, and other rivers and conduits.

Mackenzie River runs northerly in its shallow course from the Rocky Mountains to the Arctic Ocean, in lat. 69° N., long. 135° W., but communicates in its progress with the Great Bear and Great Slave Lakes; excepting this, and also the Copper Mine and Back's Rivers, the course of all the other rivers and lakes of North-West America, east of the Rocky Mountains, would appear to be to the eastward, towards which the whole country dips.

Viewing, therefore, the whole of the territories between the Rocky Mountains and Hudson's Bay, north of the 49th parallel, as one region, it may be considered as a series of lakes, rivers, and plains, with a gradual elevation from east to west. The northern territory, which was very imperfectly explored until the recent journeys of Dease, Simpson, and Rac, from 1837 to 1847, is intersected with lakes, marshes, and rivers to a greater extent than any part of the known globe; and it would seem as if the inner springs of the earth there burst forth. Some parts investigated are truly regions of desolation: vegetation ceases in the latitude of 60° north:—no land is seen capable of cultivation; the whole surface is rugged and uneven, and the open valleys nearly devoid of all vegetable productions. The

soil at Churchill Fort (one of the Hudson's Bay Company's stations, in lat. 59° N.) on the shores of the bay, is extremely barren, rocky, dry, and without wood for several miles inland; a few garden vegetables are with difficulty reared. At York Fort, in lat. $57^{\circ} 2'$, long. 93° W., the soil is low and marshy, and equally unproductive; and, though the trees are larger than those inland of Fort Churchill, they are still knotty and dwarfish. The country around the factory, although elevated above the river, is one entire swamp, covered with low stunted pine, and perfectly impenetrable, even in July, when it is infested by clouds of mosquitoes. The land seems to have been thrown up by the sea, and is never thawed during the hottest summer, with the thermometer at 90° to 100° in the shade, more than 10 or 12 inches, and then the soil is of the consistence of clammy mud; even in the centre of the factory it is necessary to keep on the platforms to avoid sinking over the ankles. About Albany Fort, in 52° N., and Moose Fort in $51^{\circ} 28'$, the climate is more temperate, the soil better, and potatoes and garden produce are reared, but with difficulty. Proceeding farther west, the temperature improves, but all around Hudson's Bay, particularly at Fort Churchill, the climate is extremely severe; and from the middle of October to the middle of May, the country is buried under snow. The ice does not break up generally until July, and at York Fort, two degrees south of Churchill, the thermometer in January has been at 50° below zero. Even in rooms at the factory, where a fire is perpetually kept up, brandy freezes into a solid substance: the rivers and lakes, 10 to 12 feet deep, are frozen to the bottom, and the Hudson's Bay Company's European servants are obliged to observe the greatest caution against the effects of the cold air, which is frequently filled with small particles of angular ice, and when driven by the wind against the face or hands, raises the skin in white blisters, which break out in thin watery issues. As soon as a room is thoroughly heated, and the embers burnt down, the top of the chimney is closed so as to exclude the air, yet the walls of the apartment are found covered with ice two to three inches thick. In the *Quarterly Review*, No. xlix. vol xxv., 1821, Sir John Barrow thus adverts to a similar occurrence on board Captain Parry's ship, *Hecla* and *Griper*:—"The month of March set in mildly (at their retreat in Winter

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Harbour) so that the solid ice, which for some time had lined the ship's sides, began to melt. It therefore became necessary to scrape off this coating of ice, on which occasion Captain Parry observes—"It will, perhaps, be scarcely credited, that we this day (8th March) removed above one hundred buckets full, each containing from five to six gallons, being the accumulation which had taken place in an interval of less than four weeks; and this immense quantity was the produce chiefly of the men's breath and of the steam of their victuals during meals." The Europeans in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, notwithstanding their precautions, and the use of a large quantity of woollens and furs, are frequently frost-bitten, and many of the natives fall victims to the severity of the climate. The sun is often obscured for weeks by thick fogs, caused by clouds of watery vapour ascending from the sea, which, being condensed by cold, hang all around the coast, and extend inland to a considerable distance. The "mock suns" and moons, called Parahelia and Paraselene, appear very frequently in the coldest months. The temperature of the air is subject to the most capricious variations; rain sometimes falls abundantly with a serene sky, or the sun will burst forth in the midst of the heaviest showers. Such is the region in which several of the Hudson's Bay Company's establishments are situated, and which could not be maintained but for the possession of some more temperate regions, from whence food is procurable.

Hudson's Bay, discovered by John Hudson in 1610, is about 900 miles in length, by 600 at its greatest breadth, with a surrounding coast of 3,000 miles, between the parallels of 51° and 65° N. lat. The coasts are generally high, rocky, rugged, and sometimes precipitous. The bay is navigable for a few months in summer, but for the greater part of the remainder of the year is filled up with fields of ice. The navigation, when open, is extremely dangerous, as it contains many shoals, rocks, sand banks, and islands; even during the summer icebergs are seen in the straits towards which a ship is drifted by a squall or current, rendering it very hazardous for the most skilful seamen. The transitions of the thermometer in summer are from 100° to 40° in two days, and the torrents of rain are surprising: whether in winter or summer, the climate is horrible; the range of the thermometer throughout the year is 140°. The sea is entered by

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Hudson's strait, which is about 500 miles long, with a varying breadth, and with an intricate navigation through several islands, viz.: Charles, Salisbury, Nottingham, Mansfield, and Southampton. The principal bays and inlets in this great inland sea, are, James's Bay, in the south-east, which is 240 miles deep by 140 wide; Button's Bay, and Port Nelson, on the western coast; Chesterfield Inlet on the north-west, which, after stretching far into the interior, terminates in a fresh water lake; Roe's Welcome, a deep strait on the north coast, and also Repulse Bay.

We may now examine the country between Hudson's Bay and the Rocky Mountains, commencing with the lakes and rivers. The Great Bear Lake, the most northerly, is 150 miles in diameter, and communicates by Lake Martin with the Great Slave Lake, which is estimated at 260 miles from E. to W., and 30 from N. to S. Captain Back considers it as large as Lake Michigan; its soundings are from 40 to 60 fathoms. The north side of the lake is an entire jumble of rocks and hills; the south is level, not a hill or stone to be found. The Great Slave River joins this lake to that of Athabasca, which is 180 miles long and 15 broad—receives the Peace, Athabasca, and Stone rivers; the latter river forms the channel which conveys a portion of the waters of the Wollaston Lake (situated on table land) into Athabasca Lake; another portion of the waters of Wollaston Lake flows in a contrary direction through Deer Lake and River into the Missinippi, Churehill, or English River, which forms several smaller lakes, and finally disembogues into Hudson's Bay, at Fort Churehill, in lat. 55° 45' N., long. 94° 25' W.

Lake Winnipeg, in lat. 50° 20' to 53° 45' N., is 240 miles long, and from 5 to 50 broad. It receives the river Saskatchewan, as it flows from the Rocky Mountains and northern ridge; also the Red and Assiniboine rivers, and discharges itself into Hudson's Bay by the Nelson and other rivers. Winnipegos and Manitoba are branch or tributary lakes to Winnipeg.

That the trend of the land, and the dip, is towards Hudson's Bay and the eastward, is evident from the course of the Red River, which rises in about the parallel of 46°; flows to the northward across the American boundary parallel of 49°; joins the Assiniboine, or Nadawosis River, at Fort Garry, in 50° N. lat., and then disembogues into

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the south-western part of Lake Winnipeg, which, as before stated, discharges into Hudson's Bay. The Moose River, which flows from the dividing ridge of highlands, which separates the Hudson's Bay territories from Canada, runs for 230 miles in a north-east direction, and has its embouche in James's Bay, lat. $51^{\circ} 10' N.$, long. $81^{\circ} W.$

The country between the sources of the Assiniboine, in $51^{\circ} 15' N.$, and the Red River, is almost a continued plain, the soil of sand and gravel, with a slight intermixture of earth, which produces a short grass; but trees are rare. The country around the southern part of Lake Winnipeg is well wooded and watered, and abounds at seasons with herds of buffalo and deer; so also contiguous to the Winnipegos Lake and Swan River, and along the route from Carlton to Isle à la Crosse Forts in the 55th parallel. The northern part of Lake Winnipeg is composed of banks of naked black and grey rock. Farther north, occasionally greener spots are to be met with: some of the islands in the Great Slave Lake are clothed with tall poplars, birch, and pines, and well stocked with deer. Near the portage La Loche is a precipice upwards of 100 feet above the plain, from whence, according to Mackenzie, there is a "ravishing prospect:"—the Swan (Pelican, or Clear Water) River meanders for thirty miles through a valley about three miles in breadth, confined by two lofty ridges of equal height, displaying a delightful intermixture of wood and lawn. Some parts of the inclining heights are covered with stately forests, relieved by verdant promontories, where the elk and buffalo enjoy delicious pasturage.

The route from the Red River settlement (Fort Garry) to Fort Chipewyan, on Lake Athabasca, was traversed in December, 1836, by Mr. Thomas Simpson, by the following stages, in a very short space of time:—

	Miles.	Days.
Fort Garry (Red River) to Fort Pelly	394	in 15
Fort Pelly to Fort Carlton	276	" 12
Carlton to Isle à la Crosse	236	" 7
Isle à la Crosse to Fort Chipewyan	371	" 12
Total	1277	in 46

These, and other forts and stations, are necessarily wide apart, and in situations favourable to better communications, and to procuring an animal, or, if possible, vegetable food. The aspect of the country in which these forts are constructed, I have gathered from the observations of Mr. Simpson.—

Fort Garry, the principal station of the Red River Settlement, is situated at the forks of the Red and Assiniboine rivers, about fifty miles from Lake Winnipeg, and is environed by plains; proceeding north-west the country is studded with a few copses of poplar and dwarf oak; but the greater part having been swept in 1835 by the running fires (so frequent and terrible in the prairies), presented a blackened and dismal aspect. There were a number of small natural mounds on which lay fragments of limestone, the great basis of the plain region, and quantities of little shells were strewn about in every direction.

The soil and climate about Manitoba, or "Evil Spirit" Lake, is similar to that of the Red River. At Winnipegos Lake the oak region terminates; but the shores are clothed with elm, poplar, and a few ash, birch, and pine-trees. The water in this lake is brackish in summer. At Duck Bay the first wood of pines was seen. The route from thence to Fort Pelly, south-west, lies through swampy meadows, alternating with woods of poplar, fringed with willow, and a few straggling clumps of pine in the neighbourhood of the Swan River and Duck Mountain, with its "rude and impassible heights." Thence west to north lie the Porcupine Hills, wooded to the very summit. Thunder Hills are about two miles in breadth, steep; and beyond them to the northward is Fort Pelly, in $51^{\circ} 45' 20' N.$ lat.— $102^{\circ} 5' W.$, near the bank of the Assiniboine River. The track thence to Fort Carlton, lies through gently undulating eminences along the wooded banks of the tortuous Assiniboine, thence due west, leaving the Assiniboine far to the south, over a hilly country, tolerably wooded, and abounding in small lakes and swamps to the west end of Stoney Lake, through a country consisting of narrow plains, studded with clumps of poplar, interspersed with little lakes and swamps; a great part of this district had been recently overrun by fire. Changing the course from west to west-south-west, the traveller reaches the immense prairies of the Saskatchewan River, of which entire tracts are frequently bared by fire to the very soil. The cold in these plains is water, with the wind from the westward, is terrific; there is not a shrub or even a blade of grass to break the force of the blast, whose temperature is at least 40° below zero. The only exposed part of the traveller, the eye-lashes, becomes speedily

covered with a heavy crop of icicles, which the half-frozen fingers have a difficulty in removing. These plains are frequented in summer by the Indians as hunting grounds, although the fierce heat is then little more endurable than the cold in winter. Throughout this country, says Sir George Simpson, everything is in unparalleled extremes. Cold and excessive heat,—long droughts balanced by drenching rain and destructive hail (sometimes $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches in circumference). At one period both whites and natives are living in wasteful abundance on venison, buffalo, fish, and game—at others reduced to the last degree of hunger, often passing several days without food. In 1820, when wintering at Athabasca Lake, Sir George Simpson says, he was for three days and nights without a morsel of food. Frequently hundreds of fine buffaloes are killed for the tongues alone. On one occasion Sir G. Simpson saw several thousand buffaloes putrifying the air for miles around. Unsheltered plains extend far to the south, to the ridges in lat. 49° , whence the Missouri descends. One of the prairies of the Saskatchewan crossed by Mr. Simpson, was fourteen miles wide, and only a few willows were thinly scattered on its surface. The country south of the Saskatchewan towards Assiniboine, has in various places lakes as salt as the Atlantic Ocean. As this region, which extends to the Rocky Mountains, has been erroneously considered adapted for European colonization, the following extract from Mr. Thomas Simpson's Journal may help to dispel the illusion. "Christmas Day, Sunday, the 25th: On shaking off our slumbers this glad morning, a troop of wolves were 'baying the moon,' as she rode in a cloudless sky. The country before us being intricate, we could not start till daylight; and when we sallied forth on our day's march, the weather had moderated. About two miles from our resting-place, we passed over a round hill, and stood awhile on its summit to enjoy the boundless prospect. From west to south stretched a vast plain, separated from another, of which we had a bird's-eye glimpse to the north-east, by the broad belt of woods which we had been skirting along; while before us, in our line of march, lay outspread a seemingly endless tract of open underwood, varied by gently swelling eminences. For seven miles our route led west-north-west, through thickets and over hillocks; it then changed to west for fourteen miles, through a more

open country, consisting of rising grounds, or "coteaus," with bare ridges, and sides clothed with dwarf poplar and brushwood; while here and there, in the hollows, we crossed large ponds, scarcely deserving, on this continent, the title of lakes. They have no outlet; and on cutting through the ice for water, we generally found it putrid: such, however, is its scarcity in that level country, that we were often fain to use it when most nauseous, taking the precaution of imbibing it through snow, which purifies it in some degree. We now turned west-south-west for eight miles, keeping along a broad and rather winding ridge, which appeared to furnish the buffalo with a regular road of ingress to the woods. Several tracks of moose-deer were also seen during the day. After sunset, we took up our quarters in a small clump of poplars. The whole country having been ravaged by fire, we could not find dry grass, as usual, for our beds, and spread our Christmas couch on willow branches; rough indeed, but rendered smooth to us by health and exercise."

Several of the Hudson's Bay Company's forts are situated in the country N.W. of the Red River. *Fort Pelly* is a compact, well-ordered post on the route from Fort Garry, on the Red River, to Fort Carlton. It is sheltered on the north by a range of woods, and has the Assiniboine River in front; the cold in December is terrific, sometimes— 44° , equal to 76 degrees of frost.

Carlton Fort is situated on the south side of the Saskatchewan River, and is defended by high palisades, and a gallery surrounding the whole square, planted with wall pieces, into which, however, the Indians fired several times during the summer of 1835. Provisions were unusually scarce, when visited by Mr. T. Simpson in 1836, the great fires in autumn having driven the buffalo to a distance. The route to Fort La Crosse lay first through an open country consisting of low, round, grassy hills, interspersed with clumps of poplar, occasionally of pines, and with many small lakes to the boundary of the pine forest, in lat. $53^{\circ}30'$ north; thence hills, lakes, lakelets and brooks, to a hilly tract of fourteen miles in extent, which divides the waters that flow towards the Saskatchewan and Churchhill Rivers. From Green Lake to Beaver River is swampy and wooded; and thence to Long Lake chain are pine woods. Fort La Crosse, in $107^{\circ}54'30''$ W. on the border of the lake, is neat and compact; the country around low

and swampy. At the portage La Loche, north of Fort Crose, the hills are a thousand feet in height, steep, and command a fine view of the Clear water River, and its picturesque valley; thence to the confluence with the Athabasca River, whose broad bosom is studded with numerous islands that give it a lake-like appearance.

At Fort Chipewyan, lat. $58^{\circ} 43' 38''$ N., long. $111^{\circ} 18' 32''$ W., the surface consists of rocks and swamps, and the climate precludes all prospect of rearing farm produce; even potatoes have to be brought down from Fish River; and when the coarse grass, cut in the swamps for the use of the few horses and oxen required for drawing fire-wood to the fort, fails, fish from the Athabasca river is the only provender obtainable for the cattle. Fort Edmonton is situated on the northern branch of the Saskatchewan River, in lat. $53^{\circ} 45'$ N. long. $113^{\circ} 10'$ W., and was visited by Sir G. Simpson in his progress from the Red River to the Columbia and Fort Vancouver. The fort is of an hexagonal form, well built, with high pickets and bastions, and battlemented gateways; it is on an almost perpendicular height commanding the river. The fort is painted inside and out with devices to suit the taste of the savages who frequent it. Over the gateways are a fantastic pair of vases, and the ceilings and walls of the hall present gaudy colours and fantastic sculptures, which the Indians admire. The buildings are smeared with red earth; the savages are awed by so much finery, and respect what appears to them grand structures.

The settlement on the Red River, distant from Montreal, by the Ottawa River, about 1,800 miles, in lat. 50° N., long. 97° W., is elevated 800 feet above the sea, in a level country, contiguous to the wooded borders of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, along which the settlement extends for fifty miles. The soil is comparatively fertile, and the climate salubrious, but summer frosts generated by undrained marshes, sometimes blast the hopes of the husbandman. The Hudson's Bay Company, by the introduction, at a great expense, of rams and other stock, have improved the breed of domestic animals, which are now abundant: wheat, barley, oats, maize, potatoes, and hops thrive; flax and hemp are poor and stunted. The river banks are cultivated for half a mile inland, but the back level country remains in its natural state, and furnishes a coarse hay for the settlers' stock during the long

and severe winter, which lasts from November to April, or May, when Lake Winnipeg is unfrozen, and the river navigation to Hudson's Bay commences, *vid* Norway House entrepôt, at the northern extremity of the lake.

The population is in number about 8,000, consisting of Europeans, half-breeds, and Indians. The two principal churches, the protestant and Roman catholic, the gaol, the Hudson's Bay Company's chief buildings, the residence of the Roman catholic bishop, and the houses of some retired officers of the fur trade, are built of stone, which has to be brought from a distance; but the houses of the settlers are built of wood, whitewashed or painted externally.

Land is granted to the settlers at 7s. 6d. per acre; there is no restriction but in the purchase or sale of furs and spirits, and only a slight import duty is imposed on other commodities, the proceeds of which duty are received by the municipality of Assiniboine.

The colony is governed by a corporation called the Council of Assiniboia, which, in virtue of the Royal Charter of 1670, exercises judicial as well as legislative authority, under an able Recorder.

The currency is one of the best established in any colony. It consists, with the addition of silver and copper coin, of notes issued by the Hudson's Bay Company, which are payable at York factory, by bills on the company in England. This circulation is absolutely essential; gold or silver would soon be hoarded, melted, or lost; and a note issued by the government of the place, receivable in payments, of acknowledged exchangeable value, devoid of fluctuation in exchanges, and convertible, without loss or risk, into cash in England, is an advantageous monetary circulation for any settlement, and not a grievance or subject of complaint. Commodities to the full value of the notes can always be obtained at New York, Montreal, &c.

The population of the Red River settlement, in 1843, was 5,143, of which number, 2,798 are Roman catholics, and 2,345 are Protestants. The heads of families are 870; of whom 571 are Indians or half-breeds, natives of the territory; 152 Canadians; 61 Orkneymen; 49 Scotchmen; 22 Englishmen; 5 Irishmen; and 2 Swiss. Wales, Italy, Norway, Denmark, Germany, Poland, and the United States of America, have each contributed one to the list. There is also

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one Esquimaux Indian. There are 730 dwelling-houses, 1,219 barns or stables, 18 windmills, and 1 water-mill. There are 182 horses, 749 mares, 107 bulls, 2,207 cows, 1,580 calves, 1,976 pigs, and 3,569 sheep.

The Bishop of Montreal says of the Red River settlement, that "it affords a wonderfully striking example of good brought by the hand of God out of evil." His lordship thus describes the churches there:—"Along the strip of settlement which occupies, with interruptions, the opposite sides of the river, the four English churches are situated. The Indian church is about 13 miles below the lower church at the rapids; this again is about 6 from the middle church; and the middle church about 7 from the upper. The Indian church is a wooden building, painted white, 50 feet or upwards in length, with a cupola over the entrance. It has square-topped windows, which, so far, give it an unecclesiastical appearance. The lower church is also of wood, and of the length of 50 feet. The middle church, which is not quite completed, and which has been built by the unaided exertions of the congregation, is an edifice of stone, 60 feet long. The upper church, which is also of stone, is 10 feet longer, and will accommodate 500 persons."

There are scattered about the Red River settlement several respectable retired factors or traders of the company; some married to European, more to native wives. Although the style of the establishments at the forts is exceedingly plain, and the extreme difficulty of transport, as well as the isolated character and remote situation of the place itself, cause a variety of articles to be dispensed with to which some of the inmates have been elsewhere accustomed, yet there is far from a deficiency to be witnessed there, either of comforts or of habits of refinement. Its communications with England—are for goods *via* Hudson's Bay—during the summer season, and for personal travelling and letters, *via* Montreal, from which the Red River is distant 1,800 miles. The company have, along this line, about 10 stockaded posts. The Bishop of Montreal traversed the distance in 28 days.

We may now proceed to examine the Pacific coast and the Rocky Mountains, whose highest ridges are in the parallels of 52° to 53°, about 8,500 feet. Some peaks rise to 15,000 and 16,000 feet, but the general range is 4,000 to 6,000 feet, diminishing in height towards the north. This granitic mountain chain is from 50 to 100 miles wide.

The country termed New Caledonia, between the Rocky Mountains and Cascade Mountains, near the coast of the Pacific, is well watered, undulating in bold swells, with occasional plains and copses, and an abundance of forest trees, of which the cedar, fir, and hemlock, grow to a prodigious size.

In New Caledonia, the Hudson's Bay Company have several stations, and also in the adjacent country. Fort Alexandria, in 52° 30' N., is the residence of one of the company's chief traders, and here the navigation of Frazer's River is begun by the northerly brigade on their way to the north. A small open space is cleared for a few cattle, but the rest of the country is covered with a dense forest. Fort Thompson, on the Kamloop's River, is in 50° 38' N., and 120° 7' 10" W. Frazer's, Babine's, and McLeod's Forts are on the lakes of the same names. Fort St. James, on Stuart's Lake, was the residence of chief factor Ogden, who had charge of the New Caledonia department.

Frazer's River flows through New Caledonia, but is not navigated below Fort Thompson, owing to its dangerous falls. The distances from Fort Thompson to Fort Alexandria, by land, is 150 miles, and thence to Fort James 120. Commodore Wilkes says that the climate of this region is unfavourable to agriculture, in consequence of its being situated between the two ranges of mountains, viz., the Rocky Mountains on the east, and the Cascade Mountains (of the coast) on the west, both of which ranges are constantly covered with snow, and in the plains or villages snow lies from November to May six feet deep. The commodore adds, "there are many spots of fertile land along the rivers, but the early frosts are a great obstacle to agriculture. At St. James, Babine, and Frazer's Forts, only potatoes and turnips can be cultivated." Frazer's River has its embouchure six miles to the north of the 49th parallel, which defines the United States' boundary. It is about a mile wide, the country around low, with a rich alluvial soil. Fort Langley is 20 miles from its mouth.

Sir George Simpson made a journey of 2,000 miles in 47 days from the Red River, *via* Fort Edmonton, to Fort Colville in 1841. He crossed the Rocky Mountains at the confluence of two of the sources of the Saskatchewan and Colombia, near Fort Kotanie, at an elevation of 3,000 feet above the sea, with mountains rising about half that altitude around. The descending country to the Kotanie River was rugged and

boggy, with thick and tangled forests, craggy peaks and dreary vales, here and there hills of parched clay,—where every shrub and blade of grass was brown and sapless,—as if newly swept by the blast of the sirocco; with occasional prairies and open swards, interspersed with gloomy woods or burning pine forests. In one place a valley was seen 30 miles long by six wide without a tree, and environed by mountains. The natives of these regions were in a wretched condition.

The coast abounds with harbours, inlets, and islands. The north-western Archipelago, which lies north of Vancouver's Island, belongs partly to England and partly to Russia. The islands within the British dominions are of various sizes; the largest, named "Queen Charlotte's Island," is somewhat of a triangular form, lying nearly north and south, the south point in the parallel of 52°. The superficial area is less than that of Vancouver's Island: it has several good harbours, viz., on the north coast, Port Estrada, near Sandy Point, and Croft's Sound, a little farther west. On the east side, Skitckis, in 53° 20' N. lat.; Cumshaw, near 53° N.; and Port Sturges, farther south. On the west, or Pacific coast, Magee's Sound, in 52° 1' N. lat.; and Port Ingram, near the north-west extremity of the island. The country around some of these harbours, especially Port Estrada (Hancock's River), and Magee's Sound, is said by the Americans to be fertile, and the climate comparatively mild.

Queen Charlotte's island is admirably adapted for the formation of a penal settlement, by its distance from England, its complete insularity, adaptation for the support of a large convict settlement by the labour of the prisoners, the impossibility of escape, the improbability of the transported being ever enabled to return to England, and by the useful purposes in which the convicts may be employed in the formation of a fortress and a colony in the Northern Pacific, contiguous to China and Japan.

The Princess Royal Islands lie nearer to the main land, between the parallels of 51° and 54° N. lat. Of the interior of the whole of these islands, little or nothing is known; the largest are traversed by mountain ridges in the direction of their greatest length from south-east to north-west. The adjacent coast is of very irregular outline, with numerous bays, inlets, and winding channels, forming a labyrinth of passages. Simpson's River, on our north-west boundary, has a deep inlet,

and communicates with Babine Lake, where the Hudson's Bay Company have a fort. The Company have also an establishment on Pitt's Islands, in the north-western Archipelago.

The north-west coast and interior, north of the parallel of 55°, is described as extremely rugged; lofty mountains, covered with snow, rise abruptly from the ocean; more inland, the whole region consists of Alpine masses, thrown together in the wildest confusion, so that a level site for a fort can hardly be found within any convenient distance from a stream or lake. It is a land of rocks, as difficult of access as it is impracticable in itself, except at the very margin of the sea. Most of the streams to the north of Frazer's River, are mere torrents fed by melting snow in summer, and in winter by the unceasing deluges of this dismal climate; these streams form deep valleys in the precipitous heights of every form and magnitude in their progress to the ocean. Hence the term "Cascade Mountains," given to the coast line north of Vancouver's Island. The company hold under lease from Russia, a fort on the Stikine or Pelly's River, where the climate and country are alike miserable in the extreme, and their effects are increased by the putridity and filth of the adjacent Indian village. At this fort, in April 1842, the gentleman in charge was shot in a scuffle, and 2,000 savages encamped around were preparing to rifle the fort, when, fortunately, Sir G. Simpson arrived in a Russian steamer. Taco Fort, under Dr. Kennedy, an assistant, and 22 men, is still farther northward on the coast, surrounded by 4,000 savages, warlike and ferocious, who at first captured Dr. Kennedy and his assistant, and required for their ransom four blankets. The fort is now strong.

Fort M'Loughlin, on the north-west coast, near Milbank Sound, was formed in 1837, on one of the most rugged spots imaginable. By great and unwearied exertions for several years in blasting, levelling, and gravelling, the company's officers have made a strong fort on a rock capable of holding out with 20 men, against all the Indians of the coast. An enclosed surface of three acres has been covered with sea-weed and made into a garden, producing potatoes, carrots, turnips, cabbages, &c. It is probable that on the north-west coasts adjoining to Vancouver's Island, and Queen Charlotte's Island, many spots available for European colonization will be found. The climate on the coast of

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the Pacific is much milder than similar latitudes on the Atlantic or opposite shores of the American continent.

Some of the principal forts belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, are:—

1. *York Fort*—The most important station of the Hudson's Bay Company has control over the extensive region west and north of Hudson's Bay, bounded by the Arctic Ocean, the Rocky Mountains, and a line drawn from the bay through Rainy lake. Among the posts dependent on York fort, are, those of forts Churchill and Severn, and the forts or houses on the different lakes—viz. Trout, Beaver, Cat, Swampy, Split, Nelson, Deer, La Rouge, and La Crosc. There are also Rock-house on Hill river, and Oxford house, Holy lake. On the Saskatchewan, are the forts or stockaded houses, called Cumberland, Carlton, Manchester, Edmonton, Acton, or Rocky Mountain. On Lake Athabasca are forts Chipewyan, Wedderburn, and Fond du lac; on the Mackenzie river in its course to the Arctic Ocean, forts Simpson, Norman, and Good Hope; and on the upper part of the same river, forts Vermillion, Dunnegan, and Rocky Mountain.

2. *Moose Factory* is about 700 miles from the city of Montreal, in Lower Canada, and is the company's principal depôt on the southern shores of Hudson's Bay. Connected with this establishment, there are numerous stations: some of which are at a distance from the Fort, varying from 100 to 250 miles. The forts and stations in the country between Hudson's Bay and the lakes in Canada, are under this superintendency. On James's Bay, are, Albany fort, East Mainfort, and Rupert's house. On the river Albany, are, Martin's Fall, and Osnaburg houses; on the Moose or Brunswick river, is New Brunswick house, and to the south-east, Frederick house. There are establishments on the small lakes Abbittibe, Mistasinny, Big, Wagwanappy, and Temiscaming. The Indians, in this district of country, are principally of the Swampy Cree tribe, with a few Esquimaux at an establishment called Big River, which is about 250 miles to the north-east of Rupert's River.

3. *Michipicoten* is the principal factory belonging to the company on the shores of Lake Superior; within and around which, and the different establishments in that extensive range of country, there is a considerable population of Europeans and half castes, as well as of native Indians, who

are chiefly of the Ojibeway or Salteaux Indians. On the W. shore of Lake Superior is Fort William, and there is a post at the Falls of St. Mary.

4. *Lac la Pluie* is a trading post of the company, situated near the height of land which divides the waters falling into the St. Lawrence from those that fall into Hudson's Bay, and is distant from Montreal about 1,300 miles. The neighbourhood of this place is a great rendezvous for Indians from the surrounding country, during the summer, as the means of living on fish and rice are very abundant.

5. *Fort Alexander* is formed at the outlet of the River Winnipeg, and is distant from Montreal 1,500 miles. It is much frequented by the Indians, who, as well as those that visit Lac la Pluie, belong to the Ojibeway or Salteaux tribes.

6. *Edmonton* is an establishment on the Saskatchewan River, which has its source on the Rocky Mountains, and disembogues itself by Nelson River into Hudson's Bay. It is distant from Montreal 2,800 miles. From thence to the Athabasca River, which also has its origin on the Rocky Mountains, the establishments are frequented by the bold and daring prairie or plain tribes of Indians, including the Assiniboines, the Peiagaus, the Sarecces, and the Blood Indians. The Thickwood Cree and Assiniboines amount, with the whites and mixed population attached to the station, to between 15 and 20,000 souls.

7. *Norway House*, one of the principal depôts belonging to the company, is situated at the northern end of Lake Winnipeg, and is distant from Montreal 2,000 miles. There is an Indian village connected with this place, the inhabitants of which derive great advantages from the proximity of the company's establishment, where the Indians, who are a part of the Swampy Cree tribe, find permanent employment as fishermen, boatmen, and labourers. Beren's river house and Fort Alexander are also on Lake Winnipeg. At Ungava Bay, at the entrance of Hudson's Strait, there is a station for collecting the produce of the coast of Labrador, consisting chiefly of oil from the seal and porpoise; and there are establishments for taking and curing salmon, which is sent to the Quebec market.

The Hudson's Bay Company possess a very thriving establishment at Fort Vancouver, in the Oregon country, recently ceded to the United States.

POPULATION.—The best approximative estimate of the number of inhabitants in north-western America is given in an official report of Lieuts. Warre and Vavasour, as a "Census of the Indian Tribes in the Oregon territory from latitude 42° to latitude 54°, derived from the trading lists of the Hudson's Bay Company, and from the best obtainable information: it is dated, "Fort Vancouver, 1845."

Name of the Tribe.	Where situated.	Males.	Females.	Children under 12 years.	Slaves	Total
Quacott.—Nuvette and 27 others. Tribes speaking generally the Quacott language.	From Lat. 54° to Lat. 50° including Queen Charlotte's Island; North end of Vancouver's Island, Milbank Sound and Island, and the main Shore	10,020	20,215	.	1,570	40,805
Massettes and 13 tribes, not included with the above, and speaking different languages.	On Queen Charlotte's Island, not included in the above	3,232	3,381	.	12	6,613
Nass Indians, 4 tribes speaking the same language.	Nass river on the main land	857	746	.	12	1,615
Chymysans, 10 tribes, all of whom speak the same language, with a different idiom.	Chatham Sound, Portland Canal, Port Eslington, and the neighbouring islands	1,202	1,225	.	68	2,495
Skeena Indians, 2 tribes.	At the mouth of the Skeena river	105	120	.	7	322
Labassas Indians, 5 tribes.	Gardner's Canal, Canal de Principe, Canal de la Reida	717	601	.	111	1,429
Milbank Sound, 9 tribes.	Milbank Sound, Caccado Canal, Deane Canal, Solmon river, and the islands on the coast	784	797	.	47	1,628
Challams.—Cowaitchims, 24 tribes, speaking the Challam and Cowaitchim languages.	From lat. 50° along the coast south to Whitty Island in lat. 48°; part of Vancouver's Island and the mouth of Frane's river	3,176	3,383	.	2,868	9,427
New Caledonia Indians—8 tribes known).	M'Leod's Lake, Chelertins, Fort George, Alexandria in Fraser's river, Conally Lake, Babine Lake, Fraser's Lake, Stuart's Lake	1,265	1,150	.	210	2,625
Sanetch Indians, 3 tribes.	Straits of St. Juan de Fuca and Vancouver's Islands	194	152	99	.	445
Hallams, 11 tribes.	ditto	517	461	467	40	1,485
Sinahomih, 1 tribe.	ditto	268	118	230	13	629
Skatecat, 1 tribe.	ditto	173	161	191	18	543
Cowitchiel, 7 tribes.	ditto	524	636	685	.	1,763
Soke Indians, 1 tribe.	ditto	39	38	12	.	90
Cowitchier, 3 tribes, not as yet ascertained (say)	300
Gulf of Georgia Indians, exact numbers not ascertained	Cape Flattery (about)	1,250
Nasqually, 13 tribes.	Nasqually river and Puget's Sound	1,836	1,997	.	182	4,014
Two tribes in Cavlets river (about)	600
Cheenoeks, Clatsops, and several tribes near the entrance of the Columbia river.	Mouth of the Columbia river and the vicinity	429
Trile Kalets, several tribes.	Near Fort Vancouver in the Columbia	500
Vule Payas, several tribes.	Valley of the Willamatu river	300
Clakamus, several tribes.	Valley of the Clakamus and the Willamuta Falls	200
Cheanoeks, Kelussuyas, 4 tribes.	Pillar Rock, Oak Point, The Dallas, The Cascades, Chente river, Takana river on the Columbia	800
Killamooks, 3 tribes.	On the sea coast, between the river Columbia and the Umqua	1,500
Clemets, several tribes.	Requas river near the south boundary	800
Walla-Walla, Nez Perce, Snakes, and several tribes.	One of the South or Snakes branch of the Columbia, extending to near the Rocky Mountains	3,000
Colville and Spokane.	Near Fort Colville on the Columbia	450
Okanagan, several tribes.	On the Okanagan and Piseour rivers	300
Kullus-Palus, several tribes.	On the Flathead or Clarke river	300
Kootoonais, several tribes.	On M'Gillivray's river, the Flat Bow Lake, &c.	450
	Total	33,956	35,182	1,584	5,146	86,947

Recapitulation.—Males, 33,956; females, 35,182; children, 1,584, of both sexes, under 12 years of age; slaves, 5,146. Total, 75,868, of whom an accurate census has been made: 11,079, estimate of tribes, of whom no census has been taken; showing a grand total of 86,947 Indian population, from latitude 42° to latitude 54° N.

"The Indians of Puget's Sound and the Straits of De Fuca, also those farther to the north, appear to be more numerous than those of the interior, and cultivate large quantities of potatoes, &c. for their own

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	Total
670	40,805
	6,613
12	1,615
68	2,495
7	322
111	1,429
47	1,628
868	9,127
210	2,625
	445
40	1,485
13	569
18	643
	1,763
	90
	300
	1,250
182	4,014
	500
	429
	500
	300
	200
	800
	1,500
	800
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use, and to barter with the vessels frequenting the coast. They are not so cleanly as the Indians of the prairies, nor are they so brave or warlike. Many of the latter tribes are a very fine race of men, and possess large herds of cattle and immense numbers of horses. In the neighbourhood of Walla-Walla, individual Indians were pointed out to us who owned more than 1,000 horses. Slavery is common with all the tribes; and he who possesses most slaves and the largest number of horses, is considered the greatest chief. The Indians of the north are sometimes troublesome; but those of the Columbia are a quiet, inoffensive, but very superstitious race. To this last cause may be traced their quarrels with the white man and with one another. They are well armed with rifles, muskets, &c., but, from policy, they are much stinted by the Hudson's Bay Company in ammunition. The Indian tribes do not remain upon the same ground during the whole year. In the summer they resort to the principal rivers and the sea coast, where they take and lay by large quantities of salmon, &c. for their winter consumption, retiring to the smaller rivers of the interior during the cold season. Neither the Roman catholic nor Methodist missionaries have done much towards reclaiming the Indian population, who are an idle, dissolute race, and very few of them can be induced to change their mode of life, or cultivate more than will absolutely keep them from starvation. The total abolition of the sale of intoxicating liquors has done much for the good of the whole community, white population as well as Indian; and so long as this abstinence (which can hardly be called voluntary) continues, the country will prosper. When this prohibition is withdrawn, and the intercourse with the world open, such is the character of the dissolute and only partially reformed American and Canadian settlers, that every evil must be anticipated, and the unfortunate Indian will be the first to suffer."

The Esquimaux occupy the country bordering on the Arctic Seas, Hudson's Bay and Strait, and the Labrador coast. The Indians roam over the country, in summer following the buffalo, deer, and other wild animals into the districts occupied by the Esquimaux, with whom they are generally in a state of hostility; and as the winter advances, they return towards the more southern regions. A district termed the Saskatchewan, east of the Rocky Mountains, as large as England, contains only 16,730 Indians and Half-breeds, viz.: Crees, 3,500; Assiniboines, 4,060; Blackfeet, 2,100; Piegiens, 2,450; Blood Indians, 1,750; Sarcees, 350; Gros-Ventres, 2,100; Salteaux, 110; Half-breeds (a race whose fathers were Europeans, and mothers Indians), 280.

The following is a classification and distribution of the tribes occupying the country east of the Rocky mountains, and resorting upon occasion to the company's establishments:—

Mackenzie's River District.—The Copper Indians, inhabiting the country about this river; the Loucheux, or Quarrellers; the Hare Indians; the Dog-

rib Indians; the Strong-bow Indians, inhabiting Mackenzie's River district, and speaking different languages.

Athabasca and Isle à la Croix Districts.—The Chipewyans, and a few of the Cree tribe; inhabiting the country surrounding this lake, and between it and the Isle à la Croix District.

Peace River District.—The Beaver Indians, and a few Sauteaux from the Hainy Lake, inhabiting both sides of this river, and speaking a language different from that of the Chipewyans of Athabasca.

Upper part of the Saskatchewan District.—The Blackfeet Proper; the Blood Indians; the Piegiens; the Fall Indians; the Sarcees. All these tribes are generally termed Blackfeet, although they speak different languages, and have different customs and manners.

Lower part of the Saskatchewan District.—The Stone Indians, or Assiniboines; the Crees; the Sauteaux, or Ojibways. These three tribes are constantly at variance with the Blackfeet, and the whole eight depend on the chase for subsistence. They, i. e. the three tribes, extend their habitations also to the upper part of Red River and of Swan River.

York Factory, Oxford, Norway House, Cumberland, and lower part of Swan River District.—Mis-kee-Goose, or Swampy Indians. These also extend along the sea-coast to James's Bay. They evidently spring from the Crees, as their language is only a dialect of the Cree. There is said to be a mixture of the Sauteaux in their origin.

Churchill District.—Esquimaux; Chipewyans, and a few Swamp Indians, inhabiting the country to the north of Churchill.

The Indians in James's Bay are generally classed with the Mis-kee-goose, and inhabit the countries about Albany, Moose, and East Main.

Character of the Indian Population.—It is difficult to describe the character of the various tribes referred to in the preceding classifications; they have each some recognised difference, and are most of them in a constant state of warfare with each other. The Sarcees are said to be the boldest. All have horses and fire-arms; and horse-stealing is a favourite occupation with them. The Crees and Blackfeet have deadly feuds, and each combat with the Assiniboines. The small tribes are drawn into the contests of the larger, and are rarely at peace. Ambuscades, surprises by day or night, and treacherous massacres of the old and young, of women and the sick, constitute the moving interests of their lives. No hardships or inducements will make them settle and cultivate their land; and until they do so, it is almost hopeless to expect any Christian results from the humane efforts of the Hudson's Bay Company and the missionaries. The most degrading superstitions prevail; cunning is employed where force cannot be used in plunder; lying is systematic; woman is treated as a slave; and the wild Indian is, in many respects, more savage than the animals around him.

Christian Conduct and Beneficent Policy of the Hudson's Bay Company.—A careful examination of all available information, confirms me in believing, that the Hudson's Bay Company have well fulfilled the objects for which their charter was granted in 1670. Without any aid from the crown—without any drain upon the national exchequer—opposed by American, and even English rivalry—subject to plunder and devastation by the fleets and forces of the French and Russian governments—struggling against an inclement climate, in a sterile soil—shut out from maritime communication with England, except for a few months in the year—and amidst hosts of wild, warlike, and treacherous savages, the Hudson's Bay Company have acquired and maintained for England, by a sagacious and prudent policy, by honourable, and, above all, by Christian conduct, exclusive dominion over that portion of the North American continent which lies between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, north of the 49th degree of latitude, extending over more than three million square miles—(3,060,000.)

But for the Hudson's Bay Company, England would probably have been shut out from the Pacific, for, on the 5th of April, 1814, a convention was signed between the United States and Russia, (to which England was no party,) making the 54th parallel the boundary of their respective dominions. The settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company on the Columbia River and in the Oregon region defeated this project.

The American geographer and librarian to the United States' government, Mr. Greenhow, who ably vindicates the rights and claims of his own country, who is by no means favourably disposed to any claims of England on the continent of America, and who, as an American, is little inclined to approve of the conduct of an association whose interests he naturally considers opposed to those of his own countrymen, thus candidly expresses his views in 1844, when referring to the disputed territory of the Oregon, Columbia River, Vancouver's Island, &c.:—

"The British Ministers could have no counsellors better qualified to advise, or whose interests were more completely identified with those of the government, than the Hudson's Bay Company, who, representing in all respects the interests of Great Britain in North-West America, has indeed become a powerful body. The field of its operation was more than doubled by its union with the north-west company, and by the licence to trade, in exclusion of all other

British subjects, in the countries west of the Rocky Mountains, where the fur-bearing animals are more abundant than in any other part of the world; while the extension of the jurisdiction of the Canada courts over the whole division of the continent, to which its charters apply, and the appointment of its own agents as magistrates in those regions, gave all that could have been desired for the enforcement of its regulations. The arrangement made with the Russian-American Company, through the intervention of the two governments, secured to the Hudson's Bay Company the most advantageous limits in the north-west; and the position assumed by Great Britain, in the discussions with the United States respecting Oregon, were calculated to increase the confidence of the body in the strength of its tenure of that country, and to encourage greater efforts on its part to assure that tenure.

"The licence granted to the Hudson's Bay Company in 1821, expired in 1842, but another had been previously conceded, also for twenty-one years, containing some new and important provisions. Thus, the company was bound, under heavy penalties, to enforce the due execution of all criminal processes by the officers and other persons, legally empowered in all its territories; and to make and submit to the government such rules and regulations for the management of the trade with the Indians as should be effectual to prevent the sale and distribution of spirituous liquors among them, and to promote their moral and religious improvement. It is, moreover, declared in the grant, that nothing therein contained should authorise the company to claim the right of trade in any part of America, to the prejudice or exclusion of the people of 'any foreign states,' who may be entitled to trade there, in virtue of conventions between such states and Great Britain; and the government reserves to itself the right to establish within the territories included in the grant any colony or province, to annex any part of those territories to any existing colony or province, and to apply to such portion any form of civil government which might be deemed proper. Whether this last provision was introduced with some special and immediate object, or with a view to future contingencies, no means have as yet been afforded for determining. It is, however, certain that the British government insisted strongly on retaining the above-named privileges; and it is most probable, the Red River and the Columbia countries were in view at that time as the remainder of the territory, included in the grant and not possessed by the company in virtue of the charter of 1669, is of little value in any way. In addition to the assistance and protection thus received from the British government, the constitution of the Hudson's Bay Company is such as to secure the utmost degree of knowledge and prudence in its councils, and of readiness and exactness in the execution of its orders. Its affairs are superintended by a governor, a deputy-governor, and a committee of directors established at London, by whom all general orders and regulations are devised and issued, and all reports and accounts are examined and controlled. The proceedings of this body are enveloped in profound secrecy, and the communications made to the government in writing, which are likely to be published, are expressed in terms of studied caution, and afford only the details absolutely required.

• Mr. Greenhow is wrong so far as the Red River territory is concerned, as that region is not included in the exclusive licence of trade in 1838.—[R. M. M.]

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"The trade in America is especially directed by a resident governor, who occasionally visits and inspects all the principal posts—under him, as officers, are chief factors, chief traders, and clerks, for the most part natives of North Britain, and an army of regular servants, employed as hunters, traders, voyageurs, &c., nearly all of them Canadians, or half-breeds. The number of all these persons is small, when compared with the duties they have to perform; but the manner in which they are admitted into the service, and the training to which they are subjected, are such as to render their efficiency and their devotion to the general interests as great as possible. The strictest discipline, regularity, and economy, are enforced in every part of the company's territories; and the magistrates appointed under the Act of Parliament for the preservation of tranquillity, are seldom called to exercise their functions, except in the settlement of trifling disputes.

"In the treatment of the aborigines of the countries under its control, the Hudson's Bay Company appears to have admirably reconciled policy with humanity. The prohibition to supply those people with ardent spirits, appears to be rigidly enforced. Schools for the instruction of the native children are established at all the principal trading posts, each of which also contains an hospital for sick Indians, and offers employment for those who are disposed to work, whilst hunting cannot be carried on. Missionaries of various sects are encouraged to endeavour to convert them to christianity, and to induce them to adopt the usages of civilized life, so far as may be consistent with the nature of the labours required for their support; and attempts are made, at great expense, to collect the Indians in villages, on tracts where the climate and soil are most favourable for agriculture. Particular care is extended to the education of the half-breed children, the offspring of the marriage or concubinage of the traders with the Indian women, who are retained and bred as far as possible among the white people, and are employed, whenever they are found capable, in the service of the company. As there are few or no white women in those territories, except in the Red River settlements, it may be readily seen that the half-breeds must in a short time form a large and important portion of the native population.

"The conduct of the Hudson's Bay Company in these respects is certainly worthy of commendation, it is, however, to be observed, that of the whole territory placed under the authority of that body, only a few small portions are capable of being rendered productive by agriculture. From the remainder nothing of value can be obtained, excepting furs, and those articles can be procured in greater quantities, and at less cost, by the labour of the Indians, than by any other means.

"The course observed by the Hudson's Bay Company towards American citizens in the territory west of the Rocky Mountains, has been equally unexceptionable and yet equally politic. All the missionaries and emigrants from the United States, and, indeed, all strangers from whatever countries they might come, were received at the establishments of the company on the Columbia with the utmost kindness and hospitality, and they were aided in the prosecution of their objects, so far and so long as those objects were not commercial. But no sooner did any one, unconnected with the company, attempt to hunt, or to trap, or to trade with the natives, than all the force of the body was immediately directed towards him. There

is no evidence, or well-founded suspicion, that the Hudson's Bay agents have ever resorted, directly or indirectly, to violence, in order to defeat the efforts of such rivals. And, indeed, those means would have been superfluous, whilst the company enjoys such great advantages in its organization, its wealth, and the minute knowledge of the country, and influence over the natives, possessed by its agents. Wherever an American trading post has been established, or an American party has been engaged in trade on the Columbia, there appeared a Hudson's Bay agent at the head of a number of hunters, or with a large stock of merchandise, or a large amount of specie in hand, which were offered for skins on terms much more favourable to the Indians than those possessed by the citizens of the United States; and the latter, in consequence, finding their labours vain, were soon obliged to retire from the field. Even without employing such extraordinary and expensive means, the British traders, receiving their goods in the Columbia by sea from London, free from duty, can always undersell the Americans, who must transport their merchandise 2,000 miles over and from the frontiers of the United States, where the articles best adapted for the trade have previously been subjected to an import duty. In pursuance of the same system, the company endeavours, and generally with success, to prevent the vessels of the United States from obtaining cargoes on the north-west coasts of America, though the mariners of all nations, when thrown upon the coasts by shipwreck, or by other misfortunes, have uniformly received shelter and protection at its posts and factories."—*History of Oregon and California*, published by Murray, London. 1844.

The grounds on which the exclusive licence of trade was granted in 1838 are stated by the Board of Trade (letter, 2nd June, 1837,) to be on account of the liberal and enlightened policy which has generally distinguished the Hudson's Bay Company; and the "peculiar nature of the fur trade seems to justify, and even to recommend, the adoption of the principle of conferring exclusive privileges upon a great body engaged in it, however objectionable such a principle appears with reference to commercial affairs generally."

The Bishop of Montreal, on his visit to the Red River settlement in 1844, says, that the arrangements for his doing so were all made for him "in the most excellent manner, and with the most careful attention, by direction of Sir G. Simpson, the governor of the Hudson's Bay territories." The bishop speaks of "the kindness and attention which he everywhere experienced at the hands of the Hudson's Bay Company's servants." At page 166 of his journal, he says, "It is the rule of the company's posts that the factor or trader in charge, where there is no clergyman, should read the church service on Sundays to the persons who can be gathered to hear it. The company have forwarded the erection of churches at Red River." And at page 164, his lordship remarks—"If

I may judge from the kindness shown personally to myself, the facilities given to my operations, and the respect paid to my office by *all* the gentlemen representing the company's interest with whom I had to do, that body must be presumed well affected to the cause; and that its several proceedings are conducted on a liberal scale, I have some occasion to notice." The late Mr. Leith, who was a resident factor of the company, bequeathed £10,000 toward the propagation of the gospel in the scene of his former pursuits.

A branch of the Church Missionary Society was established at Red River settlement in 1822, under the Rev. Mr. West, who was appointed chaplain to the company. In 1824, the Rev. Mr. Jones was appointed chaplain to the company, and the Bishop of Montreal says, "he met with much countenance and support from the authorities of the Hudson's Bay Company," who, in 1834, "gave a munificent grant towards the construction of another Protestant church." The building was opened for divine service on the 26th of November, 1834. It is capable of accommodating, comfortably, 700 people, and 1,000 might find room without being overcrowded. Five day-schools, containing about 400 children, had been established; besides 2 seminaries, affording board, lodging, and education to 25 young ladies, and 30 young gentlemen, children of the gentlemen engaged in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. At the different Sunday-schools, also, nearly 300 received religious instruction. The orderly demeanour, moral conduct, and religious habits of all classes, were satisfactory and cheering.

Commodore Wilkes, speaking of Fort Vancouver, on the Columbia river, says—

"There are extensive kitchens and apartments for the half-breed and Indian children that the company have taken to bring up and educate. Of these, there are now 23 boys and 15 girls, who claim the particular attention of Dr. McLaughlin and Mrs. Douglas. A teacher is employed for the boys, who superintends them not only in school, but in the field and garden. During my stay, an examination took place, and although the pupils did not prove very expert at their reading and writing, yet we had sufficient evidence that they had made some improvement, and were in a fair way to acquire the rudiments. Some allowance was to be made for the boys, who had been constantly in the field under their teacher for a few months past. Dr. McLaughlin estimated the labour of four of these small boys as equal to that of a man. It was an interesting sight, to see these poor little cast-away fellows, of all shades of colour, from the pure Indian to that of the white, thus snatched away from the vices and idleness of the savage. They all speak both English and French; they are also instructed in religious exercises, in which I thought

they appeared more proficient than in their other studies. These they are instructed in on Sunday, on which day they attend divine worship twice. They were a ruddy set of boys, and when at work had a busy appearance: they had planted and raised 600 bushels of potatoes, and, from what Dr. McLaughlin said to me, fully maintain themselves. The girls are equally well cared for, and taught by a female, with whom they live and work."

The commodore bears "testimony that the officers of the company are exerting themselves to check vice, and encourage morality and religion, in a very marked manner." He adds, "I saw no instance in which vice was tolerated in any degree. I have, indeed, reason to believe, from the discipline and the example of the superiors, that the whole establishment is a pattern of good order and correct deportment. This remark not only extends to this establishment, but as far as our opportunities went, (and all but two of the posts were visited,) the same good order prevails throughout the country. Wherever the operations of the company extend, they have opened the way to future emigration, provided the means necessary for the success of emigrants, and rendered its peaceful occupation an easy and cheap task."

Lieutenant-colonel Crofton, who recently commanded a detachment of Her Majesty's troops in the Hudson's Bay territories, and was appointed a commissioner of inquiry into the truth of allegations made against the company, thus reports in a letter to the Secretary of State, on 12th February, 1848: "I unhesitatingly assert, that the government of the Hudson's Bay Company is mild and protective, and admirably adapted, in my opinion, for the state of society existing in Prince Rupert's Land, where Indians, half-breeds, and Europeans are happily governed, and live protected by laws which I know were mercifully and impartially administered by Mr. Thom, the recorder, and by the magistrates of the land."

The present governor-general of Canada, the Earl of Elgin, one of the most upright and able servants of the crown, and whose judgment is of the highest order, thus expresses himself in a reply to the inquiries of the Secretary of State for the colonies:—"I am bound to state that the result of the inquiries I have made is highly favourable to the company, and has left on my mind the impression, that the authority which they exercise over the vast and inhospitable region subject to their jurisdiction is, on the whole, very advantageous to the Indians."

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BOOK VII.—VANCOUVER'S ISLAND.

POSITION, EXTENT, ASPECT, GOVERNMENT, &c.

This fine island is situated on the W. coast of America, between $48^{\circ} 17'$ and $50^{\circ} 55'$ N. lat., and $123^{\circ} 10'$ and $128^{\circ} 30'$ W. long., and is in length about 290 miles, with an average breadth of 55 miles. We know little of the interior of the country: it is said to be intersected by high mountain ranges, with extensive prairies, a rich soil, abundantly timbered with oak, pine, &c., and well watered, adapted for the cultivation of wheat and other grain, with a fine climate, and many excellent harbours. The shores of the island are generally high, steep, rocky, and covered with wood. Fort Victoria, the chief establishment, in $48^{\circ} 26'$ N. lat., and $123^{\circ} 9'$ W. long., is on the south shore, near the head of a narrow inlet, termed the Port of Camosack, or Cammusan, around which there is a range of plains to an extent of nearly six square miles, containing valuable tillage and pasture land, and water power for flour or saw mills. The fort is a square enclosure of 100 yards, surrounded by cedar pickets, 20 feet in height, having octagonal bastions, containing each six 6-pounder guns at the N.E. and S.W. angles. The buildings are made of square timber, forming three sides of an oblong. About three miles distant, and nearly connected by a small inlet, is the harbour of Esquimault, which is described to be capable of receiving ships of the line, and of which a very favourable opinion has been expressed by captain George Thomas Gordon, R.N., who was directed by admiral Seymour to examine the coal mines on Vancouver's Island. The coal is found in seams 10 to 18 inches thick, some below high-water mark, others 60 feet above the sea; and Captain Gordon, by the aid of the natives, obtained 60 tons of coal, equal, if taken several feet from the surface, to the best Scotch coal, at an average cost of four shillings per ton. The coal yields coke in the proportion of 52 per cent. The extent of the coal-field inland is supposed to be considerable; and it stretches over all

the N.E. coast. There is excellent anchorage in the neighbourhood, which may be approached by way of Cape Scott, thus avoiding the difficult and dangerous navigation of Sir George Scymour's Narrows and Johnstone's Straits.

The natives, or Indians, on the island, amount probably to 10,000 in number. Captain Gordon says, "They are a fine race of men, and appear industrious and friendly, but are much addicted to thieving." When they ascertained that he wanted coal, they entered into his views, became very active, and surprised him by procuring, with the rude implements of hatchets and wedges, a large quantity of coal.

Vancouver's Island has been granted, by letters patent, dated 13th January, 1849, in free and common socage, to the Hudson's Bay Company, under certain conditions, one of which provides, that unless a settlement of resident colonists, emigrants from the United Kingdom, be established within five years, the grant shall be revoked. The ports and harbours are free to all nations, either trading or seeking shelter therein: the fisheries around the island are open to every freeholder: all minerals found belong to the company, who have the right of digging for the same, compensation being made to the owner of the soil for any injury done to the surface; but the owners of land have the privilege of working, for their own benefit, any coal mine that may be on his land; on payment of a royalty of 2s. 6d. per ton. The Hudson's Bay Company sell the land, in free and common socage, in lots of not less than 20 acres, at £1 per acre. Purchasers of more than 20 acres are bound to take out with them, to Vancouver's Island, 5 single men, or 3 married couples for every 100 acres. The island is to be divided, where practicable, into districts of from 5 to 10 square miles. A portion, equal to one-eighth of the quantity of land sold, is to be set apart for the main-

tenance of ministers of religion. Thus, in a district of 10 square miles, containing 6,400 acres, supposing 5,120 acres sold, the minister would be entitled to 640 acres, the remaining 640 acres would be available for roads, site for church and churchyard, schools, or other public purposes.

With the view of enabling the ministers to bring their lands into cultivation, a free passage to be granted to such a number of persons as a settler having an equal quantity of land would be required to take out, the cost to be paid out of the fund held in trust for the benefit of the colony. The several apportionments for purposes of religion to be conveyed to, and to be held by, the governor and council, in trust for the parties appointed to perform the clerical duties of the respective districts.

The most material provisions for the government of the colony are as follows:—The governor is appointed by the crown, with a council of seven members, likewise so appointed. He is authorised to call assemblies, to be elected by the inhabitants holding 20 acres of freehold land. For this purpose, it is left to the discretion of the governor to fix the number of representatives, and to divide the island into electoral districts if he shall think such division necessary. The governor will have the usual powers of proroguing or dissolving such assembly. Laws will be passed by the governor, council, and assembly. The legislature, thus constituted, will have full power to impose taxes and to regulate the affairs of the island, and to modify its institutions, subject to the usual control of the crown.

The position, resources, and climate of Vancouver's Island eminently adapt it for being the Britain of the Northern Pacific; there is no port between the straits of Juan de Fuca and San Francisco: it is within a week's sail of California; within double that distance from the Sandwich Islands, with which a thriving trade has already been established; five days' voyage from Sitka or New Archangel, the head-quarters of the Russian Fur Company's settlements, where large supplies of provision are required; and it is within three weeks' steaming distance of Japan, with whose rich islands it is to be hoped the British government will soon be enabled to re-establish the friendly commercial intercourse that existed at the beginning of the seventeenth century. This commanding position justifies the expectation that Vancouver's Island will become not only a

valuable agricultural settlement, but also a rich commercial *entrepot* for British trade and industry.

The formation of a canal and of a railroad across the Isthmus of Panama will materially facilitate the colonization of Vancouver's Island. Whether it be possible to establish regular and rapid communication, *via* Canada, with the coast of the Pacific, remains yet to be ascertained; but great credit is due to Major Robert Carmichael Smyth, for the talent, energy, and patriotism with which he has laboured to promote a "British colonial railway communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific." By whatever means Vancouver's Island be brought within half its present distance from England, great good cannot fail to accrue to the colony and to the parent state.

Steam communication between England and British America.—Mr. Samuel Cunard, of Halifax, Nova Scotia, having entered into a contract with the British government for the conveyance of the mails between Great Britain and North America, the British and North American Royal Mail Steam-packet Company was originated, and an amended contract entered into with the government by Mr. Cunard, Mr. George Burns, of Glasgow, and Mr. David Mac Iver, of Liverpool, in 1839, to carry the mails twice a month, during eight months in summer, and once a month during four months in winter, between Liverpool and Halifax, in Nova Scotia, and Boston in the United States and Quebec, by a branch steamer on the St. Lawrence. Previously to the commencement of the service under this contract, in July, 1840, there were other steamers, viz.—the *Sirius*, *Great Western*, *British Queen*, *President*, *Royal William*, and *Liverpool*, some of which had crossed the Atlantic with more or less success, but only in the summer; and the capability of steamers to traverse the North Atlantic with regularity in winter, as well as summer, remained to be proved. Indeed, from the experience acquired by the voyages of the before-named vessels, it was generally held to be impracticable for steamers to navigate that ocean during the winter months, not in point of regularity alone, but of safety. The result of the winter passages of this company's vessels was highly satisfactory; and the government, with a view to the public benefit, entered into an extension of the contract, commencing 1st January, 1848.

with Messrs. Samuel Cunard, George Burns, and Charles Mac Iver (vice Mr. David Mac Iver, deceased,) for an increased service. A steam ship of the first class now sails from Liverpool to Boston and New York alternately every second Saturday during the months of December, January, February, and March, and to the same ports alternately on every Saturday during the other eight months of the year. The experience of the past nine years has amply proved, that with such steamers as are employed by this company, and under proper management, the North Atlantic Ocean may be navigated at all seasons of the year with speed, regularity, and safety. Previous to the commencement of the service by this company, the mails were carried between Falmouth and Halifax by gun brigs, which cost the country a great deal of money, as well as loss of lives annually. *The contract price paid by the government for the present line of steamers has been met by the postages, and an immensely better mode of conveyance has been obtained, at a great saving of expense to the country, and without loss of life to a single passenger.* The contractors were only originally bound to furnish vessels of 300 horse power, but they supplied vessels of 1,200 tons burthen, and upwards of 400 horse power. On the extension of their contract they were bound to supply vessels of 400 horse power, but they are now employing vessels of 700 horse power, and are building still larger ones to be propelled by engines of 800 horse power. The burthen of the new vessels will be about 2,000 tons.

The contract payment for the first service described above, was £90,000 until the Quebec branch was dropt, when it was reduced to £85,000. The present payment for the extended service is £145,000 per annum, for which nine ocean steamers are kept.

It may here not be out of place to mention, that in consequence of the repeal of the British Navigation laws, it has been announced by the secretary of the United States Treasury, that from and after the 1st of January, 1850, British ships and their cargoes will be admitted into the ports of the United States, on the same terms as to duties, imports, and charges, as vessels of the United States and their cargoes. In consequence of this change, the British and North American Royal Mail Steam Packet Company have originated a branch line of Steamers, to convey French goods from Havre, to their steamers at Liverpool, to be

taken on from thence to Boston and New York.

Great credit and liberal national support are due to the enterprising and successful establishers of this important line of communication between the old and the new world; they have, in fact, bridged over the wide Atlantic; made the trackless and tempestuous deep a safe highway the whole year through; and most materially contributed to the promotion of friendly intercourse, of social improvement, and of commercial and financial relations between Europe and America. To the British Colonies on, and adjacent to, the western continent, the advantages of weekly intercourse with the parent and governing state are manifold, and of incalculable value; but for the "Cunard" Line of steamers, (which arrive at their respective stations with more regularity than the London and York mail coach did twenty years ago) the maintenance of the North American provinces as an integral part of the British Empire, would have been a matter of great difficulty; and although the United States government is now endeavouring to establish a distinct line of mail steamers from New York to Bremen, I doubt not that the superiority will continue, as heretofore, with the British line, and that it will deserve the cordial and effective support of Her Majesty's government.

Connected with an efficient transatlantic communication is the establishment of a railroad on the seaboard of British America, which shall connect the whole of the North American provinces, and form a continuous steam transit from the sea-coast to Lake Huron; one line has been projected from Halifax, *via* New Brunswick to Quebec, to which I have referred in the details of Nova Scotia: another line is now actually in progress, termed the *St. Andrew's and Quebec Railroad*, and is an undertaking carried on under the auspices of the Earl Fitzwilliam, Lord Ashburton, and other gentlemen in England, combined with the principal merchants and inhabitants resident at St. Andrew's and other points through which the line proceeds. The line will afford, at all seasons of the year, a direct and uninterrupted communication between the Canadas and Atlantic, and will be the only one the colonists will possess through British territory.

Its political importance can therefore be scarcely overrated, when viewed either as a high road to the mother country, or as cou-

necting the different provinces in a common bond of communication; and, in a mercantile point of view, it cannot be considered otherwise than as one of the best investments of the day, having been stamped with the patronage and approval of the late Lord Ashburton, even before the company received their recent magnificent grant of land; Lord Ashburton's acquaintance with the country, from his settlement of the boundary dispute, renders his testimony of great value. The grant consists of all the unallotted lands comprised within a belt of five miles on each side of the railway, and, by a certificate from the surveyor-general, contains upwards of 200,000 acres of some of the best land in the province, which, in consequence, doubles, or even quadruples the profitable character of the undertaking.

The company is incorporated by several acts of the local legislature, confirmed by the queen in council, and in addition to the above grant of land, has obtained privileges and advantages which cannot be claimed by any similar body, viz., 6 per cent. on the English capital guaranteed by the legislature for 25 years, which is chargeable on the revenues of the province. The Company have the power to make branch lines or extensions to, or in any part of the colony without applying for fresh legislative acts, and with the same facilities as to land and the free use of crown materials as on the trunk line.

It is officially stated to me that the capital of the Association is divided into 8,000 shares of £20 each: half of which, termed class "A" are to be allotted in England, and the remainder, called class "B" reserved for allocation in New Brunswick; the majority of these shares are already appropriated, and the works are proceeding with vigour, and it is confidently hoped that the first section to Woodstock, (80 miles) will be open in two years. Offices for the payment of dividends and the transaction of such business as must be conducted in England, are established at No. 10, Parliament Street, Westminster; and the interests of the English stockholders are guarded by a board of directors, resident in this country, whose sanction is necessary to all measures proposed by the local directors in New Brunswick. The land belonging to the company, which has hitherto been of comparatively trifling value, will, when the railway passes through it, most probably

be eagerly sought after, and at once command a considerably enhanced price, which will far more than bring back their whole capital to the shareholders; as, for instance, there are 8,000 shares of £20 each, and if the 200,000 acres are divided amongst those 8,000 shares, it will give 25 acres per share, which, taken at the low figure of £1 per acre, gives £25 per share, or £5 per share more than the actual capital subscribed; and although the land will be disposed of, and thus return their capital to the shareholders, yet still the line will remain their property, and, from the provincial guarantee of interest, retain a comparative high value in the market.

This is a strong inducement offered to the English capitalist, the use of whose money will only in the first instance be required, but to the homeless wanderer from the British shores, its benefits will prove incomparably greater, as employment will be afforded him on the railway until he has had time to clear his land and become acquainted with the requirements of his novel mode of life; and by this he will be spared that fearful season of suspense which now intervenes between the first clearing of the land and the period when it yields its return.

Some of the shareholders have agreed to give a tenth of their land for church, school, and hospital purposes. Thus will nuclei be formed, around which a population will collect in a healthy and legitimate manner, and blessings, both present and prospective, be secured to all future emigrants.

Table of the portions of time in which European intelligence, telegraph and mails, passengers and freight, by sea and railroad, may reach Montreal. By Admiral W. F. Owen.

For Montreal.	Intelligence by telegraph will be delayed by intervening time at sea	Mails, passengers, and freight, by sea and railroad.
	Hours.	Hours.
Debarbing at—		Sea. Rail.
Cansau or Whitehaven	0	0 + 25 = 25
Halifax, Nova Scotia . . .	12	12 + 24 = 36
Portland, Maine	48	48 + 0 = 48
Boston, Massachusetts . . .	62	62 + 11 = 73
New York	70	70 + 13 = 83

If space had permitted, a chapter would have been given on emigration to the British North American colonies; on the advantages they possess as integral portions of a vast empire; and on the general state of those provinces as fields for the reception of the accumulating labouring population of the United Kingdom. This section must, however, be reserved for the close of the work.

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Hours.
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12 + 24 = 36
48 + 0 = 48
66 + 11 = 77
70 + 13 = 83

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