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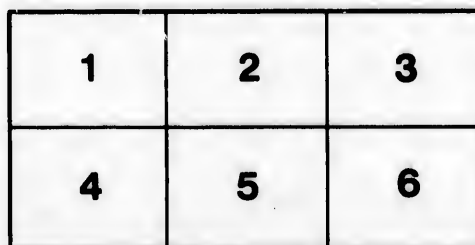
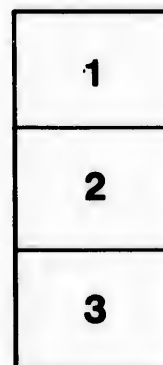
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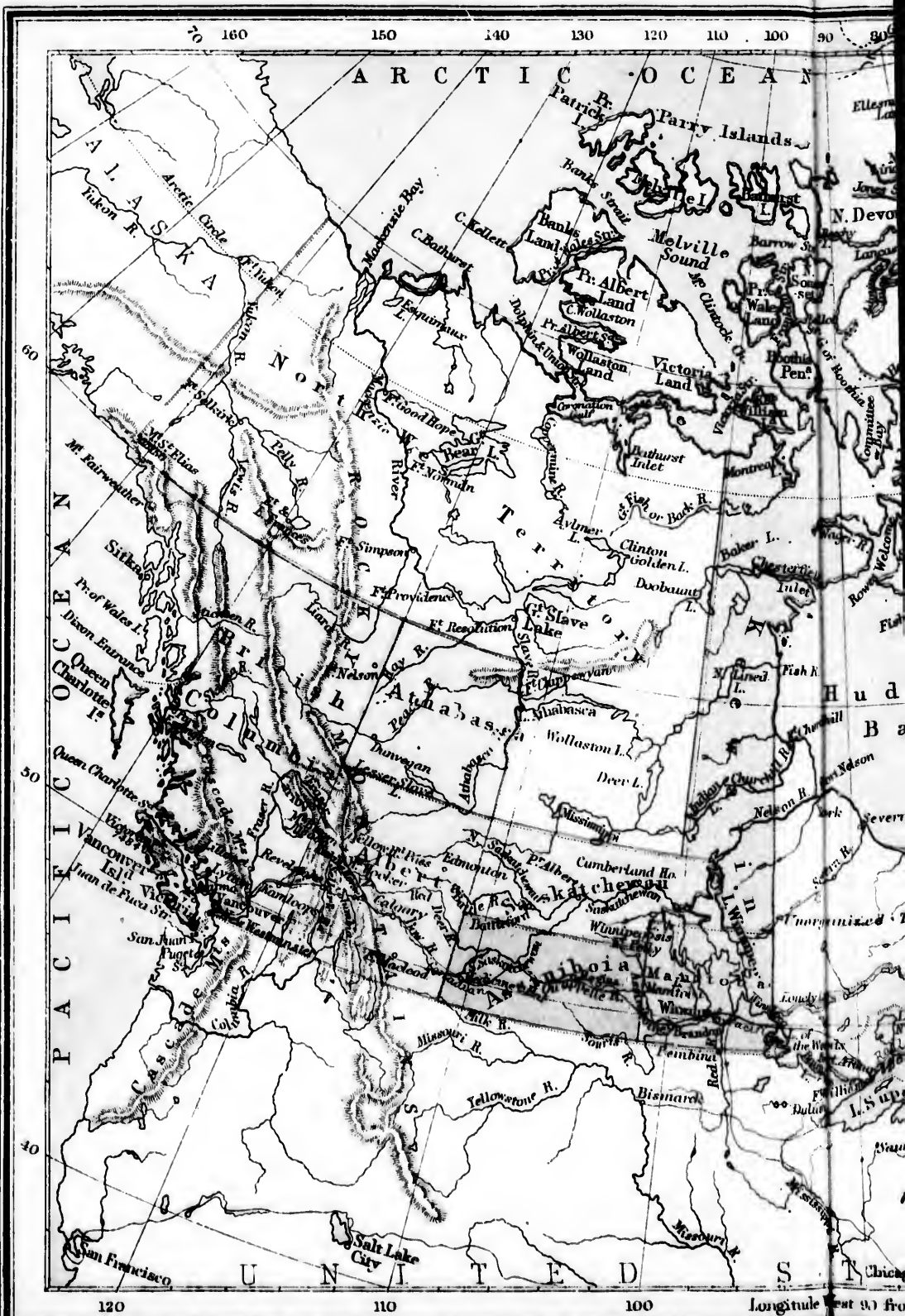
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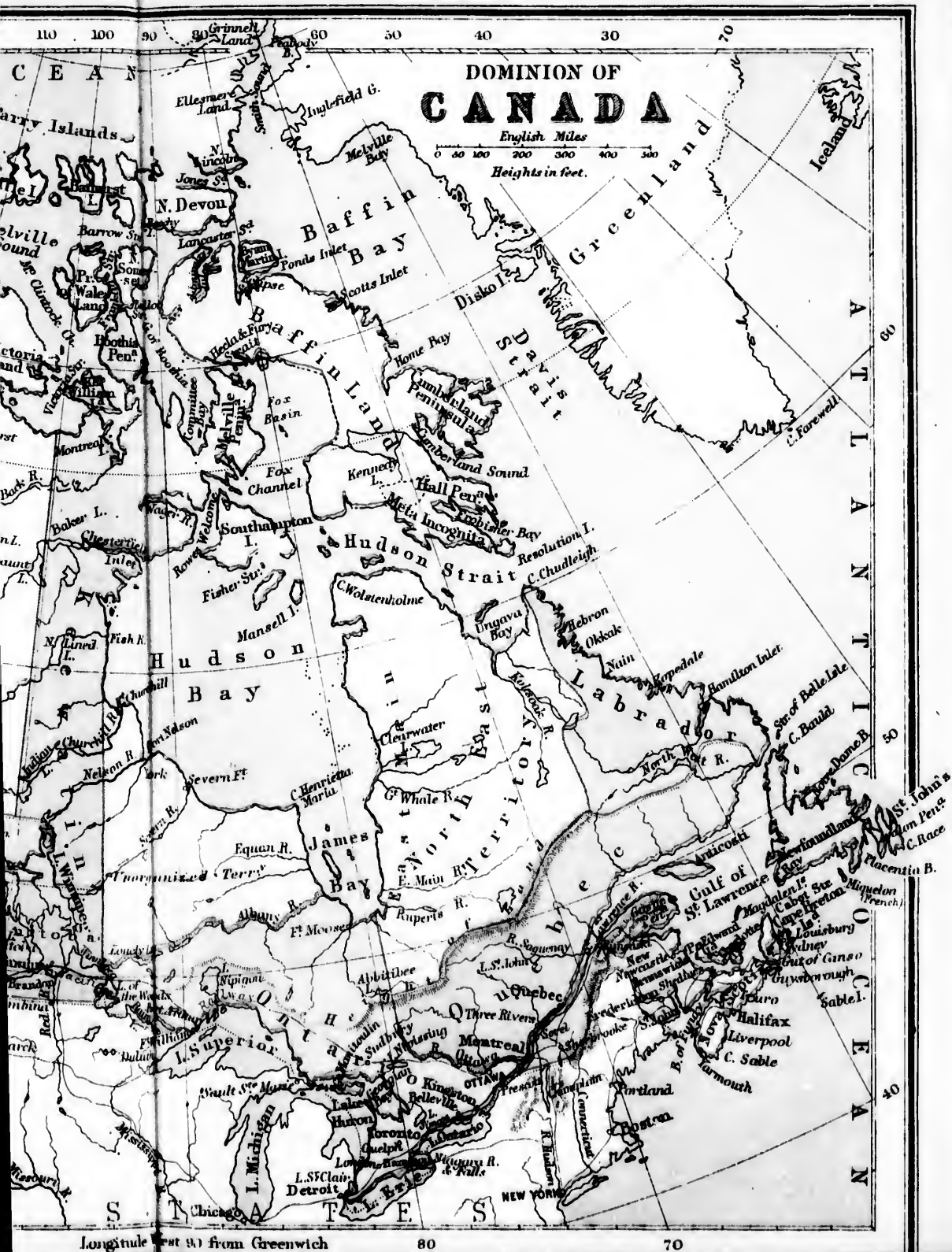
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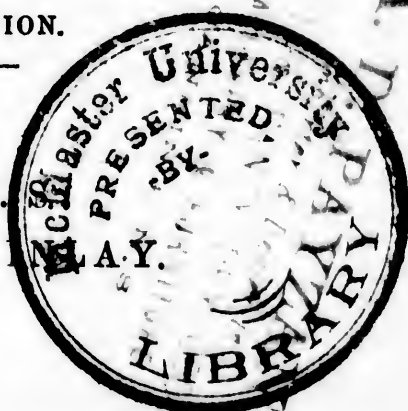
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Prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction for use in the Schools
in Nova Scotia.

REVISED EDITION.

HALIFAX, N. S.
A. & W. MACKINLAY.
1894.



Entered according to Act of Parliament of Canada, in the year 1882,

By A. & W. MACKINLAY,

In the Office of the Minister of Agriculture, at Ottawa.

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HISTORY

OF

BRITISH AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

1. THIS book is designed to furnish an outline of the history of British America. Written for use in the public schools of Nova Scotia, it treats with greater fullness of events connected with that province. The term *British America* is now but little used. Prior to 1867 it was the general name of a number of separate provinces owning a common allegiance to the crown of Great Britain. At the present time, the territory denoted by it, except the island of Newfoundland, forms the Dominion of Canada.

The Dominion of Canada. — 2. The Dominion of Canada stretches from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific. On the south it is bounded by the United States, from which it is in part separated by the great North American Lakes; northward, it loses itself in the frozen islands of the Arctic Ocean. This vast territory, embracing nearly three and a half millions of square miles, is composed of several distinct parts held together by the central government of the Dominion. On the east, washed by the Atlantic, are the Maritime Provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island; farther west,

lying along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, are the Provinces of Quebec and Ontario, formerly called *Lower* and *Upper Canada*; in the interior are the newly settled Province of Manitoba and the Great North-West Territory; in the extreme west, on the Pacific slope, is the Province of British Columbia.

3. Canada is the home of about five millions of people engaged in the various pursuits of civilized life. The inhabitants are generally of British origin, and speak the English language; but there are many whose forefathers came from France, and who speak the French language. In the Province of Quebec these constitute a large majority of the people. The County of Lunenburg, in Nova Scotia, and several counties in Ontario are chiefly peopled by descendants of German settlers. Besides, there are many Indians of whose ancestry and origin we have no knowledge. These Indians are scattered through all the provinces; but they are most numerous in the North-West Territory and British Columbia, where they still outnumber the white people.

4. At the present time most of the inhabitants of the Dominion live in the older provinces — Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, and Ontario. The population of Manitoba and the North-West Territory is, however, rapidly increasing through immigration from the eastern provinces, the British Islands, and various countries in Europe. The railways of the Dominion, having a united length of about 14,000 miles, connect all the principal places. They also afford an unbroken route of travel from ocean to ocean, a distance of about 3,800 miles.

5. Some countries are very old; they have been inhabited by civilized people many hundreds of years, and their

history extends far back into the shadowy past, until we find it hard to tell what is truth or what is fable in the mingled story. Even the oldest of the provinces of the Dominion are comparatively new countries. Four hundred years ago their history had not begun. There were then no cities, nor roads, nor civilized people in all the land. Nearly the whole country was one unbroken forest. The inhabitants were savages, scattered thinly over the country. How they came here, or who were their ancestors, nobody can tell. They had no written language. They lived in rude, cone-shaped wigwams, formed of poles covered with the bark of trees, or in low huts built of logs. A few of them cultivated Indian corn in a rude sort of way; but most of them lived by hunting and fishing. They were a roving people, remaining but a short time in one place; and when they travelled they went on foot, or glided along the rivers and lakes in light bark canoes. The different tribes were often engaged in cruel wars with each other, their weapons being bows and arrows, clubs, and stone hatchets. Before battle they held a grand feast, followed by wild war-dances, during which they filled the air with hideous shouts and yells.

6. In these early times our forefathers lived far away to the eastward, beyond the Atlantic Ocean, — most of them in the British Islands; but some of them in France or Germany, or in some other country of Europe. They had never heard of such a land as America, and they had little idea of the extent of the vast ocean that lay to the west of Europe. People then had very strange notions respecting the earth; even the most learned men knew very little of its form and size. Most persons thought the earth was flat, like a vast plain, bordered all around its edges by the ocean.

India. — 7. Far away to the east, in the South of Asia, is a wonderful land called India. This country was then, as now, noted for its rich and varied products. For centuries the merchants of Southern and Western Europe had carried on trade with India, bringing its rich treasures overland by caravans to the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, and thence by water to their own country.

Southwards. — 8. The great continent of Africa, stretching far away to the south of Europe, was almost as much an unknown land in these early times as America itself. Only the northern portion of it, lying next to the Mediterranean, was visited by Europeans. But towards the end of the fifteenth century Spanish and Portuguese navigators, striking out more boldly from the shores which bordered their country, sailed southerly along the west of Africa, going farther south year after year, until at last they came to the extreme south of the continent. One result of these daring voyages into unknown waters was to incite to similar enterprises in other directions.

Westward. — 9. Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa in Italy, and one of the greatest men of his time, now startled the people of Western Europe by proposing to reach India by a westerly voyage across the Atlantic Ocean. By careful study he had arrived at the correct conclusion that the earth was spherical in form, though he erroneously under-estimated its size. Columbus was poor, and his proposal seemed so absurd that he had much difficulty in obtaining the assistance necessary for his undertaking. Portugal, Genoa, and Venice were all appealed to in vain. Finally, however, receiving aid from Ferdinand and Isabella, the king and queen of Spain, in the month of August, 1492, with high hopes, he began his voyage over the great unexplored western waters. He

had three ships, two of which were very small and without decks; even the largest would in our day be thought small for such a voyage. The crews numbered one hundred and twenty. It was hard to find sailors willing to risk their lives in so perilous an enterprise, and criminals were taken from the public prisons to make up the number. As the little fleet sailed out of the harbor of Palos, on the west of Portugal, the friends of those on board, standing on the shore, gave them a sad farewell, never expecting to see them again.

America Discovered. — 10. After a long voyage, rendered more difficult by a mutinous crew, Columbus came to that group of islands now known as the Bahamas. He visited Cuba and other neighboring islands, and then returned to Spain without discovering the great continent which he had so nearly reached. Columbus supposed that the islands which he had discovered were outliers of the famous Indies on the south of Asia. They were, indeed, far enough from India; but afterwards, when the error was discovered, they were called the West Indies. Columbus made several subsequent voyages across the Atlantic, and in 1497 he discovered the mainland of South America.

The Northmen. — 11. America had indeed been visited by the Northmen from Norway five hundred years before the celebrated voyage of Columbus. These people were noted sailors, and loved to rove over the sea, of which, through their skill and daring, they were for centuries the virtual rulers. At first they established a colony in Iceland; then some of them went to Greenland, from which they found their way to Newfoundland and Labrador. For many years they continued to visit America, coasting southerly as far as Massachusetts. To one of these countries which they visited, supposed to be Nova Scotia, they gave the name *Markland* or the *Forest Country*. From some cause, not very well known, the Northmen after a time ceased to visit America, and their discoveries and adventures were forgotten, or were remembered only in tale and song.

The Cabots. — 12. Tidings of the wonderful discovery made by Columbus soon set all Western Europe astir. Many adventurers crossed the Atlantic, eager to find treasures of gold in the New World, or bent on discovering a westerly passage to India. Among the early explorers who crossed the Atlantic were John Cabot and his son Sebastian. John Cabot was a native of Italy ; he removed thence to England, making his home in Bristol, then the chief seaport town of the country. Under royal charter, granted by Henry VII., who was somewhat envious of the glory accruing to the King of Spain from the discovery of Columbus, the Cabots set sail on their first voyage in May, 1497, in search of a westerly route to China and India. All lands that might be discovered were to belong to the English crown ; the Cabots were to have the sole right to trade with such countries, and they were to give one-fifth of the profits to the King of England. At the end of three months the Cabots returned, having visited, not the sunny Indies of the East, but the stormy shores of Labrador and Newfoundland. In the following year the Cabots made a second voyage, exploring part of the coast of North America. As nothing further is told of John Cabot, it is supposed that he died on this voyage.

The Cabots have the honor of discovering the mainland of North America ; and on the rights arising out of this discovery England afterwards based her claim to the country.

13. For over a century little progress was made in settling or exploring the vast country which the Cabots had claimed for the crown of England. The extensive fishing-grounds off the coast of Newfoundland and Cape Breton soon became noted ; and every year, at the return of spring, came thither crowds of fishing crafts from France, Eng-

land, Spain, and Portugal. But in the autumn they sailed away again, leaving the Indians undisturbed in their forest home.

14. It is said that in 1518 a Frenchman, named Baron de Lery, visited Sable Island, off the southeast of Nova Scotia. A few wild cattle, found many years after on the island, were supposed to have sprung from stock left by De Lery. In 1524 Verrazani, sent out by the King of France, sailed along the coast from Carolina to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, naming the country New France, and claiming it in behalf of his sovereign.

Mexico and South America. — 15. The Spaniards were more active in exploring and taking possession of the countries in the South. The avaricious Cortes marched into Mexico with his cruel soldiers, plundered the rich capital of the Aztecs, and with base cruelty and treachery seized their old king, Montezuma. Then, farther south, into the great land which we now call South America, went another Spaniard, Pizarro, conquering and pillaging Peru, the rich empire of the Incas. There is the story also of Balboa, who, crossing the Isthmus of Panama, fell on his knees with humble thanksgiving as he first beheld the Pacific Ocean from the mountain heights; and then, hastening forward, plunged into the waters and took possession of the great ocean in the name of his sovereign.

CHAPTER II.

DISCOVERY OF THE ST. LAWRENCE AND CANADA.

Cartier's First Voyage. — 16. Francis I., of France, thought that the New World was not intended for Spain alone, and he resolved to secure a portion for himself. Accordingly he sent Jacques Cartier, a noted navigator of

St. Malo, on a voyage of discovery. Cartier visited Newfoundland, sailed through the Strait of Belle Isle, entered Bay Chaleur, and landed on the Peninsula of Gaspé. Here he erected a high wooden cross, bearing the *fleur de lis*, and an inscription showing that he claimed the country for the King of France. Some Indians, whom he took home with him, told him of a large river, not far distant, which flowed for hundreds of miles through a vast forest country.

Cartier's Second Voyage. — 17. In the following year Cartier came again and sailed up the river St. Lawrence, which the Indians had described. Where the city of Quebec now stands he found the Indian village of Stadacona. The old chief Donacona, who belonged to a tribe called Algonquins, gave him a kindly greeting, and welcomed him to his home. In the river near this place is a beautiful island, now called Orleans, to which Cartier gave the name *Isle Bacchus*, on account of the abundance of wild grapes which it produced.

18. Sailing up the river to the island on which Montreal now stands, Cartier found a larger Indian village, called Hochelaga, which belonged to the Hurons. These Indians also treated Cartier kindly, regarding him as a superior being, who could heal the sick by a touch of his hand.

19. Hochelaga, at the time of Cartier's visit, consisted of about fifty rudely built wooden lodges, each divided into several rooms and occupied by different families. The whole village was surrounded by a palisade, formed of the trunks of trees set upright in the ground. In the neighborhood were patches of Indian corn, which the Hurons used as food.

20. Cartier spent the winter near Stadacona. His men, accustomed to the genial climate of France, suffered greatly from cold, exposure, and bad food, so that before

spring twenty-five of them died of scurvy. Many others would probably have died had not the Indians showed them how to prepare a remedy from the bark of the spruce-fir. In the spring Cartier returned to France, taking with him Donacona and several Indian warriors.

Cartier's Third Voyage. — 21. Cartier's visits to Canada were intended to prepare the way for settlement, but his plans were interrupted for five years by wars in France. The King now appointed Sieur de Roberval Viceroy of Canada, and authorized him to establish colonies in his dominion. Cartier, second in authority, with the title of captain-general, was sent out first with five ships, bearing colonists and supplies. The Indians of Stadacona, remembering how their chiefs, who in the mean time had died in France, had been carried away, were less friendly than formerly. Cartier and his colonists spent a miserable winter at Cap Rouge, a little above Quebec. Cold and disease, and the hostility of the natives awakened in his people anxious longings for the home they had left beyond the ocean. So, when spring came, Cartier, gathering the survivors on board his vessels, sailed for France.

22. Roberval was now on his way to Canada. He met Cartier at Newfoundland, and insisted on his returning ; but Cartier had little thought of this, so, quietly departing at night, he avoided further opportunity. Roberval went on to Cap Rouge, where his experiences were similar to those of Cartier, only made worse by the rebellion of his colonists. In the spring, as soon as the ice moved out of the river, he broke up his settlement and sailed for France.

23. For over fifty years no further attempts were made by the French to establish a colony in Canada. Meanwhile, however, the fisheries on the coasts and the fur-trade with the Indians were sources of wealth to various companies and private individuals. Many navigators, also, were eagerly exploring the bays and inlets of the American coast in search of some passage to China and India.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh. **24.** Among the early English visitors to Amer-

ica was Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who, in the year 1583, took formal possession of Newfoundland in the name of his sovereign, Queen Elizabeth. A half-brother of his, Sir Walter Raleigh, also took possession of a large tract of country, which he named Virginia, in honor of the Queen. Sir Walter is said to have been the first to introduce tobacco and the potato into England, both of which are native plants of America. It is told of Sir Walter, that, on one occasion, his servant saw him smoking, and, thinking he was on fire, dashed a pitcher of water over him.

De la Roche. 1596, A. D. — 25. Another fruitless effort to found a colony in America was made by the Marquis de la Roche. The King of France made this nobleman Viceroy of Canada, Acadie, and the adjoining territory, giving him the sole right to carry on the fur-trade within the bounds of his dominion. As it was difficult to find volunteers for the enterprise, the Marquis was allowed to take convicts from the public prisons of France to make up the required number of colonists. While in search of a suitable place for a settlement, he left forty convicts on Sable Island. Shortly after, encountering a violent storm, he was driven back to the coast of France. He returned home, where, through the influence of rivals, his commission was cancelled, and he himself was thrown into prison. For seven long years, while De la Roche lay in prison, the wretched men on Sable Island strove with cold and hunger and disease, and with one another, until only twelve survived. Then the King, learning how they had been left, sent Chetodel, De la Roche's pilot, to bring home those that might be found alive. On their return they were brought into the presence of the King, who was so touched by their wretched appearance and the story of their sufferings that he pardoned their past offences, and bestowed on each a gift of fifty crowns.

26. The fur-trade with the Indians of Canada was a source of great wealth to the merchants of the sea-port towns of France, especially those of Dieppe, Rochelle, Rouen, and St. Malo. In exchange for their furs, which

brought a high price in the European markets, the traders gave the Indians such things as knives, hatchets, cloth, and brandy. The fur-traders were not satisfied with having the traffic free and open to all, but a company or even a single person would obtain from the King a charter securing to the holder sole right to trade with the Indians within a specified territory. Those who obtained charters usually came under obligations to establish a certain number of colonists in their territory. These obligations they very generally disregarded. Their chief aim was not the prosperity of the colony, but pecuniary gain from the fur-traffic. Charters were obtained through influence at court, but were often cancelled by the counter influence of a rival.

Chauvin and Pontgravé. 1599, A. D. — 27. The next adventurers after De la Roche were Chauvin of Rouen and Pontgravé of St. Malo. They promised to establish five hundred colonists in Canada. Their principal trading-post was Tadoussac, at the mouth of the Saguenay. They derived large profits from the fur-trade; but, as regards the colonists, they brought out only sixteen, and these they sadly neglected.

De Chaste and Champlain. 1603, A. D. — 28. De Chaste of Dieppe succeeded Chauvin, and a new company was formed to carry on the fur-trade. But the principal man that we have to speak of now is Samuel Champlain, who was sent out in company with Pontgravé to explore the country. Champlain, a man of courteous bearing and noble character, was an officer in the French navy. As we shall see farther on, he did more to promote the settlement of Canada than all the adventurers who preceded him. In fact, he is properly said to be the founder of the French dominion in Canada. In his first voyage

he ascended the St. Lawrence as far as the La Chine Rapids, so called by him because he thought he was on the route to China. Stadacona and Hochelaga were now deserted. At Cap Rouge the ruins of an old fort alone testified of Cartier's attempt to found a colony.

Indian Tribes. — 29. The Indians of Canada and the neighboring territory belonged to three principal divisions or nations, — the Algonquins, the Hurons, and the Iroquois. Each of these included various tribes. The Algonquins occupied the country north of the St. Lawrence, from near its mouth to the St. Maurice River. The Micmacs of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick belonged to the Algonquin family. The Hurons inhabited the country west of that held by the Algonquins, including the territory now forming the Province of Ontario. They cultivated the soil to some extent, and wandered about less than the Algonquins. Their headquarters were in the neighborhood of Georgian Bay and Lake Simcoe. The Iroquois lived on the south of Lake Ontario and the Upper St. Lawrence, in the territory now forming the State of New York. In the early times they included five tribes, — Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas, from which they came to be called the "Five Nations." At a later period they were joined by the Tuscaroras from South Carolina, and were designated the "Six Nations."

CHAPTER III.

THE FIRST CHAPTER IN THE HISTORY OF ACADIE.

De Monts. 1604, A. D. — 30. With this chapter begins the history of Nova Scotia. As yet, however, the country is not known by this name. The French, who had for a long time carried on the fur-trade with the native Micmacs, called it Acadie, — an Indian word, said to mean abundance. It included within its limits the territory now forming New Brunswick, and also a part of what is now the State of Maine.

31. In the year following Champlain's first voyage a new company was formed in France for trade and colonization. Sieur de Monts, the new viceroy, received the King's commission, giving him command of the territory from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Hudson, with special privileges of trade for ten years. In the month of April, De Monts' little fleet set sail from Havre de Grace on the north of France. There were in all four vessels, — two for trade proceeded to Tadoussac; the other two bore colonists for Acadie. On board the latter were men of varied rank, from titled noblemen to the humble mechanic and day-laborer. In religion some were Roman Catholics; others, including De Monts, were Huguenots, or French Protestants. Besides De Monts, other leading men on board were Champlain, Pontgravé, and Poutrincourt.

32. After being roughly tossed on the ocean for a month, De Monts arrived off the south coast of Nova Scotia. He then sailed westerly, exploring some of the more important harbors as he passed along. At one place, near Liverpool, he found a fellow-countryman, named Rossignol, engaged in buying furs from the Indians. De Monts seized his vessel and cargo, and then, perhaps to warn others against similar trespass, he called the place Rossignol.

Port Royal. — 33. Having visited several places on the south coast of Nova Scotia, De Monts and his party sailed into the Bay of Fundy, then called French Bay. Passing through a narrow gateway in the rocky wall which skirts the coast, they entered the beautiful water now known as Annapolis Basin. At the head of the basin, where land and water mingle all their charms, a site was selected for a town. This place, honored with the kingly

name *Port Royal*, De Monts bestowed on his friend Poutrincourt.

34. Leaving Port Royal, De Monts sailed farther up the bay into Minas Basin. In this neighborhood he found copper ore, and also a pretty blue stone, probably an amethyst, specimens of which are still obtained at Blomidon. On his return to France De Monts presented the stone to the King. Returning along the north shore of the bay, on the 24th of June he entered a large river, which, in honor of the day, he called the *St. John*.

35. Having spent the summer in exploring, the adventurers took up their winter quarters on a small island in Passamaquoddy Bay, near the mouth of the St. Croix River. Here they erected rude dwellings, and made other preparations for a season of the severity of which they had yet but little idea. It was a gloomy winter. The cold was intense, fuel and water were scarce, and their food was bad. Then disease broke out, of which thirty-five of their number fell victims.

Port Royal Founded. 1605, A. D. — 36. Early in the spring De Monts went farther west along the coast; but no place pleased so well as Port Royal. Thither, accordingly, all returned, bringing with them the materials of which their winter-houses had been made. But scarcely were they settled when bad news came from France. The King, influenced by De Monts' rivals, had deprived him of his office and his charter. De Monts and Poutrincourt at once proceeded to France, leaving Pontgravé in charge of the little colony.

37. In the following spring Poutrincourt returned to Port Royal, bringing supplies and new colonists. His arrival was opportune, for Pontgravé, despairing of his return, was about to break up the settlement and set out

for France. It was a joyous reunion. To make the occasion more merry, Poutrincourt tapped a hogshead of wine which he had brought with him from France, and invited all to partake.

38. Among those who came with Poutrincourt was a young barrister named Marc Lescarbot. He was a man of varied talents, and soon became quite noted in his way. He encouraged the cultivation of the soil, looked after the public health, and wrote a history of the colony. Lescarbot also wrote poetry after a fashion, with which he was wont to amuse his friends. Perhaps he best earned the thanks of the colony by building a water-power mill for making flour, in place of the hand-mills previously used.

The Good Time. — 39. The following winter passed pleasantly. Fifteen of the leading men formed a club, which they named the *Order of the Good Time*. Day about each member held the office of Grand Master, whose duty it was to provide for the table, and to furnish amusement during his day of office. Each, as his turn came to play host, strove to outdo his predecessor. Welcome guests at the festive board were the Indian chiefs, most honored of whom was old Memberton, whose head was now whitened by a hundred winters. After dinner the members of the club smoked their lobster-claw pipes and listened to the old chief's Indian tales.

The Colony Broken Up. 1607, A. D. — 40. The company by which the colony at Port Royal was sustained had looked chiefly to the fur-trade for its profits. Its exclusive right to this trade having been taken away, the expenses of the colony exceeded the income. Poutrincourt was accordingly instructed to break up the settlement and return to France. Reluctantly the colonists left their new-made home, and much did their Indian friends grieve over their departure.

The Return. 1610, A. D. — 41. At the end of three

years Poutrincourt returned to Port Royal with a new band of settlers. He had promised the King of France aid in teaching the Indians, and he brought out a priest for this work. The aged chief Memberton was the first convert, and through his influence many of his people soon became Christians. Wishing to retain the favor of the King, Poutrincourt sent his son Biencourt to France to report the success of his missionary work. Biencourt returned the following year, and with him came Claude de la Tour and his son Charles, both of whom were afterwards noted in the history of Acadie.

Jamestown.—**42.** Although the English claimed North America in virtue of Cabot's discovery, they were slow in taking actual possession of the country. Over a hundred years had passed away, and no permanent settlement had been made. But now, two years after the founding of Port Royal, an English colony, called Jamestown, was established on the Atlantic coast, in the country now known as the State of Virginia. The hero of the settlement was Captain John Smith, whose adventures and hair-breadth escapes, together with the touching story of the beautiful, tender-hearted Indian girl Pocahontas, give an air of romance to the history of the place.

Port Royal Destroyed. 1614, A. D.—**43.** King James I. gave the company which formed the settlement of Jamestown a charter of a vast territory which was named Virginia, extending northerly to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The French at Port Royal were therefore looked upon as intruders, and Captain James Argall was sent from Jamestown to drive them away. Unable to defend themselves, the French fled to the woods, and Argall, having plundered Port Royal and laid it in ruins, sailed away. Poutrincourt was at this

time in France. In the following year he visited Port Royal once more, but he soon returned to France, where, a few months after, he fell in battle. His son, Biencourt, who had adopted the free, wild life of the Indians, was now made governor of the country. He again, on his death, was succeeded by Charles de la Tour.

Nova Scotia. 1621, A. D. — 44. At the court of James I. of England was a Scottish knight, Sir William Alexander, who was ambitious of founding a colony in America. To carry out this object he obtained from the King a grant of an extensive territory, which in the royal charter was named Nova Scotia. It was the same country that the French had called Acadie. Four years later, to aid Sir William in settling the country, Charles I., who had succeeded to the English throne, created an order of knighthood, styled the Knights Baronets of Nova Scotia. The Order included one hundred and fifty knights, each of whom was to receive a grant of land in Nova Scotia on condition of establishing a certain number of colonists in the country. Through Sir William's efforts a small Scotch settlement was formed opposite Port Royal, in the section of country now called Granville; but Sir William's plans for colonizing Nova Scotia did not prosper. The French still claimed the country, and, in addition to their colony at Port Royal, Charles de la Tour held an important post at Fort Louis, near Cape Sable.

CHAPTER IV.

CANADA UNDER CHAMPLAIN.

Founding of Quebec. 1608, A. D. — 45. On his return to France from Port Royal, De Monts secured a renewal of his charter for the period of one year. Influenced by Champlain, he chose Canada as the field of operation. With the threefold object of making money by the fur-trade, forming a colony, and discovering a route to China, he fitted out an expedition, which he placed under the command of Champlain. Early in the spring of 1608 this gallant pioneer, accompanied by Pontgravé, arrived in the St. Lawrence. While the latter remained at Tadoussac to look after the fur-trade, Champlain went farther up the river in search of a suitable place for settlement. The place which pleased him best was the high river-bank where the St. Charles meets the St. Lawrence. Here, on the site of the Indian Stadacona, he erected a few houses, which he protected by a fort and palisade, constructed of unhewn timber. Such was the rude beginning of the city and fortifications of Quebec, which, in the course of years, became, and still continues to be, the strongest fortress in America.

46. During the following winter Champlain had many difficulties. A plot was formed among his men to kill him. This being discovered, the ringleader was hanged, and other leaders in the conspiracy were sent in irons to France. Then the scurvy broke out in his little colony and sadly diminished its numbers.

Indian Wars. — 47. For some time a fierce Indian war had prevailed among the Indian tribes, — the Iroquois on

On the one side, the Hurons and Algonquins on the other. Champlain unwisely interfered in the quarrel, espousing the cause of the Algonquins, his nearest neighbors. This course provoked the deep resentment of the Iroquois, and led to those cruel Indian and French wars which long disturbed the progress of the country.

48. On the map you may notice that the River Richelieu flows into the St. Lawrence from the south. Following up this river you will see Lake Champlain, a beautiful sheet of water which perpetuates the name of the great pioneer of Canada. Still farther on is Lake George. Along these waters, known as the *Gateway of Canada*, the warlike Iroquois were wont in light canoes to penetrate the country of their enemies. By this route the Algonquins now conducted their powerful ally. On the shores of Lake George, Champlain fought his first battle with the Iroquois, over whom he gained an easy victory. It was a more difficult task to restrain the fierce passions of the Algonquins, who, in spite of the remonstrances of Champlain, subjected their captives to the most cruel tortures.

The Site of Montreal Selected. 1611, A. D.

49. Champlain thought it desirable to form a settlement farther up the St. Lawrence than Quebec. He chose a site near Hochelaga, where Montreal is now situated. Little more, however, was done at this place for thirty years. Continuing his explorations, Champlain made long and perilous journeys through the forests of the interior. On one occasion he travelled many days up the Ottawa River, or the River of the Algonquins, as it was called, in fruitless search of a great inland sea, of whose existence near the sources of the river he had been assured by a fellow-countryman.

The First Missionaries in Canada. 1615, A. D. — 50. Returning from France, whither he had gone to look after the interests of his colony, Champlain brought with him four priests of an order of monks known as *Récollets*, distinguished for the strictness of their rules, and receiving their name from their habit of religious contemplation. These were the first of a noble band of Catholic missionaries whose labors and sufferings for the conversion of the Indians have secured for them the highest admiration.

Visit to the Great Lakes, and War with the Iroquois. 51. The rapids of the St. Lawrence had prevented Champlain from exploring the upper portion of this river; nor had the great lakes from which the river flows yet been visited by white men. The occasion which now led Champlain to visit these western waters was an expedition against the Iroquois, on the south of Lake Ontario. The route by which he travelled was long and arduous. It was arranged that he should meet his Indian allies in the Huron country, between Nottawasaga Bay and Lake Simcoe. With four or five companions he went up the Ottawa, rowing against the strong current and carrying the canoes around the rapids. Leaving the river, he crossed to Lake Nipissing and passed down French River to Georgian Bay, finally arriving safe among the Hurons.

52. Nowhere among the savages had Champlain seen such marks of civilization as in these Huron settlements. Here were fields of Indian corn, pumpkins, and other cultivated crops. The villages, consisting of comfortable houses, were surrounded by palisades. The population was variously estimated at from ten to thirty thousand.

53. The warriors were collected at a village near where Orillia now stands, and joined Champlain in his march against the Iroquois. They travelled by stream and lake

to Quinté Bay, and thence across Lake Ontario to the country of the enemy. The Iroquois, retiring to their headquarters, took shelter behind their palisades and other strong defences, from which they beat back their assailants. Failing in their first attack, Champlain's allies became discouraged, and, in spite of his remonstrance, gave up the contest. They had promised to send him down the St. Lawrence to Montreal. This they now refused to do, and even to furnish him with boats for the journey. Champlain, compelled to return to the country of the Hurons, spent the long winter in hunting with the Indians, and in visiting their different settlements around Lake Huron. In the spring, after a tedious journey of forty days, he made his way back to Quebec. There was great rejoicing over his return ; for his people had given him up for lost.

54. It would be a long and profitless story to tell of all Champlain's Indian wars and other difficulties ; of his repeated visits to France to keep alive the interest in his colony ; of the various French noblemen who held in turn the office of lieutenant-general ; and of the rival companies by whose disputes and conflicting policies the settlement of the country was seriously retarded. A new order of things was plainly needed.

The Company of One Hundred Associates. 1627, A. D. 55. The great statesman Cardinal Richelieu was at this time the chief adviser of the King of France. Through his influence old charters were cancelled, and the Company of One Hundred Associates was formed, under whose power a vast country, from Florida to Hudson Bay, was placed. Within the limits of their charter, the Company had the sole right of trade and fishing, except the cod and whale fisheries. In return for this monopoly the

Company was pledged to establish six thousand colonists in the country within fifteen years, and to provide for the support of Catholic clergymen in each settlement. Champlain was appointed governor of this great dominion.

Disasters. 1627-29, A. D. — 56. Trouble came to Champlain and New France, as his dominion was called, at the very dawn of this new era. France and England were at war. Sir William Alexander, who, as we have seen, was at this time trying to establish the power of the English in Nova Scotia, thought the occasion favorable for driving out the French. So, with the consent of the King, he fitted out a small fleet for this purpose, giving the command to David Kirke, a Huguenot refugee. Kirke made an easy conquest of Port Royal, and then sailed for the St. Lawrence. Having burned Tadoussac, he sent messengers to Champlain, demanding the surrender of Quebec. Although his provisions and ammunition were scanty, the brave Governor concealed his weakness and returned a haughty refusal. Champlain was dependent on the company in France for his supplies, the arrival of which he was anxiously expecting. But Kirke, who continued cruising in the gulf, intercepted the transports, and the colony was reduced to the greatest distress from scarcity of food. Kirke now renewed his demand for the surrender of Quebec, anchoring his war-ships before the city. Resistance being useless, Champlain surrendered the town, which was placed under the command of Louis Kirke, a brother of David Kirke.

Claude de la Tour. — 57. On board one of the vessels captured by Kirke was Claude de la Tour. Taken to England as a prisoner of war, he was soon on friendly terms with his captors, and was ready to unite his fortune with theirs. He married a lady of the English

court, and received from the King the title of Knight Baronet of Nova Scotia. He also secured the same honor for his son Charles, who still held Fort Louis, near Cape Sable, in Nova Scotia, promising on his behalf immediate submission to the crown of England. Fitted out with two armed vessels, La Tour, accompanied by his wife, sailed for Nova Scotia. He had, however, miscalculated his influence over his son. Charles could be moved neither by English honors nor by paternal entreaty or threatening; and when his father tried the power of shot and shell, the fort proved as unyielding as its commander. Claude was now in trouble. From England he could expect only disgrace; from France a traitor's punishment. Hard fortune compelled him to accept from his son a home at Cape Sable, outside the fort, which he was not allowed to enter.

The Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye. 1632, A. D.

58. All Sir William Alexander's efforts to colonize Nova Scotia, his knights baronets, and his conquests went for nothing. By a treaty between England and France, signed at St. Germain-en-Laye, Canada, Acadie, and Cape Breton were ceded to France.

Isaac Razilli was now appointed Governor of Acadie; and under him were two lieutenants, Charles de la Tour in the Peninsula, and D'Aulnay Charnisé in the district north of the Bay of Fundy. On Razilli's death, which occurred soon after, his lieutenants succeeded to the government, each in his own district.

Champlain's Death. — 59. The year after the treaty Champlain returned to Quebec, bringing with him many new colonists. With his accustomed energy he devoted himself to the welfare of the country; but the period of his life now remaining was short. On Christmas Day, 1635, about two years after his return, this greatest and best of the early explorers of Canada died.

CHAPTER V.

FRENCH QUARRELS IN ACADIE.

60. DURING twenty-two years from the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, the French enjoyed undisturbed possession of Nova Scotia. The history of the period relates chiefly to the quarrels of the rival governors, — Charnisé and Charles de la Tour. Charnisé was grasping and unscrupulous. He wanted the whole of Acadie; and in his efforts to gain this object he was favored by the King of France. He followed up a petty warfare against his rival until he succeeded in driving him from the field.

61. La Tour had his headquarters at Fort la Tour at the mouth of the river St. John, and Charnisé held Port Royal and Fort Louis in the Peninsula. Like a bird of prey, Charnisé was ever on the alert, ready to take advantage of his enemy's weakness. On one occasion, when provisions and war material were low at Fort la Tour, he entered the harbor with an armed fleet. Shortly after a vessel from France, bringing supplies for the fort, was seen coming up the bay. Warning signals were given to save her from falling into the hands of the enemy. When night came on, leaving the fort to the care of his men, La Tour, accompanied by his wife, went on board the vessel, and with all haste sailed for Boston to procure assistance. The Governor and Council of Massachusetts were unwilling to take part in the contest; but they gave La Tour permission to hire men and vessels. To obtain money for this purpose, La Tour mortgaged his estates in Acadie.

Returning with his hired force he easily put his enemy to flight, and compelled him to take shelter at Port Royal.

62. At another time, learning that La Tour was absent with many of his men, Charnisé hastened to besiege the fort. Madame La Tour, who was clever and brave, took command of her men, and for three days maintained a successful defence. When, betrayed by a Swiss sentry, she saw the enemy entering the fort, she rallied her little band and presented such a bold front that Charnisé, fearing defeat, proposed honorable terms of surrender. Thinking that she dealt with a man of honor, Madame La Tour commanded her men to lay down their arms and open the fortress gates. When Charnisé saw the defenceless condition, he charged Madame La Tour with having deceived him, and basely ordered all her garrison to be hung. One man alone purchased his life by acting as the executioner of his comrades, while Madame La Tour, with a halter around her neck, was compelled to witness the scene. The wretched spectacle was too much for her, and she died broken-hearted before her husband's return.

63. Ruined and hopeless, La Tour left the country. Nor did Charnisé long enjoy the fruits of his victory. He died three years after the defeat of his rival. He had gained his position at immense cost, and he left his estates greatly encumbered with debt. His principal creditor was Emmanuel le Borgne, a merchant of Rochelle, who, failing to secure payment of his claims, resolved to seize the Province of Acadie.

64. But now La Tour appears again on the scene. Good fortune is smiling upon him once more. He is again in favor with the court of France, and holds a royal commission as Governor of Acadie. He makes a romantic ending to the old feud by marrying Charnisé's

widow, and he has his home again in the fort at the mouth of the St. John.

65. Meanwhile Le Borgne established himself at Port Royal, and proceeded to enforce his claims to the whole country. He destroyed a little colony planted by Nicolas Denys at St. Peter's in Cape Breton, and carried off Denys himself a prisoner. He seized the fort at La Have, and placed his son in command. About to follow up his purpose by an attack on La Tour, he was himself compelled to yield to the English.

Port Royal taken by the English. 1654, A. D. **66.** The Puritans, both in Old and New England, had been dissatisfied with the cession of Nova Scotia to France in 1632. Oliver Cromwell, who now ruled England and who made his power felt at home and abroad, sent Colonel Sedgewick to recapture the country. Le Borgne, who was strongly intrenched at Port Royal, received with scorn Sedgewick's summons to surrender. But having lost his chief officer in an early engagement, and being himself unskilled in the art of war, he soon gave up the contest, and the English flag once more waved over the fort at Port Royal.

La Tour. — 67. Charles de La Tour had now outgrown the patriotism which had led him to scorn the appeals of his father and to refuse to be bought with English honors. He proceeded to London, and, basing his claims upon Sir William Alexander's grant to his father, petitioned Cromwell to reinstate him in his Acadian territory. His application was successful, Sir Thomas Temple and William Crowne being associated with him in Cromwell's commission. Shortly after, La Tour sold his right to Sir Thomas Temple, reserving the fort at St. John where he spent the remainder of his life.

Sir Thomas Temple. — 68. Temple did not disturb the French settlers in Acadie, nor did he take much interest in bringing in English colonists. His chief concern was the fur-trade, from which he expected large profits. To protect himself against intruders he spent large sums of money in repairing the forts of the country.

The Treaty of Breda. 1667, A. D. — 69. Temple's hopes of gain were not realized. Charles II. succeeded to the English throne, and setting little value on Acadie he was ready to yield to the demands of France for its restoration. The people of New England protested against the claims of France, and Sir Thomas Temple asserted his right; but the only effect of this opposition was a little delay in the transfer of the country. Acadie was ceded to France by the Treaty of Breda, and Temple was compelled to hand over the forts to the French governor, the Chevalier de Grand Fontaine.

CHAPTER VI.

RULE OF THE HUNDRED ASSOCIATES IN CANADA.

70. We have seen that the rule of the Hundred Associates was disturbed at its very beginning by Kirke's conquest, and that the death of Champlain occurred soon after the country was restored to them. Notwithstanding Champlain's devotion to its interests, his colony made little progress during his life. Those on whom he depended for assistance were more anxious to make money by the fur-trade than to advance the settlement of the country.

Besides, the French colonists were slow in learning to provide for themselves. They spent their time in trading with the Indians and in hunting, instead of in cutting away the forests and cultivating the soil. The principal settlements at the time of Champlain's death were at Quebec and Three Rivers, and the total number of colonists was only about two hundred and fifty.

1636, A. D. — 71. M. de Montmagny was the new Governor. He was distinguished for his religious enthusiasm, and for the strictness with which he enforced the rules of the Church. Great religious zeal was characteristic of the time. In France men of wealth were ready to give their money, and both the regular clergy and members of various religious orders, male and female, were eager to devote their lives, to mission work among the Indians of Canada. The company brought a new order of priests, called Jesuits, who toiled and suffered, and sacrificed even their lives, in striving to bring the savages under the influence of Christianity.

72. The Jesuits travelled through pathless forests, paddled their canoes along the rivers, or bore them on their backs over portages; they lodged in smoky, filthy wigwams with the Indians, suffered from cold and hunger, and many of them, falling into the hands of the Iroquois, were tortured and put to death in the most cruel manner. The mission to the Hurons in the remote settlements around the Western lakes was perhaps the most toilsome and perilous. The route by which the missionaries reached these settlements was that travelled by Champlain, by way of the Ottawa and Lake Nipissing.

73. Of those who came to Canada for mission work, two of the most distinguished were Madame de la Peltrie, a young widow of noble rank, who founded a convent for the training of Indian girls, and Mary Guyart,

or Mary of the Incarnation, who was appointed Lady Superior of the institution. Another noble lady founded a hospital for the sick, called the Hotel Dieu.

Founding of Montreal. 1642, A. D.—74. Montreal, now a great centre of trade, owes its origin to this spirit of missionary enterprise. An association was formed in France, called the *Société de Notre Dame de Montreal*, for missionary work in Canada. It was resolved to found a hospital and a seminary on the Island of Montreal, and make this place a centre of religious instruction among the Indians. The island was purchased, a large sum of money was subscribed to meet expenses, religious teachers were selected, and Sieur de Maisonneuve, a man of great courage and piety, was appointed governor of the mission station. About fifty colonists joined the enterprise. Remote from any white settlement and in the neighborhood of the hostile Iroquois, the post was a dangerous one. Montmagny tried to persuade Maisonneuve to take instead the Island of Orleans. "I will go to Montreal though every tree were an Iroquois," was the reply. Landing on the island, the devout leader and his companions fell on their knees and sang a thanksgiving hymn. Then followed an imposing religious service, ending with an invocation for Heaven's blessing on the enterprise. Thus, on May 18, 1642, was founded the mission of Ville Marie, which has since grown into the mercantile capital of the Dominion of Canada.

Hostility of the Iroquois. — 75. Every year the Iroquois were becoming more troublesome. Their usual route into Canada was by Lake Champlain and the Richelieu; sometimes, also, they came across the eastern end of Lake Ontario. They seldom ventured on open war, but lay in ambush along the routes of travel, or lurked in the forests near the settlements, watching for opportunities of falling upon some defenceless Frenchman. The colonists of Montreal were in the greatest danger.

If one ventured alone outside the fort, it was at the risk of his life. With horrid yells the savages sprang upon their victim, dragging him into the forest for cruel torture; or, striking him down, they hastily tore off his scalp and left the bleeding body where it fell. Sometimes only two or three Iroquois would be seen prowling around; but when the unsuspecting Frenchmen pursued them into the forest, suddenly hundreds of wild Indians started up from their hiding-places.

76. The Algonquins and Hurons, although aided by the French, were unable to cope with their more powerful enemies, the Five Nations. The Hurons were driven from their old hunting-grounds on the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa; and then their country around the Western lakes was invaded by the relentless Iroquois. It is impossible to give here the particulars of this savage warfare, — the burning of Huron villages, the cruel tortures inflicted on captives, the shocking deaths to which even peaceful missionaries of the Cross were subjected. One or two examples will sufficiently illustrate the brutality of these savages.

St. Joseph. 1648, A. D. — 77. St. Joseph, a Huron village of about two thousand inhabitants, was situated on the borders of Lake Simcoe, near where the town of Barrie now stands. The cunning Iroquois, taking advantage of the absence of the Huron warriors on a hunting excursion, rushed upon the defenceless people as they were assembling in their chapel for religious service. Père Daniel, who had for many years been their teacher and spiritual guide, could now only encourage them in their extremity with a few hasty words. "Fly, brothers," said he; "as for me, I must die here. We shall meet in heaven." And so it was. A shower of arrows and bullets pierced his breast, and he fell dead. Having completed their work of murder, the savages set fire to the chapel and flung Daniel's body into the flames.

St. Ignace. 1649, A. D. — 78. In the following year about a thousand Iroquois attacked the village of St. Ignace, situated near the site of the modern Orillia. A fearful massacre ensued. Some of the victims the cruel savages reserved for torture. Among these were the missionaries Brebœuf and Lalumière, who could have escaped, but they preferred to die with their people. Unmindful of themselves, they encouraged those around them to endure their sufferings with patience. The forti-

tude of the priests only enraged the Iroquois and stimulated their ingenuity to invent new modes of torture. They hacked their bodies, pulled out their finger-nails, and hung a collar of red-hot hatchets around their necks. Brebœuf, being more unyielding, excited their fiercest passions.



THE HURON MISSION.

Maddened by his words of comfort to his friends and of warning to themselves, they cut off his lips and thrust hot irons down his throat; then, in mockery of the rite of baptism, they tore off his scalp and poured boiling water on his head.

The Hurons abandon their Country. — 79. The once prosperous country of the Hurons was thus laid waste, and the persecuted people fled in all directions. For a time some of them sought refuge on the islands of Lake Huron; but everywhere they were pursued by the relentless foe, and those who escaped death from the hand of the savage were fast falling victims to famine and pesti-

lence. Overwhelmed with despair, they besought the Jesuits to take them to some place of safety. And so after much consultation and prayer, the missionaries gathered the scattered remnant and fled from the country. About three hundred Hurons came to Quebec and settled for a time on the Island of Orleans; afterwards they were removed to Lorette, near Quebec, where their descendants still live.

The English Colonies. — 80. Meanwhile the English had been forming settlements along the Atlantic coast. In 1620 a band of English emigrants, who are known in history as the "Pilgrim Fathers," landed at Plymouth and founded the colony of Massachusetts. A few years later others began the settlement of New Hampshire, Maine, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. These various colonies collectively were called "New England." The English settlers gave their attention chiefly to agricultural pursuits, and soon made their colonies self-supporting in so far as supply of food was concerned.

An Iroquois Invasion. 1660, A. D. — 81. The English colonists of New England proposed to the Governor of Canada that the colonies of England and France should take no part in the quarrels of the mother countries, but that they should trade with each other and live in peace. The Governor of Quebec refused to make any treaty unless the Iroquois were held as a common enemy. But to this the English would not agree, for the Iroquois were their friends and lived along their borders. When the Iroquois heard what the French had asked for, they resolved on revenge.

82. And now tidings came that twelve hundred savage warriors were coming to drive the French from Canada, and that many of them were already close upon Montreal,

advancing by the Ottawa River. All hearts were trembling for fear. A little band of seventeen resolved to drive back the foe or perish in the attempt. Dulac des Ormeaux, a young man of twenty-two, was the leader; and the others, like himself, were youthful. They prepared themselves as if for death, and took a solemn farewell; then set out in their canoes up the Ottawa to meet the enemy. On the way they were joined by forty-four Hurons from Quebec. The heroes took up their position behind a breastwork of logs near the Long Sault Rapids, and for eight days resisted their assailants, who outnumbered them twenty to one. The Iroquois were repulsed again and again; but each day Dulac saw his little force diminished in number and weakened in strength. Courage alone remained. Finally the enemy came up under thick wooden shields and cut their way into the fortress. Every Frenchman perished, and of the Hurons only four escaped to bear tidings of the heroic defence and the wretched slaughter. Montreal was saved. The Iroquois saw how Frenchmen could fight; their victory had cost them too dear, and they retreated to the forests.

Close of the Rule of the Hundred Associates. 1663, A. D. 83. We have little to say about the Hundred Associates, for really they did very little for Canada. They had failed to send out colonists, as they had agreed; and they criminally neglected to protect those who had settled in the country. In fact, they had cared for little else than the profits of the fur-trade. Towards the close of their rule a serious quarrel arose between the governor and the clergy respecting the liquor traffic. The Indians were fond of intoxicating drinks, and the traders found that by giving them brandy, — or *fire-water*, as the Indians called it, — they could make better bargains.

84. There was at this time in Canada a distinguished Catholic clergyman, then known as the Abbé Laval, but who was afterwards raised to the dignity of bishop: Bishop Laval was a man of great ability and zeal, and he strongly opposed the sale of liquor to the Indians. He visited France, and informed the King of the bad management of affairs in Canada. So, acting on the advice of Laval and others, the King cancelled the charter of the company and established a new form of government.

85. The year 1663 was noted for a succession of earthquakes in Canada. It is said that shocks were experienced at frequent intervals from February until August. Loud noises were heard; the ground was violently shaken; the roofs of the houses fell in; the trees swayed to and fro, and other strange things occurred which greatly terrified the inhabitants. It does not appear, however, that any lives were lost.

CHAPTER VII.

ROYAL GOVERNMENT.

1663, A. D. — 86. Canada was now under royal government; that is, under the direct control of the King, instead of a company of merchants. A supreme council was appointed, of which the three principal officers were the Governor, the Bishop, and the Intendant. The Governor commanded the forces and attended to the defence of the country; the Bishop superintended ecclesiastical affairs; the Intendant had charge of matters pertaining to law, justice, and public works. Though in rank below the Governor, the Intendant often had more to do in the management of the affairs of the colony. His position

was also more permanent than that of the Governor. In some matters the respective duties of these two officers were not clearly defined, and this often led to unseemly disputes between them.

New Officers. — 87. The first Governor under the new order of things was M. de Mesy, — a haughty, self-willed man, who quarrelled with the other members of the council and with the clergy. Bishop Laval made complaints against him to the King, but the trouble was soon ended by the death of De Mesy. He was succeeded by Sieur de Courcelles. The first Intendant was Jean Baptiste Talon, a man of distinguished abilities, who did much to improve the condition of the country. Talon encouraged the cultivation of the soil, so as to render the colony independent of France for its supply of food. He also persuaded the colonists to export fish to the West Indies, and to manufacture potash, coarse woollens, linens, and other domestic articles. Then he had small clearings made and houses built for new colonists, that they might have homes to go to on their arrival in Canada.

The Iroquois Punished. — 88. A year or two after the new order of things was established, the King of France sent out the Marquis de Tracy as viceroy of all the French possessions in America. During his stay in Canada he was supreme in both civil and military affairs. A regiment of veteran soldiers was also sent out from France. Shortly after their arrival a force of twelve hundred men set out from Quebec to invade the country of the Iroquois, proceeding by way of the Richelieu, Lake Champlain, and Lake George, and thence westerly for a hundred miles through the pathless forest. De Tracy, though now over seventy years of age and so ill with gout that he required to be carried on a litter, went as chief commander of the

expedition. The march was very difficult, and at one time provisions were so scarce that the soldiers were compelled to live on chestnuts obtained from the forest. At the approach of the French the Indians, who were of the tribe called Mohawks, fled to the forest. Having destroyed their villages and corn, De Tracy returned to Quebec before winter set in. The Indians suffered greatly during the winter from the loss of their houses and corn, and they felt the chastisement so severely that they gave the French no more trouble for twenty years.

Discovery of the Mississippi. 1673, A. D. — 89. The Jesuit missionaries preceded even the fur-traders in exploring the western country around Lakes Michigan and Huron. Government officers followed to assert the authority of the King of France. At a grand council of Indian chiefs, held at the mission station of Sault Ste. Marie, a royal commissioner received the Indian tribes of the West under the protection of King Louis XIV., and set up the arms of France on a cedar post. The vast country beyond the lakes was as yet untrodden by the feet of white men. At the council the Indians told of a great river far away, flowing through a country almost as level as the sea.

90. Encouraged by the Intendant Talon, two bold adventurers, — Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, and Joliette, a fur-trader of Quebec, accompanied by six men, — set out in search of the river. From Lake Michigan they made their way up Fox River in canoes; thence they crossed to the Wisconsin. Launching their little barks again they were borne onwards to the object of their search, — the Mississippi, the *Father of Waters*. As they descended the majestic river, a rich prospect greeted their admiring eyes. Stretching away to the distant

horizon were boundless prairies covered with tall grass and bright-hued flowers, the feeding-grounds of innumerable herds of buffalo. At the mouth of the Arkansas they turned back, leaving it for others to trace the river onwards to the ocean.

Frontenac. — 91. In the mean time Count de Frontenac had become Governor of Canada. He was a brave soldier, and was possessed of great energy and force of character. Indeed, with the exception perhaps of Champlain, he was the greatest of the French governors of Canada. During his rule the Indians were kept well in check, while trade prospered. Partly to guard the entrance of the St. Lawrence against the Iroquois, and partly to serve as a trading-post, he built Fort Cataraqui, afterwards called Fort Frontenac, where the city of Kingston is now situated. But, with all his good qualities, Frontenac was not a very agreeable man, and he had many enemies. He was hot-tempered and imperious. He treated the members of his council with scant courtesy, and gave little heed to their opinions, — always thinking his own way the best. The Intendant Talon returned to France. Bishop Laval and Frontenac frequently came into collision, the principal cause of disagreement being the liquor traffic with the Indians, which the Governor encouraged, despite the Bishop's strong opposition and fearless protests.

La Salle Explores the Mississippi 92. Joliette's story of his wonderful discovery was full of interest, and people wished to know more about the great river which he had found. Some thought that farther on in its course it turned away to the west and flowed into the Pacific Ocean. There was at this time living in Canada a young man named De la Salle, who was fond of adventure and ambitious of finding a

westerly route to India. When he heard of the Mississippi, he thought that this might be the long-sought passage, and he set out to explore it more fully. The first three years he spent around the great lakes, building vessels, establishing trading-posts, and buying furs from the Indians. The "Griffin," which he launched on Lake Erie in the summer of 1679, was the first vessel which sailed on the upper lakes. Finally proceeding down the Illinois River, La Salle reached the Mississippi, which he followed to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico. He claimed the country drained by the river for the crown of France, naming it *Louisiana*, in honor of Louis XIV.

93. Two years after, La Salle went by sea to the Gulf of Mexico to explore the river more fully and to establish a colony near its mouth. The expedition was unfortunate. The vessel bearing his supplies was cast away, and afterwards his men, suffering from exposure and hunger, became mutinous, and killed both La Salle and his nephew, Moranger.

Frontenac Recalled. -- 94. In the mean time affairs had been getting on badly at Quebec. Frontenac quarrelled constantly with the other members of the council, and gave great offence to the clergy by encouraging the liquor traffic with the Indians. Bishop Laval and others complained to the King, who finally recalled Frontenac and appointed La Barre governor in his stead.

Troubles with the Iroquois. -- 95. Soon after the recall of Frontenac the wars with the Iroquois began again. These hostilities were encouraged by the English, especially by the governor of the lately acquired colony of New York, who sought to draw away the fur-trade from the St. Lawrence to the Hudson. The King of France instructed the Governor of Canada to send him any strong men whom he might capture from the Iroquois to work on the royal galleys. But Governor La Barre

failed to take any prisoners ; indeed, he was compelled to make a disgraceful peace with the enemy. The next Governor, Denonville, in order to carry out the King's wishes, did a very shameful thing. Under pretence of wishing to make a treaty he invited Indian delegates to meet him at Fort Frontenac ; he then treacherously seized the chiefs who had visited him for this friendly purpose, to the number of about fifty, and sent them to France in irons. Denonville provoked the Iroquois still more by invading the territory of the Senecas. These insults brought the enraged Iroquois into Canada in such numbers that the Governor was glad to secure peace by promising to bring back their chiefs whom he had sent to France.

Kondiaronk kills the Peace. — 96. The Hurons, and other tribes who had been allies of the French, were much displeased at this treaty of peace with the Iroquois. Kondiaronk, the chief of the Hurons, who on account of his cunning was called "the rat," set himself to break up the treaty, or, as he expressed it, to "kill the peace." He waylaid the Iroquois delegates and took them prisoners. When they assured him that they were messengers of peace to the French, he replied that the French had sent him to seize them, professing great indignation at this treachery. To show his own disapproval of the act he set them all at liberty except one, whom he kept, as he alleged, on account of one of his men whom they had killed in trying to escape capture. He now hastened away to a distant French fort, and handed over his prisoner as a spy whom he had seized. The officer had not heard of the peace which had lately been concluded, and he proceeded to put the Iroquois to death. The prisoner protested that he was not a spy, but had come on an errand of peace, appealing to Kondiaronk

to confirm his statement. But the wily "rat" shook his head and said that he knew nothing of it; the fear of death had turned the fellow's brain. Then he set free an old Iroquois whom he had held as a prisoner, and sent him to tell his people of the baseness of the French in killing their chief.

Massacre of La Chine. 1689, A. D. — 97. In vain did Denonville assure the enraged Iroquois that he had nothing to do in this ill treatment of their delegates. Bent on revenge, swiftly and silently they came upon the unsuspecting French. At midnight twelve hundred Indian warriors landed at La Chine, the upper part of Montreal Island, and stationing themselves around the dwellings of the sleeping inhabitants, at a given signal began with torch and tomahawk the fearful carnage. As the terrified people rushed from their burning dwellings, they were hurled back into the flames, hacked in pieces, or seized and reserved for more cruel tortures in the land of the Iroquois. It is said that twelve hundred of the French lost their lives in this massacre.

98. For over two months the Iroquois continued their reign of terror. The Governor gave orders to his men not to risk a battle with the savages, but as best they could to protect themselves. Only within the forts of Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal was there safety. For lack of men to defend it, Fort Frontenac was blown up and abandoned. As winter approached, the Iroquois departed.

Frontenac Returns. — 99. Deep gloom rested on the country, and the people looked anxiously for help. With great satisfaction, therefore, they received intelligence that the King had again made Frontenac Governor of Canada. The irritable temper and haughty manners of the old soldier were now forgotten; only his successful wars against the Iroquois were remembered.

CHAPTER VIII.

WARS BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND THE FRENCH.

100. THE French and English colonists in America were never on friendly terms. Their rivalry in the fur-trade led to intrigues and counter intrigues with the Indians, and soon developed into open hostility. From this time onward for about seventy years there is little to describe save a succession of strifes, massacres, and petty wars, ending in the grand struggle which gave the English undisputed and permanent possession of the continent.

101. Frontenac, now seventy years of age, was yet full of vigor; and at once he set about repairing the ruined fortunes of Canada. Not without reason he saw that the English, not the Iroquois, were the chief obstacles to the tranquillity of the country. His first efforts, however, were directed towards conciliating the Indians. He had brought back their chiefs, the victims of Denonville's perfidy, whom he sent home bearing pleasant memories of his kindness. And now he thought himself ready to take measures against the English; but not having enough forces for open warfare, he resorted to the method of sudden irruptions and midnight surprises.

102. In midwinter three bands of French and Indians, after many days' toilsome march through the forests, came stealthily by night upon the border settlements of New York, New Hampshire, and Maine. They burned the houses and barns, killed and scalped the inhabitants, or — what was often worse — they dragged them into cap-

tivity. Schenectady, in New York, and Salmon Falls, in New Hampshire, were among the places thus attacked.

103. These massacres aroused the indignation of the English colonists. They asked England to help them drive the French from America ; but King William was engaged in European wars which required all the forces at his command. Then the colonists decided to fight their own battles. Massachusetts and New York took the lead. Two expeditions were fitted out, — a naval force against Port Royal and Quebec, under Sir William Phipps, a colonist of humble birth, who by his industry and courage had gained for himself position and name ; and a land force against Montreal under General Winthrop.

Capture of Port Royal. 1690, A. D. — 104. Sailing from Boston with a fleet of eight small vessels, bearing about eight hundred men, Phipps entered Annapolis Basin early in May. Menneval, the Governor of Acadie, had but eighty men in the fort ; his ramparts were broken down, his cannon were not mounted, and his stores were low. Resistance would have been folly. But by putting on a bold air Menneval adroitly concealed his weakness, and gained honorable terms of surrender.

105. Phipps agreed to send the garrison to Quebec, and allow the inhabitants of Port Royal to hold their property. But when he entered the fort and saw its weak condition, he was greatly annoyed ; and, fearing that he would be blamed by the authorities at home for dealing so mildly with the enemy, he was glad of a plausible excuse for violating his promise. A few disorderly soldiers robbed some stores which had been given up to the English. Upon this Phipps charged Menneval with not fulfilling his part of the bargain, sent him and his garrison to Bo-

ton as prisoners of war, and allowed the English soldiers to plunder the town.

Phipps Fails to Take Quebec. — 106. In the month of October Phipps appeared before Quebec with a force of two thousand men and thirty-five vessels, large and small. The officer whom he sent with a flag of truce was led blindfold into the city to prevent his carrying back any report of its condition. When brought into the presence of the council, he laid his watch upon the table and in the name of King William demanded the surrender of the town within an hour. Filled with rage, the old Count Frontenac replied: "I will not keep you waiting so long. I acknowledge no king of England but James II. ; William Prince of Orange is a usurper. Go, tell your General that I will answer him by the mouth of my cannon." Phipps then opened fire on the town, but his guns were too small to have much effect. On the other hand, the guns of the fort, from their elevation, seriously damaged the English ships. A land force tried in vain to get in rear of the town, and were driven in confusion to their boats, leaving their guns behind them on the shore. Deeply chagrined, Phipps hastily sailed away to Boston, bearing the first tidings of his defeat.

There was now great rejoicing in Quebec, and in memory of the deliverance of the city the King of France had a medal struck with the inscription: *Francia in Novo Orbe Victrix, Kebec Liberata, A. D. MDCXC.*

Winthrop's Expedition. — 107. In the mean time General Winthrop's expedition against Montreal had resulted in complete failure. Proceeding from Albany on the Hudson, he went as far as Lake George. Here small-pox broke out among his men, and his Indian allies failed to bring promised aid. Discouraged by these and other troubles, he returned to Albany

Port Royal after the Capture. — 108. The fort at Port Royal, being left by Phipps without a garrison, was soon re-occupied by the French. But Villebon, the new French governor, thinking that this place was too much exposed to attack from English cruisers, made his headquarters at the mouth of the Nashwaak, on the river St. John. Here in his forest retreat, guarded by a pack of savage dogs, he gathered around him bands of Indians whom he encouraged in acts of outrage against the English. Baptiste, a noted pirate, who preyed on the commerce of New England, also found refuge for himself and sale for his plunder in Villebon's fort.

109. As a protection against the French and Indians, the New England colonies had built a strong stone fort at Pemaquid, called Fort William Henry. After a short siege the French, under D'Iberville, took this fort and levelled its walls to the ground. They also destroyed every exposed settlement in New England and cruelly murdered the inhabitants. Frontenac having failed to gain the friendship of the Iroquois, as he had hoped, invaded their country and burned their villages and corn.

110. On their part, also, the English colonists did the French all the harm they could. A fitting instrument for this work of revenge was found in old Ben Church, who had many years before gained renown in the wars against the Indians. With his fleet of whale-boats, well manned by sturdy New England fishermen, Church sallied forth like a messenger of death, laying waste every Acadian settlement on the coast from Passamaquoddy Bay to Cumberland Basin.

Treaty of Ryswick. 1697, A. D. — 111. But now, after eight years of cruel slaughter and wanton destruction of property, France and England, grown weary of fighting, arranged terms of peace. It having been agreed that all places captured by either nation during the war should

be restored to the original owner, Nova Scotia was ceded to France. The war thus brought to a close is sometimes called "King William's War."

Frontenac died in the year after the peace, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, respected by both friends and foes. He was greatly admired by his soldiers for his courage, decision, and noble bearing. He made himself very agreeable also to the Indian chiefs by his affability towards them, by attending their feasts, and by joining in their war-songs and dances.

An Indian Council. 1701, A. D. — 112. By skilful management the French gained the good-will of nearly all the Indian tribes. Even the Iroquois, although they would not fight against the English, in great measure laid aside their hostility towards the French. De Callieres, who succeeded Frontenac, gathered at Montreal a grand council of Indian chiefs. There were present twelve hundred Indian warriors of various tribes in their paint and feathers; the Governor and his council were there, and a large assembly of the leading colonists. Long speeches were made by Indian orators; presents were given; the pipe of peace was smoked, the Governor taking the lead; and then followed feasting and hilarity. The council lasted several days; a treaty was made, and all the tribes agreed to restore the captives whom they had taken in war. Old Kondiaronk, "the rat," was present; but in the middle of his speech he took suddenly ill, and died before the council closed.

Instead of signing their names to the treaty, the chiefs drew the symbols of their respective tribes, — the Senecas, a spider; the Cayugas, a calumet; the Oneidas, a forked stick; the Mohawks, a bear; and the Hurons, a beaver.

CHAPTER IX.

WAR RESUMED.

Queen Anne's War Begins. — 113. The peace made by the Treaty of Ryswick was only a breathing spell. France and England were soon at war again, and, as usual at such times, their colonies in America were involved in the quarrel. The French harassed the English colonists by raids, rather than attacked them in open war. Some terrible massacres were perpetrated in the frontier settlements of New England, and persons could leave their homes only at the peril of their lives. Laborers on their way to the fields, travellers on the highway, women carrying water from the spring, and children gathering berries or flowers on the edge of the woods, were shot down by Indians lurking behind rocks and bushes.

114. We may well shudder at the barbarities revealed by the history of these border incursions. In midwinter over three hundred French and Indians marched two hundred miles to the frontier settlements of Massachusetts. They burned the town of Deerfield, killed about fifty of the inhabitants, and carried off over a hundred into Canada. Among the captives were Mrs. Williams, the wife of the village clergyman, and her five children. Faltering by the way, the mother was struck dead by a tomahawk. Many years after, as the wife of an Indian chief, one of her daughters visited her relatives at Deerfield. No entreaties could induce her to remain with them. After a few days she returned to her wigwam. Haverhill, in New Hampshire, was the scene of a tragedy similar to that of Deerfield.

115. Acadie has an important place in the records of the period. Port Royal was again the French headquarters of the country, and its fort had been strengthened

by earthworks and ditches. La Have, on the Atlantic coast, was the rendezvous of a band of sea-rovers who did much damage to the commerce of New England. So bold were they, that they sometimes even dashed into Boston Harbor and captured vessels lying there. But injury and outrage were not the deeds of the French alone. Colonel Church was sent to take revenge on the Acadians. At Beaubassin, a French settlement at the head of Cumberland Basin, and at Minas, he killed the cattle, cut down the dikes, and burned the houses and barns. The terrified inhabitants fled to the woods.

Colonel March's Expedition. 1707, A. D. — 116. The Government of Massachusetts sent a fleet under Colonel March to take Port Royal. The citizens of Boston were so certain of victory that they prepared for a grand celebration. But the expedition failed wholly, and March, ashamed to return to Boston, sailed into Casco Bay. He was ordered to renew the attack on Port Royal, but refused. Another officer was sent in his place, with no better success.

Final Capture of Port Royal. 1710, A. D. — 117. The people of New England were not easily discouraged. They had decided that the French must be conquered, and failure only nerved them to renewed and greater effort. They applied to Great Britain for aid. After much delay several war-ships and transports were sent over; and Queen Anne gave money from her private purse to equip four New England regiments. The chief aim was to take Quebec; but when the equipment was ready the season was too far advanced for going up the St. Lawrence; so, leaving Canada until spring, the fleet sailed for Port Royal.

118. It was in September that Nicolson, with thirty-five vessels and three thousand five hundred men, entered

Annapolis Basin. Subercase, the French Governor at Port Royal, was not wanting in bravery ; but with his broken-down fortifications, small garrison, and scanty stores, he could do little against such a force. Besides, his men had so lost hope that they were ready to desert at the first opportunity. The Acadians of the neighborhood added the weight of their entreaties, and, trembling for their property and homes, besought him to surrender.

119. Subercase held out long enough to save himself from the charge of cowardice, and his men from being treated as prisoners of war. But when the English cannonade began in earnest, he thought it prudent to yield. Thus Port Royal, which had so often changed owners, passed finally into the possession of Great Britain. In honor of Queen Anne its name was changed to Annapolis Royal. Colonel Vetch, with a garrison of four hundred and fifty men, was placed in charge of the fort.

120. Nicolson engaged to send the French garrison to France, and also any of the inhabitants of Port Royal who wished to go. The Acadians within three miles of the fort were allowed to remain on their lands two years, on condition of taking the oath of allegiance to Great Britain.

The Acadians. — 121. The Acadians were reluctant to submit to British authority, and refused to take the oath of allegiance. Vaudreuil, the Governor of Canada, sent the Baron St. Castine to Nova Scotia to keep alive this spirit of opposition, and to secure the fidelity of the Indians. Colonel Vetch tried in vain to hire the Acadians to bring timber for repairing the fort. The Indians, more openly hostile, attacked a company of seventy men whom he had sent up the Annapolis River, killing thirty and taking the rest prisoners. Relying on aid from Canada,

four or five hundred Acadians invested the fort. But Vaudreuil needed all his forces to protect himself, and could do little more for the Acadians than to make them uneasy by exciting hopes never to be realized.

Expedition against Quebec. 1711, A. D. — 122. The English colonies now desired the home government to complete the work so well begun, by taking Canada from the French. General Nicolson visited England to urge this measure; Colonel Schuyler of Albany also went on the same errand, taking with him five Iroquois chiefs, whom he presented at the court of Queen Anne. A powerful expedition was prepared. Veteran soldiers, who had won for England great victories on the battle-fields of Europe, and a well-equipped fleet were sent against Quebec. It proved an ill-fated expedition. About midsummer the fleet left Boston, under the command of Sir Hovenden Walker, who was both incompetent and obstinate. Though warned by his pilot, the Admiral sailed too close to the northern shore of the St. Lawrence, and during a very dark night eight of his ships were cast away on the Egg Islands, and eight hundred of his men were drowned. A council of war decided to abandon the undertaking, and Walker sailed for England without getting sight of the enemy.

123. In the mean time General Nicolson, setting out from Albany with a large force of militia and Indians, proceeded as far as Lake George. At this point, hearing of the disaster which had befallen the fleet, he turned back.

Treaty of Utrecht. 1713, A. D. — 124. Peace was finally concluded between Great Britain and France by a treaty signed at a small town in Holland called Utrecht. Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay Territory were ceded to Great Britain. Canada, Cape Breton, St.

John's Island, and the vast country called Louisiana were still retained by France.

125. After the treaty of Utrecht Canada enjoyed a comparatively long period of peace, and the country improved in many ways. The Marquis de Vaudreuil, who was governor from 1703 until his death in 1725, encouraged the industries of the country, and strengthened its defences by building forts. The people gave more attention to agriculture, so that instead of depending on France for food they were able to export the products of the field to other countries. For a long time the Government of France, in order to protect her own manufacturers, would not allow even the coarsest and most common fabrics to be made in Canada. The wool and flax produced in the country were exported to France in their raw state, and brought back when manufactured into cloth. Some of these restrictions were now removed, and the people were permitted to make "homespun" for themselves.

126. Meanwhile the rivalry between Canada and the English colonies increased in keenness. Each tried to secure a monopoly of the fur-trade, and to extend the limits of its territory. The French claimed the whole valley of the Mississippi, and opposed any occupation of the country west of the Alleghanies by English settlers or traders. To guard the grand highway into Canada from the south, they built Fort Frederick at Crown Point on Lake Champlain.

127. Many of the French fur-traders adopted the habits of the Indians, and married Indian women. In this way, and through the influence of the missionaries, the French gained the good-will of nearly all the Indian tribes.

The population of Canada was at this time about 26,000; of which Quebec had 7,000, and Montreal 3,000.

CHAPTER X.

BEGINNING OF ENGLISH RULE IN NOVA SCOTIA.

Nova Scotia. — 128. In Nova Scotia matters were not in a very satisfactory condition. Indeed for nearly half a century, owing to prevailing conflict and uncertainty, the country made little progress. The French Acadians still occupied their lands, but they refused to become British subjects. The Indians, who had been taught to look upon the English as enemies, were openly hostile, committing many acts of outrage and murder. Moreover the French asserted that they had ceded only the Peninsula of Nova Scotia to Great Britain, and that the country now forming New Brunswick still belonged to them.

129. Previous to the founding of Halifax, Annapolis was the capital of Nova Scotia and the only English settlement except Canso. The first Governor was Colonel Nicolson, who commanded at the taking of Port Royal. At the end of three years he was succeeded by Colonel Phillips, who for thirty-two years drew his salary as governor, although for the last twenty-seven years of this period he resided in England, and never once visited the country of which he was nominally governor. Colonel Armstrong, the president of the council, acted as lieutenant-governor for seventeen years, when, in a fit of insanity, he killed himself with his sword. He was succeeded by Paul Mascarene, a French Protestant, whose family had been driven from France by religious persecution, who remained in office until the arrival of Governor Cornwallis.

How the Laws were made. — 130. There was no House of Assembly in these early times. The Governor chose twelve of the leading citizens of Annapolis Royal as a Council to act with him in making the laws and in governing the country. The Governor and Council also acted as a court of justice to try offenders. Some of their modes of punishment, though then not unusual in other countries, would seem curious enough at the present time. It is related, that, for the offence of slandering her neighbor, one Jean Picot was sentenced to be "ducked" at high-water; but through the intercession of the person she had defamed, she was let off with asking pardon at the church door on Sunday morning.

The Acadians. — 131. At this time there were six or seven thousand Acadians in Nova Scotia. Their chief settlements were in the most fertile parts of the country along the Annapolis River, — at Canard, Grand Pré, Piziquid, Cobequid, and Beaubassin. Here they cultivated the rich marshes which they had reclaimed from the sea by strong dikes. For the most part they neglected the wooded uplands. Their wealth consisted largely in cattle, horses, sheep, and swine.

132. The English had agreed that the Acadians living within three miles of the fort at Port Royal should be allowed to remain on their lands for two years. At the end of this time all the Acadians could have been expelled as foreigners, but Queen Anne directed Governor Nicolson to treat them in all respects as British subjects. If they had been left to themselves, it is probable that kind treatment would soon have led them to submit to their new sovereign, as the French of Canada did fifty years later. But the French governors of Quebec encouraged them in disaffection and disobedience.

133. So the Acadians refused to take the oath of allegiance. They said that in case of war between France and Great Britain they would join neither side, — they would be *neutrals*. Many of them, no doubt, honestly and faithfully kept their pledge of neutrality; others encouraged the Indians to annoy the English, or secretly did so themselves.

Louisburg. 1720, A. D. — 184. And now there arose a new force, which for a time exercised a powerful influence on affairs in Nova Scotia. The French still held the Island of Cape Breton, which was at this time called Isle Royal. Shortly after the Treaty of Utrecht, on a fine harbor, previously called English Harbor, they built a town, which, in honor of Louis of France, they named Louisburg. To this place came many of the French colonists of Newfoundland, as that island had now fallen to the English. Some of the Acadians, also, removed from Nova Scotia to Louisburg; but most of them did not care to leave their fertile marshes and by hard toil make for themselves a new home among the forests.

135. Louisburg was built on a tongue of land stretching down between the harbor and Gabarus Bay. It was protected on the land side by stone-walls thirty feet high, on the top of which were parapets or towers. Outside the wall was a deep moat or ditch eighty feet wide. Seaward, the town was guarded by a fortified rocky islet called Battery Island. On the opposite side of the harbor, to the northeast, about a mile distant, was a fort called Grand Battery. On the east, across the harbor, was Light-House Point.

136. Louisburg was a very strong town, so strong that it reminded people of Dunkirk, in France; hence it was called the *Dunkirk of America*. This place became the chief American naval station of France and the headquarters of her fishermen who thronged the coasts. The influence of Louisburg on affairs in Nova Scotia was not

favorable to the English. The Acadians, feeling that they had powerful friends so near, became bolder in their opposition to the government at Annapolis; and the Indians were encouraged in their hostility, finding at Louisburg ready sale for their plunder and captives. Here, too, in time of war, privateers were fitted out to prey on British commerce.

137. Governor Phillips tried to gain the good-will of the Indians. He invited their chiefs to Annapolis, feasted them, and gave them presents. They accepted his gifts, but withheld their friendship. Shortly after, they attacked Canso, the chief English fishing-station in the province, killing three of the inhabitants and plundering a large amount of property. What they could not carry away they burned. They also seized several fishing-vessels in the Bay of Fundy and on other parts of the coast.

CHAPTER XI.

WAR IN NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.

138. AND now we are on the eve of another war between Great Britain and France. In Europe the nations disputed as to who should rule over Austria. The colonies in America probably cared very little about this matter; but the old jealousy and hatred between the English and French needed but slight occasion to bring about open hostility.

Annapolis Besieged. 1744, A. D. — 139. When news of the war reached America, Du Quesnel, the Governor of Louisburg, sent Du Vivier with a strong force against Nova Scotia. Du Vivier first destroyed the settlement of Canso, and sent the garrison to Louisburg. He then

sailed up to the head of Bay Verte, and marched overland to Annapolis, where he was joined by about three hundred Indians who had for some weeks been hovering around the place. As the fort was weak and the garrison small, Governor Mascarene could not have withstood a vigorous siege. Du Vivier, though artful, was timid. His method of attack consisted of little more than paltry skirmishing and stealthy attempts to enter the fort by night. Then he tried to frighten Mascarene into a surrender by giving out that a naval force was coming from Louisburg. Finally he marched off to Minas.

Louisburg Captured. 1745, A. D. — 140. The war spirit was now awakened in New England. With haste and secrecy a bold plan was formed by Governor Shirley of Massachusetts to take Louisburg from the French. Four thousand volunteers, untaught in the art of war, but full of enterprise and daring, were got ready. The command was given to William Pepperell, a colonel in the militia. Early in April the fleet arrived at Canso. Gabarus Bay was yet full of ice, and Pepperell had to wait. But he lost nothing by the delay ; for while at Canso he was joined by Commodore Warren with several British men-of-war.

141. At the end of three weeks the fleet entered Gabarus Bay on the west of Louisburg. Here the New England volunteers gave proof of their courage. The landing was most difficult. The surf dashed wildly against the rocky shore ; the ascent from the water was steep and rugged, while the French stoutly disputed every inch of ground. Boldly the Massachusetts men faced the foe, and fought their way to an important position behind the town. Under cover of the night they dragged their cannon on sledges across marshes too miry for wheeled vehicles.

carrying their ammunition and a supply of provisions on their backs. Commodore Warren drew up his ships in the harbor, and opened fire on the town. The inhabitants outside the walls fled to the fortress for safety. And now the siege began in good earnest.

142. Colonel Vaughan led four hundred men through the woods around the head of the harbor to Grand Battery. Here he set fire to some store-houses, containing



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pitch, tar, and rum. The next morning he saw that the French flag had been removed from the battery, and that no smoke came from the chimneys. He gave an Indian a bottle of brandy to crawl through an embrasure and open the fortress gates. The enemy had fled. One of Vaughan's men climbed the flag-staff, holding in his teeth a red coat, which he nailed to the top for a flag. The guns, which had been spiked, were soon put in order and turned with good effect against the town, about a mile distant.

143. When first summoned to surrender, Governor Duchambon returned a defiant answer. But as the siege

went on, he became less confident. A war-ship from France, bringing recruits and supplies, fell a prey to the English ; the guns on Battery Island were silenced ; and the walls of the town were now yielding in wide breaches to shot and shell. Moreover the soldiers of the garrison, not receiving their full pay, were in ill humor. To add to his difficulties, the citizens, whose dwellings were riddled with shot, petitioned the Governor to surrender. The siege had lasted seven weeks, when Duchambon hung out the white flag. Next day terms were agreed on. The French garrison marched out with colors flying, and Pepperell at the head of his men took possession of the fort.

144. The French soldiers and such of the citizens as desired it, about four thousand in all, were sent to France on condition that for twelve months they would not bear arms against Great Britain. For several days the French flag was kept flying at Louisburg, and three French merchant-ships, which with their cargoes were valued at £6,000, sailed into the harbor and were captured by the English.

145. The news of the fall of Louisburg caused great joy in Boston and in London. Colonel Pepperell was rewarded with the honor of knighthood, and Warren was raised to the rank of admiral.

146. The brave New England men had driven the French out of Louisburg ; but there remained a foe before which many of them fell. Among the supplies which came into their hands was a large quantity of rum. Every day scores of drunken men staggered through the streets. Unbridled appetite was followed by deadly fever, and before spring twelve hundred of Pepperell's men filled graves in the conquered soil.

D'Anville's Expedition. 1746, A. D. — 147. The loss of Louisburg filled the French with rage. They resolved

not only to recover possession of Louisburg and Nova Scotia, but also to inflict severe chastisement on Boston and other seaport towns of New England. Accordingly a powerful fleet was fitted out at Rochelle, which was placed under the command of Duc D'Anville. It was the grandest force that had ever crossed the Atlantic. With dismay the citizens of Boston heard of the preparations which had been made to invade their land and lay their homes in ruins. By fasting and prayer they sought the interposition of Heaven in their behalf. The threatened scourge was averted. Never was expedition more fruitless or ill-fated than that of D'Anville. Not a single victory did it gain ; it did not even meet the foe it came to destroy. Disaster followed disaster, until there were left only scattered fragments of the once proud fleet.

148. Two of D'Anville's ships were taken by the English while yet on the coast of France ; some were cast away on Sable Island ; others were driven by storms far off their course, and never reached the place for which they sailed. After a three months' voyage D'Anville arrived at Chebucto Harbor with a helpless remnant of the great force with which he had left France. Disease had broken out during the long voyage, carrying off many of his men ; others were ill and dying. Such misfortune weighed heavily on his spirits, and he died suddenly, some say of poison.

149. D'Estournelle, the next in command, arrived on the day of D'Anville's death. Disheartened, he urged the abandonment of the undertaking and immediate return to France ; but his advice was overruled by the other officers. Then he fell ill, and in the delirium of fever killed himself with his sword. La Jonquière, who had recently been appointed Governor of Canada and was

then on his way to Quebec, was now chief officer. He thought they might at least take Annapolis, and about the middle of October the fleet set sail. But off Cape Sable, where many a vessel has since been cast away, a violent storm came on, which destroyed several ships and compelled the rest to turn homeward. Three years after, when Governor Cornwallis landed at Chebucto, the whitened skeletons of French soldiers were found lying beside rusty muskets beneath the brushwood.

150. The year after D'Anville's expedition another strong fleet left France for the retaking of Louisburg ; but while yet on the coast of Europe it was intercepted by an English fleet and completely broken up. Among the prisoners taken was Jonquière, the Governor of Canada.

Another Enemy. — 151. A body of French soldiers, under De Ramezay, was sent from Quebec to Nova Scotia to aid D'Anville's fleet. Ramezay landed at Chignecto, and then marched through the country by way of Minas to Annapolis. Having waited in vain for the fleet, he made a feeble attempt to take the fort, and afterwards returned to winter quarters at Chignecto.

Help from Boston. — 152. The presence of the enemy in the country made Governor Mascarene uneasy, and he applied to Governor Shirley of Massachusetts for assistance. Five hundred men under Colonel Noble were immediately sent from Boston. Their orders were to sail up the Bay of Fundy and post themselves at Grand Pré, for the purpose of keeping the Acadians in check, and of driving Ramezay back if he should return. Before they reached Nova Scotia winter set in, and on account of the ice they were unable to enter Minas Basin. So they landed on the shore, far down the Bay of Fundy, and, with two weeks' provisions on their backs, set out for Grand Pré. After several days' tramp through the for-

ests, over the North Mountain, and through the Cornwallis Valley, they arrived at Grand Pré about Christmas. Here, for want of proper quarters, they were scattered a few in a place in private houses through the settlement.

The Massacre. 1747, A. D. — 153. Ramezay heard, probably through the Acadians, of Noble's arrival. He resolved to take him by surprise. Soon over six hundred French and Indians, fitted out with snow-shoes and hand-sleds, were on the move for Grand Pré. Coulon de Villiers was their leader. It was a tedious and painful march of one hundred and fifty miles through the forest in the depth of winter. On the 23d of January Coulon set out, and at the end of seventeen days he arrived at Windsor. Next day, in the midst of a driving snow-storm, he went forward to the Gaspereaux River. Here, within two or three miles of Grand Pré, he halted until after midnight.

154. Coulon divided his men into two companies, for the purpose of attacking, at the same time, the different houses in which the English were lodged. Then, led by Acadian guides, the French went forward to their cruel and cowardly work. Under cover of the night and the falling snow, they crept stealthily upon their victims. Killing the sentinels, they rushed into the houses where the English were sleeping, all unconscious of danger. Some were slain in their beds; others, and among them Colonel Noble, fell fighting in their night-clothes. At daybreak the French were masters of the place, and the carnage ceased. On the morrow the Massachusetts men buried their dead, about eighty in number, in one grave, raising over it a simple mound of earth. Then, with six days' provisions on their backs, they marched off sadly for Annapolis, leaving behind seventy of their comrades as prisoners of war.

Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. 1748, A. D. — 155. For a time Great Britain and France ceased fighting and tried to settle their disputes by a treaty signed at Aix-la-Chapelle. The only portion of this treaty bearing on our history was the restoration of Cape Breton to France, in exchange for places in other parts of the world, which the French had taken from Great Britain. The people of Massachusetts were not pleased at this, and to pacify them the British Government refunded the money they had spent in taking Louisburg.

CHAPTER XII.

SETTLEMENT OF HALIFAX.

A New Scene at Chebucto. 1749, A. D. — 156. Three years have passed away since D'Anville's shattered fleet lay moored in Chebucto Harbor, and his soldiers, who had escaped the perils of the sea, lay dying on its shores. And now ships are again arriving from beyond the eastern waters, and joyously the strangers whom they have borne hither are taking possession of the land. These are not French soldiers, sent to conquer with guns and swords; but English people, — men, women, and children, — come to make for themselves a home in this forest country.

157. No wonder the French had hoped to get Nova Scotia back again; for Great Britain had not seemed to prize it much, and as yet few of her people had come to the country. But now the Government resolved to send out colonists, and offered free grants of land, a year's pro-

visions, farming-tools, and other gifts, to all who would go to Nova Scotia. The Lords of Trade and Plantations, who had charge of colonial affairs, gave orders to found a new capital on the shores of Chebucto Harbor. At this place the new Governor, Colonel Edward Cornwallis, arrived in the "Sphinx" on the 21st of June, 1749; and he was soon followed by transports bearing over two thousand five hundred colonists. The hill-side on the west of the harbor was chosen as the site of the new city, which was named in honor of the Earl of Halifax, the President of the Lords of Trade and Plantations.

Making a Home. — 158. Through the summer and autumn Halifax presented a busy scene. When the colonists landed, the whole coast around the harbor was clothed with forest, down to the water's edge. The men were soon at work, chopping down the trees, erecting rude dwellings, and preparing for the coming winter. They had no saw-mills for making lumber. A few frame-houses were built of materials brought from Boston; but most of the dwellings were rude shanties, formed of upright poles stuck in the ground and roofed over with the bark of trees. The openings between the poles were filled with moss to keep out the cold winds. On the summit of the hill, now called Citadel Hill, a square fort was built. The original town lay directly between Citadel Hill and the harbor, which were connected by two palisades or walls constructed of trunks of trees as a defence against the Indians.

159. Governor Cornwallis chose a council to act with him in governing the country. Of this first council Paul Mascarene, who had so long been lieutenant-governor at Annapolis, was a member. As the Governor was not sure of the loyalty of the Acadians, he called on them

to take the oath of allegiance. This they refused to do, claiming the right to occupy the country as neutrals.

The Indians. — 160. The Indians were very unfriendly, and kept the colony in constant terror. They were ever lurking in the woods on the borders of the settlements, ready to kill and scalp, or to carry off those who came within their reach. English captives were often taken to Louisburg and sold to the French, from whom they were afterwards ransomed by their friends. Dartmouth, which was settled in the year after the founding of Halifax, suffered most from the savages. Six men belonging to this place were attacked while cutting wood in the forest; four of them were killed and one was taken prisoner. A few months afterwards the Indians, creeping upon the settlement during the night, killed and scalped several of the inhabitants. The screams of the terrified women and children were heard across the harbor in Halifax. The Governor and Council, unwisely adopting the barbarous customs of the savages, offered large rewards for Indian prisoners and scalps.

The Germans. — 161. The British Government, anxious for the more rapid colonization of Nova Scotia, invited people to come from Germany, offering them the same privileges as had been conferred on English settlers. Many accepted the invitation, coming at various times, so that within two or three years nearly two thousand Germans arrived at Halifax. They were mostly farmers. Differing from the other colonists in language and customs, they chose to form a settlement by themselves. Accordingly, in the year 1753, most of them removed to Lunenburg. Here they underwent many hardships, and, like the English colonists, suffered greatly from the hostility of the Indians.

162. The early German settlers were a people of simple manners, and their wants were few and easily supplied. The women were clad in homespun, and their head-dress consisted of a calico handkerchief. Both men and women wore upon their feet wooden shoes or clogs, made during the long winter evenings by scooping out blocks of birch.

Their spoons, also, were of the same material, or they used sea-shells instead. Their cart-wheels were circular pieces sawn from the trunks of trees, with holes made in the centre for the axles. Riding wagons were not used in Lunenburg for sixty years after its first settlement.

The Riot. — 163. A few months after the Germans went to Lunenburg, certain evil-minded persons spread a report among them that some of the supplies sent out for them from England had been withheld. This caused great excitement, and the place was for several days under mob-rule. Colonel Monckton went down from Halifax with a few soldiers, and soon restored order without using any harsh measures.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE BOUNDARY WAR.

164. UNSETTLED boundary lines between the English and French colonies were becoming more and more a source of difficulty. The disputed territories included the valley of the Ohio River and the country north of the Bay of Fundy now forming New Brunswick. Commissioners were appointed by Great Britain and France to settle the dispute; but they failed to agree upon anything. In the mean time the French had occupied these territories, and were taking measures to exclude the English by force. They warned English traders not to enter the country west of the Alleghany Mountains, and seized the furs of those who disregarded the warning. They also built a line of

forts from Lake Erie to the Ohio River. On the other hand, the English gave a similar warning to the French, and sent a military force to protect their own traders.

165. George Washington, then about twenty-one years of age, was sent into the Ohio Valley to remonstrate with



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the French. The task was a most difficult one, involving a long and dangerous journey on foot in midwinter through vast forests. On the Alleghany River the raft by which he was crossing was broken up by floating ice, and Washington was thrown into the water, from which he had a very narrow escape. His mission accomplished little. The French officer in the country told him that his orders were "to seize every Englishman in the Ohio Valley," and he intended to do it.

1754, A. D. — 166. A grand convention of delegates from the various English colonies met at Albany to make a treaty with the "Six Nations," as the Iroquois were now called, and to arrange some plan of defence. The distinguished Benjamin Franklin urged upon the convention the importance of union among the colonies. But owing to provincial jealousies he failed to secure any arrangement of this kind.

Fort Du Quesne. — 167. In order to guard the route leading into the Ohio Valley, and support their claims to the country, the English began to build a fort at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers, where the city of Pittsburg now stands. The French, however, came with a stronger force, drove off the English, and completed the fort, which they named Fort Du Quesne, in honor of the Governor of Canada. George Washington, marching into the country at the head of a small force, erected a rude fort on the Monongahea, which he named Fort Necessity. A French officer, named Jumonville, was sent to meet Washington and warn him against occupying French territory ; but, as the French asserted, without intending to attack him. Thinking their purpose to be hostile, Washington ordered his men to fire. Jumonville and nine of his men were killed. The French, greatly enraged at this action, which they considered contrary to the rules of war, sent a stronger force against Washington and compelled him to retire from the Ohio Valley.

Fort Beausejour. — 168. Events in Nova Scotia, also, were rapidly preparing the way for war. The French occupied a fort at the mouth of the St. John River, and Jonquière, the Governor of Canada, sent a force under La Corne to keep guard at the Isthmus of Chignecto. On a ridge of land in the marsh north of the Missaquash

River, La Corne built a fort, which he named Fort Beausejour. The French also held another fort at the head of Bay Verte.

Fort Lawrence. — 169. As the produce of the country was all needed at Halifax, the Government enacted a law forbidding its export from the Province. But the Acadians, relying on the protection of La Corne, sent their grain and cattle by way of Bay Verte to the Louisburg market. Both Acadians and Indians were also encouraged in their opposition to the English by the Abbé la Loutre, who acted as agent for the authorities at Quebec. To enforce the laws and to keep the French in check, Governor Cornwallis sent Major Lawrence to Beaubassin with a small body of soldiers. When the Acadians of Beaubassin saw the British sloops coming up the basin they set fire to their dwellings and fled across the river to La Corne. The landing of the English was opposed by the French and Indians, who lay sheltered behind the marsh dikes. Reinforced by more men from Halifax, Major Lawrence erected Fort Lawrence on the south of the Missaquash, about a mile from Beausejour.

170. Governor Cornwallis remained in Halifax about three years, when he was succeeded by Thomas Hopson. In the following year Hopson retired, and Major Lawrence became Governor.

171. Shall America belong to the French or the English? This seemed to be the great question underlying the boundary dispute, — a question to be settled by the fortunes of war. The colonies entered upon the struggle some time before any formal declaration of war had been made by the great powers in Europe. Reinforcements were now sent out by both Great Britain and France, — General Braddock with two English regiments, and Baron

Dieskau at the head of three thousand French veterans. At the same time also came the Marquis de Vaudreuil, the new Governor-General of Canada and the last under French rule.

Capture of Beausejour. 1755, A. D. — 172. The end of the great conflict was foreshadowed by the success of the English in Nova Scotia. Early in June Colonel Monckton, with a force of two thousand men fitted out in Boston, landed near Fort Lawrence. Opposed by Acadians and Indians, the English fought their way across the Missaquash, and opened fire on Beausejour. Vergor, the commander of the fort, called to his aid the Acadians of the surrounding country, who, having hidden their women and children in the woods, obeyed the summons. But they brought little strength to the fort. Seeing the English at close quarters they became alarmed, and began to desert the French commander at the critical juncture.

173. When the siege had lasted four days, Vergor was compelled to surrender. His soldiers were allowed to retire with the honors of war, and were sent to Louisburg. Monckton changed the name of Beausejour to *Fort Cumberland*, and placed in it a small garrison. The forts at Bay Verte and at the mouth of the St. John River were taken by the English shortly afterwards. The Acadians excused themselves for the part they had taken by asserting that they had been forced to aid the French.

The English Defeated in the Ohio Valley. 174. Braddock was a brave officer, and in command of trained troops; to him, therefore, was assigned the difficult task of driving the French from the valley of the Ohio. Benjamin Franklin warned him that the Indians would not meet him in open field, but would lurk in ambuscade and fire upon him under cover of trees

and rocks. "The savages may be formidable to your raw militia, but they cannot make much impression on the King's trained troops," was the haughty reply. Washington, who had joined the expedition with some companies of militia, urged him to place the Americans in front, as they were better acquainted with the Indian mode of warfare. Braddock thought him insolent, and ordered him and his militia to the rear. And so the King's troops, with flags flying and drums beating, were led forward into the very jaws of death. As they passed through a ravine in the forest seven miles from Fort du Quesne, suddenly the Indian war-whoop pierced the ear, while from behind the trees the French and Indians opened on them a deadly fire. Washington's men, adopting the same tactics, would have been able to maintain their position; but the regular soldiers, bewildered and huddled together, were mowed down with fearful slaughter. Panic-stricken the survivors fled, and did not halt until they had reached a distance of forty miles. Braddock had five horses shot under him before he fell, mortally wounded. Washington had a narrow escape, having received four bullets through his coat.

175. Braddock's defeat was a terrible disaster to the English. The French were left in possession of the Ohio Valley; the savage Indians were let loose upon the border English settlement of Virginia, and the wildest excitement prevailed throughout all the colonies.

The French Defeated near Lake George. — 176. There was yet another battle in the year 1755. The English desired to make themselves masters of the route into Canada by way of Lake Champlain. This involved the necessity of taking two French forts by which the way was guarded, — Crown Point on Lake Champlain, and Ticonderoga at the foot of Lake George. The task was intrusted to a force of militia and Indians, under the command of General Johnson, who was a great favor-

ite with the Indians. Baron Dieskau, with an army made up of regular troops, militia, and Indians, met Johnson on the south of Lake George. A great battle was fought, in which at first the French were victorious, though in the end they were completely routed and forced to take shelter at Ticonderoga. Dieskau was severely wounded and taken prisoner. Johnson, feeling unable to dislodge the French, strengthened his position by erecting Fort William Henry near the place where the battle was fought.

CHAPTER XIV.

EXPULSION OF THE ACADIANS.

177. ANOTHER important transaction of the year 1755 remains to be described, — the expulsion of the Acadians from Nova Scotia. This event is memorable both on account of the wide-spread interest which it has excited, and its important bearing on the history of the province. The characters, incidents, and scenery described in Longfellow's well-known poem "Evangeline" are all connected with this sad expulsion. The poet has thus made a part of the early history of Nova Scotia familiar to all lovers of true poetry ; while his description of the simple manners and virtuous lives of the Acadian people has done much to strengthen the sympathy naturally aroused by their terrible fate. All visitors to Nova Scotia inquire for Grand Pré, where the scene of this famous poem is laid.

178. We are not here called upon to pronounce on the absolute justice or injustice of the stern measure to which Great Britain resorted to secure for herself the permanent possession of Nova Scotia. The event should be viewed

in its relation to a tremendous and protracted struggle then taking place between two powerful nations for the possession of a continent.

179. The Acadians had little claim on the government at Halifax. They had repeatedly refused to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain; contrary to positive orders they had persisted in sending their produce to Louisburg, rather than sell to the English; and some of them had given direct aid to the enemy. On the other hand, we should not wonder at the reluctance of the Acadians to separate themselves formally, by a direct oath of allegiance to Great Britain, from the great nation with which they were connected in race, language, and religion. The punishment inflicted on them was terribly severe, and we may well regret that some milder method of securing the peace of the country was not found.

180. We must remember, however, that the English in Nova Scotia were not strong enough to deal generously with those on whose sympathies and aid they could not rely. The authorities at Halifax had several reasons for alarm. The Indians were dangerous enemies, and there seemed little hope of their becoming friendly while the Acadians held themselves aloof. The French were strongly intrenched in Quebec and Louisburg, and they had recently gained an important victory in the Ohio Valley. In the event of their making another attempt to obtain Nova Scotia, the Acadians might be induced to give them active support.

181. Governor Lawrence called on the Acadians to send delegates to Halifax, with powers to act for the whole people. The delegates refused to take any oath which would bind them to aid the British against the French. And now the Governor and his council thought

the time had come for sterner measures. Instructions were sent to the officers commanding the forts at Annapolis, Grand Pré, Piziquid, and Chignecto, to seize all the Acadians in their districts, and place them on board the vessels provided for their removal. Their orders were to act promptly and firmly, listening to no entreaty, however piteous and urgent. The Acadians were to be allowed to take their money and such household furniture as the vessels could carry; their lands, cattle, and other property were forfeited. Their barns and their dwellings were to be burned, so that those who might flee to the woods would have little chance of escape.

182. The task of removing the Acadians from Canard, Minas, and Grand Pré was intrusted to Colonel Winslow. He did his work thoroughly. Without making known his object, he commanded the men and boys to assemble in their church at Grand Pré on the fifth of September. When all were gathered, the church was surrounded with armed soldiers; Winslow, standing at the altar, reminded the Acadians of the kindness which had been shown their people for half a century, and upbraided them with their ingratitude, closing his address with the startling announcement that they were the King's prisoners, and that vessels were waiting in the harbor to carry them out of the country. A guard was kept around the church to prevent any from escaping. The families of those confined were notified to send them food, and to get ready to leave their homes as soon as possible. A few days after, all were placed on board the transports in the mouth of the Gaspereaux.

183. It was a wretched scene in the church at Grand Pré on that September evening, and there was many a

sad household around the shores of the Basin of Minas. The morning had dawned with bright prospects on those homes, around which clustered many warm affections and happy memories. God's blessing had rewarded the hand of the diligent. The barns were bursting with the freshly gathered harvest, and the orchards were coloring with crimson and gold. A cloud of sadness, deeper and darker than evening shadows, now hung over every hearthstone and gloomed every heart. Then imagine you see those poor people, — men, women, and children, — with funereal step and mien, wending their way to the vessels which would soon bear them to the land of exile. And now, when all are gone, the smoking ruins of houses and barns complete the picture of desolation.

184. The total number of Acadians sent from Canard and Grand Pré is given as one thousand nine hundred and twenty-three; the number of dwellings burned, two hundred and fifty-five; and the barns, two hundred and seventy-six. The cattle and horses were left to run wild. In the following year a party of Germans from Lunenburg came across the country and drove away a large number of cattle and horses.

185. The work of expulsion was less successful in other parts of the country. At Annapolis, when the Acadians saw the vessels enter the basin they fled to the woods. Some were brought back; others eluded pursuit. The prisoners on board one of the transports from Annapolis, having taken possession of the vessel, sailed into St. John Harbor and escaped.

186. The worst scenes were enacted at Chignecto. Some of the men fled to the woods, leaving the women and children behind; others, joined by the Indians, turned upon the soldiers, some of whom they killed. Over four hundred and fifty houses were burned.

187. It is computed that at least three thousand

Acadians were banished from Nova Scotia. They were scattered, a few hundreds in a place, from Massachusetts to North Carolina; and set down nearly destitute at the approach of winter among strangers, from whom they differed in language, customs, and religion. In some cases families were broken up, and the children were bound out as apprentices or servants. Many, with ardent longing for their old homes, in the face of numerous difficulties, found their way back to Nova Scotia. Some, trying to get back by coasting along shore in boats, were stopped on the way.

Indian Murders. — 188. The Indians were still bitter foes to the English and Germans. At Bay Verte they killed nine men who were cutting wood in the forest. On an island in Mahone Bay they cruelly put to death a man, named Payzant, and part of his family, carrying off his wife and four of his children as captives to Quebec. In scattered settlements piles of wood and brush were kept on the hill-tops, ready for lighting, as signals for help in case of attack. Large rewards were offered by the Government for Indian scalps and prisoners.

CHAPTER XV.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

189. THE Great Powers of Europe were now entering upon a long and fierce struggle, known in history as the "Seven Years' War." France and Great Britain were on opposite sides, and their colonies in all parts of the world became involved in the quarrel. The English colonies in America had at this time a population of about three millions, and were comparatively rich and prosperous. The French in Canada numbered only about eighty thousand

and they were generally poorer than the people of the English colonies. Moreover, from failure in their crops, they were now suffering from scarcity of food. But notwithstanding these disadvantages, during the first years of the war the victories gained were chiefly on the side of the French, owing to the superior skill of their officers.

French Victories. — 190. General Montcalm, the commander-in-chief of the French forces, destroyed Oswego, an English fort on the south of Lake Ontario, taking sixteen hundred prisoners and much booty, consisting of cannon and other war material, provisions, and money. These supplies greatly aided the French, especially as food was scarce in Canada, while the loss of Oswego was seriously felt by the English. Montcalm also took Fort William Henry, on Lake George. This victory was marred by atrocious cruelties, which sully the reputation of Montcalm. During the siege, an Indian scout, who was bringing a written order to the commander of the fort from a superior officer, was captured by the French. The Indian hastily swallowed the paper to prevent its falling into the hands of the enemy. He was killed on the spot and the paper taken from his stomach. After the surrender of the fort the English soldiers, who had delivered up their arms, were treated with great cruelty by the Indian allies of the French. Many were barbarously butchered, and others were held for ransom.

Loudon's Failure. 1757, A. D. — 191. The officers in command of the British forces in America were singularly incompetent. To this cause was owing the ridiculous failure of an expedition against Louisburg. Lord Loudon, the commander-in-chief, arrived at Halifax from New York with transports and soldiers, and Admiral Holborne came from England with eleven ships-of-the-line and fifty transports, bringing over six thousand soldiers. At Halifax, Loudon heard that the French forces at Louisburg were stronger than his own, and he was afraid to attack them. Twice Admiral Holborne sailed down to Louisburg; but he carefully avoided the enemy. The second time a storm overtook him, shattering and dispersing his fleet.

William Pitt. 1758, A. D. — 192. And now there came a new hand at the helm. William Pitt was at the head of the British Government, and by his wise measures soon changed the aspect of affairs. Officers were not left in command because of their rank or their wealth; but men of courage and ability were appointed over the army and navy, who gained imperishable glory for themselves and for the flag of old England. A grand scheme was planned to destroy forever the French power in America.

The Second Siege of Louis- **193.** Louisburg was the
burg. 1758, A. D. chief naval station of the French in America, and its position far out in the Atlantic enabled it to guard most effectively the ocean approaches to Canada. This Dunkirk of America must yield to British power. For its conquest came a fleet of one hundred and fifty sail under Admiral Boscawen, and a land force of fourteen thousand men. General Amherst was commander-in-chief, and next under him was Colonel James Wolfe, a brave young officer, now only thirty-two years of age. On the second of June the fleet arrived in Gabarus Bay. A wild storm was raging, and for nearly a week the angry surf kept the troops from landing. Meanwhile the French at Louisburg were busy fortifying the shore. With the first lull the British soldiers, arranged in three divisions, advanced boldly in their boats in the face of a brisk fire from the enemy. As they drew up to the shore, Wolfe leaped into the water and was the first to gain the land. The French were driven back and forced to take refuge behind the ramparts of the town.

194. Louisburg was not prepared for a siege. The stone-work of the ramparts had in many places fallen into the ditches; the earthen embankments were broken down, and many of the cannon were mounted on car-

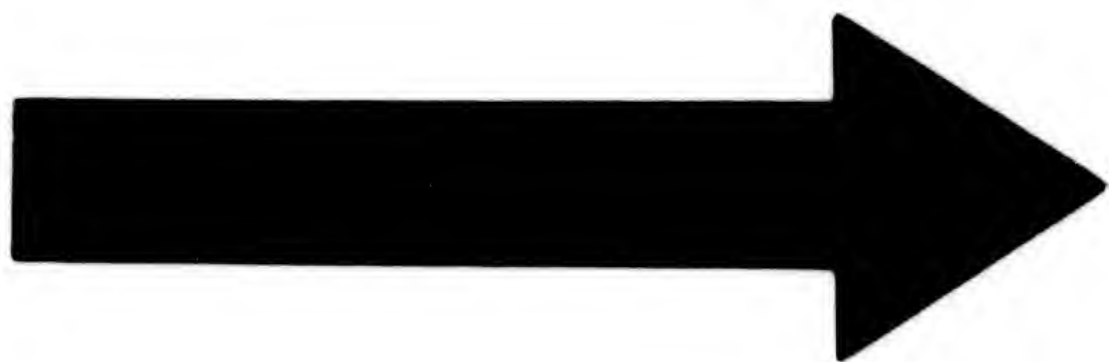
riages so rotten that they could not bear the shock of discharge. The French forces consisted of about three thousand five hundred men, including soldiers, militia, and Indians. The harbor was guarded by five war-ships, and at its mouth were sunk three frigates, to prevent the approach of the British ships. M. Drucour, the Governor of Louisburg, gathered all his forces within the town, and resolved to defend his post.

195. Wolfe, with a strong party, marched around the head of the harbor to Light-House Point, from which he directed such a fire on Island Battery that he silenced its guns. Boscawen, from his ships, poured shot and shell into the harbor with great effect. One of the French ships took fire and blew up. The fire spread to two other ships and burned them to the water's edge. Then a party of British seamen came up in boats, burned one of the remaining ships, and brought away the other in triumph.

The Surrender. — 196. For seven weeks the siege went on. Drucour saw with dismay the widening breaches in his walls. The terror-stricken inhabitants of the town urged him to give up the contest. He proposed to surrender with the honors of war. But General Amherst would grant no conditions, and Drucour was compelled to yield. The soldiers of the garrison marched out of the fort as prisoners of war, — their arms, ammunition, and provisions having been given up to the victors.

In the same year St. John's Island (Prince Edward Island) was taken from the French. The British Government, not wishing to maintain a garrison at Louisburg, blew up its fortifications and levelled its walls to the ground.

The British Defeated at Ticonderoga, July, 1758. — 197. The glory won at Louisburg was tarnished at Ticonderoga. General Abercrombie.



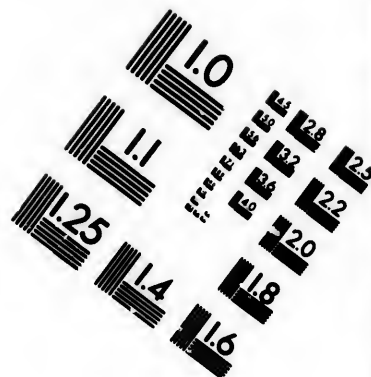
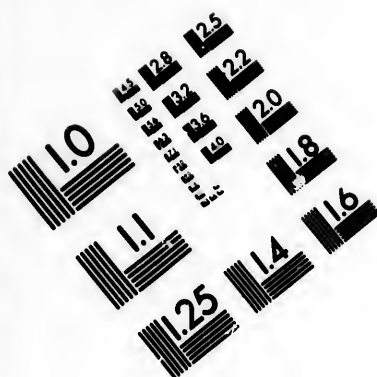
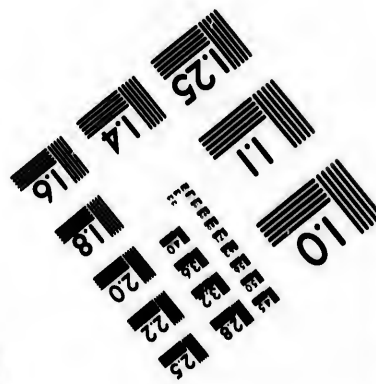
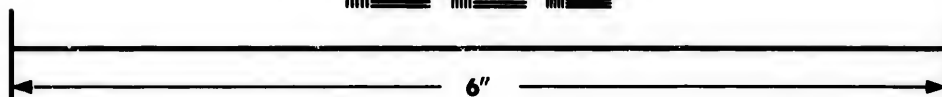
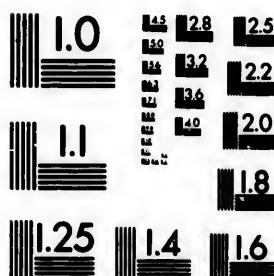


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an officer of the old régime who had been allowed to remain in command, marched from Albany with the finest army yet seen in America, — sixteen thousand strong, — to attack Montcaum, who guarded the gateway of Canada at Ticonderoga. The French army, much inferior to the British, was protected by earthworks covered with the trunks of trees whose branches pointed outwards. Abercrombie rashly ordered an attack before the arrival of his cannon. His men advanced boldly; but, unable to force their way through the trees, they were repulsed with terrible slaughter. Finally they fled in disorder, leaving two thousand dead and wounded before the fort.

Capture of Frontenac and Du Quesne. — 198. Later in the season the British captured two important posts, Fort Frontenac and Fort Du Quesne. The name of the latter place was changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of the British premier. Its site is now occupied by the city of Pittsburg.

Distress in Canada. — 199. It was a time of great distress in Canada. The necessities of war had caused neglect of the productive industries of the country, every man and boy able to bear arms having been enrolled for its defence. The women tilled the fields. Owing to incessant rains, the crops had failed, and dire famine threatened all the land. Bread was dealt out in small quantities by weight, and horse-flesh was an important article of food.

Greed of Government Officials. — 200. For many years governors, intendants, and other officers had secured to themselves the chief profits of the fur-trade and the liquor traffic. La Jonquière, during his term of office, had been among the most grasping of these officials, and yet with all his ill-gotten gains he was so miserly that he denied himself the very necessities of life. None, however, could equal the Intendant Bigot in shameful rapacity. Even during the last struggle against the British, when every one was called upon to make sacrifices for the defence of his country, this selfish man was enriching himself by swindling the Government and robbing the people whose interests he was expected to protect. He had

charge of the King's stores, out of which the army was supplied with food and clothing. In the King's name he took from the people their produce at a small price, for which he paid in worthless paper money, and for the same produce charged the King exorbitant prices. He even demanded payment for supplies which he had never furnished, and put in his own pocket money given him for repairing the forts. On his return to France he was imprisoned in the Bastille, compelled to refund large sums of money, and finally banished for life.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE END OF FRENCH RULE IN CANADA.

1759, A. D. — 201. When spring came, the British were ready to strike the final blow. They divided their forces so as to attack three principal points at the same time. General Amherst, the commander-in-chief, advanced from Albany against Ticonderoga and Crown Point; Prideaux and Sir William Johnson proceeded against Fort Niagara; and General Wolfe undertook the capture of Quebec. Montcalm, the commander of the French forces at Quebec, saw that the end of French rule in Canada was approaching; but none the less he prepared to make a vigorous defence.

Niagara and Ticonderoga. — 202. After a short siege, in which Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a mortar, Niagara was given up to the British. Remembering the defeat of Abercrombie the year before, General Amherst

advanced cautiously upon Ticonderoga. After a brave defence the French abandoned the fort and retreated to Isle-Aux-Noix, at the northern end of Lake Champlain, where they hoped to guard the way to Montreal.

The Siege of Quebec. — 203. The chief event in the campaign was the taking of Quebec. Wolfe, the first in command, was only thirty-three years of age, but he had long been accustomed to the art of war, having entered the army at the early age of fifteen. He had fought in many battles, winning distinguished honors by his bravery, and he had risen rapidly in rank. Under him were Generals Monckton, Townshend, and Murray. Admiral Saunders had command of the fleet, and among the officers was Captain Cook, who afterwards became celebrated for his voyages round the world.

204. Towards the end of June the British fleet, consisting of about fifty sail, anchored off the Island of Orleans in full view of Quebec. Wolfe landed his troops, numbering about eight thousand, on the island, which he made his headquarters. His practised eye saw that the task assigned him was most difficult. Before him on the high northern bank of the St. Lawrence, two hundred feet above the water, the city was perched, like an eagle's nest among the rocks. From the edge of the precipice grimly rose the Castle of St. Louis. The mouth of the St. Charles, just below the city, was guarded by heavy guns placed on a platform of sunken vessels; and the high bank between the St. Charles and the Montmorency, a distance of eight miles, was one continuous line of earthworks, redoubts, and frowning batteries. Above the city for about the same distance, to Cape Rouge, every landing-place was strongly fortified. Behind these fortifications and at the various approaches

to the city, were thirteen thousand Frenchmen of all ages, from the boy of thirteen to the old man of seventy. Inspired with the true spirit of patriotism, each felt anxious to do what he could to save his country in this hour of peril.

THE SIEGE OF QUEBEC.



The river was very shallow along the northern shore, so that the war-ships were unable to approach sufficiently near to effect serious injury on the French lines. Wolfe was sadly perplexed ; at times almost discouraged.

Fire-Ships. — 205. The French contrived the following plan for destroying the British fleet. One dark night six fire-ships well provided

with shells and various explosives, with slow matches attached, were set adrift in the river, that they might float down among the British ships lying at anchor and set them on fire. Fortunately the explosion occurred before the fire-ships reached the neighborhood of the fleet. The thundering crash of the explosion and the glaring flames that lit up the darkness startled the British tars; but they got out their boats, and with grappling hooks and poles turned away the fire-ships, so that no damage was done.

206. On the south side of the river, about three-fourths of a mile below Quebec, a promontory called Point Levi stands out boldly in front of the city. Wolfe gained possession of this headland, and from it effectively assailed the town with shot and shell. Much of the city was laid in ruins, and all the inhabitants not engaged in its defence fled to the country. Various expedients were resorted to to induce Montcalm to leave his intrenchments and try the fortune of war in the open field; but he was too wise to expose himself to unnecessary risk.

Failures. — 207. Wolfe landed troops below the Montmorency, hoping to be able to cross this river and fight his way through the lines of the enemy to Quebec. But the fording-places were all carefully guarded for miles inland, so that the plan did not succeed. Then Wolfe took a bolder course. While the batteries on Point Levi were pouring a heavy fire on the French lines, a flotilla of barges carried a body of troops to the flats above the mouth of the Montmorency. With considerable loss the troops effected a landing, and the foremost, eager for the contest, instead of waiting for reinforcements, rushed up the steep bank. The ascent, difficult at best, was slippery from a sudden shower of rain. The men stumbled, and many of them fell before the destructive fire which the enemy poured down upon them. Finally, they retreated to their boats, leaving over four hundred of their comrades dead on the rugged bank. Wolfe was of feeble physical constitution; his sensitive and ambitious spirit chafed under this disaster and brought on a raging fever, of which he lay ill for days.

Scaling the Heights. — 208. Near the end of August General Wolfe called a council of war, at which General Townshend proposed a mode of attack which events

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crowned with success. It was decided to divide the army and leave one part to occupy the attention of Montcalm, while the other should secretly climb the banks and reach the highland plains before they were discovered. So, while the battery at Point Levi and part of the fleet thundered away at Quebec and the Beauport shore below the city, the greater part of the forces were conveyed up the river eight miles above Quebec. Early on the morning of September 13, before daylight, the ships and barges carrying the soldiers dropped down to the point previously selected as a landing-place. As they floated silently with the stream, Wolfe quieted his mind by repeating the beautiful poem called "Gray's Elegy," then recently published, remarking as he finished, "I would rather be the author of that poem than the conqueror of Quebec." A little above the city, at a place now known as "Wolfe's Cove," a narrow, rugged pathway was found, leading up the bank. Stealthily along this pathway the British soldiers clambered, dragging themselves up by branches of trees. When the sun rose, Wolfe, with nearly five thousand men formed in line of battle, stood on the Plains of Abraham.

209. General Montcalm could scarcely credit the messenger who came in haste to tell him that the British had gained the heights. A large part of his army had been sent up the river to keep the English from landing; but being still superior in numbers, he resolved to give battle before Wolfe could strengthen his position. It would have been more prudent if he had remained behind his ramparts. At the sound of drum and bugle, the French gathered hastily and prepared to meet the invaders. They numbered about seven thousand five hundred.

The Battle. — 210. Wolfe moved to and fro among his

men, cheering them by his presence and his words, charging them not to fire until the enemy were within forty yards. The French rushed on courageously, making many a break in the red line by their destructive fire. The English stood firm as a wall, moving only to fill the gaps. But when the word "Fire!" rang through the air, every gun was levelled as by a single arm, and one simultaneous and overwhelming volley swept across the opposing lines. Fearful was the havoc among the French. The dead and wounded strewn the plain, and the columns were completely disorganized. The militia fled in confusion. The regulars, animated by their gallant commander, fought manfully; but they could not withstand the impetuous attack of the column that bore down upon them. The battle was short and decisive. The French were driven behind their walls, leaving the British masters of the field.

Wolfe and Montcalm. — 211. The two brave commanders, Wolfe and Montcalm, both fell mortally wounded. Three times was Wolfe smitten before he gave up to die, or relaxed his energy. A shattered hand was bound up with a handkerchief; a side pierced with a bullet seemed to arouse new energy; a fatal wound in the breast could not weaken his heroic valor. He asked for the support of those near him, that the soldiers might not see him fall. As he was borne to the rear, he heard the words, "They run." — "Who run?" eagerly asked the dying hero. "The enemy, sir," was the reply. "Then," said Wolfe, "God be praised! I die in peace."

Montcalm received two wounds during the battle, the second a mortal one, causing him to fall from his horse. When told that he had not long to live, he replied, "So much the better, I shall not see the surrender of Quebec."

Surrender of Quebec. — 212. General Townshend, on

whom the command of the British forces now devolved, dragged his cannon up the banks for an assault upon the ramparts. The city was already a mass of ruins, and the inhabitants were in a starving condition; accordingly, four days after the battle, the French surrendered. During the ensuing winter General Murray with a British garrison held the city.

Efforts to Recapture Quebec. — 213. Early in the following spring De Levi, at the head of seven thousand men, attempted to retake Quebec. Although he had only about half that number of men, General Murray imprudently marched out to meet the enemy. The struggle was a hard one; in the end the British were defeated and forced to take refuge in the city. There was now very little fighting ability on either side, and the one first to receive help from the mother country seemed likely to win the prize. So, when a ship was seen coming up the river, it was with feverish anxiety that all eyes watched her approach. When she unfurled the British flag, cheers of exultation rang out from behind the ramparts, and De Levi retreated hastily, leaving his baggage behind him.

The Closing Scene. — 214. The French made one final struggle at Montreal before yielding their beloved Canada. Governor De Vaudreuil and General De Levi gathered all their forces at this place. A large part of their army consisted of militia, who had now little enthusiasm in carrying on the war, and were deserting in large numbers to provide for their starving families. All the outposts having been taken, three British armies, numbering from fifteen to twenty thousand men, closed in upon them. Vaudreuil, seeing there was little use in wasting the lives of the King's troops in so desperate a cause, gave up the city and surrendered his men as prisoners of war.

Treaty of Paris. 1763, A. D. — 215. The war continued in Europe for more than two years after it had ended in America. British arms were everywhere successful, and all parties desired peace. Accordingly a

treaty was signed at Paris, in which France ceded to Great Britain Canada, Cape Breton, St. John's Island, and all the islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence except Miquelon and St. Pierre, which were retained as fishing stations. Great Britain also obtained from France important territories in other parts of the world, so that King George in his joy exclaimed, "Never did any nation sign such a peace before!"

The Canadians. — 216. There were in Canada at this time about sixty-five thousand French people. They were secured in the possession of their property and the free enjoyment of their religion. It was a great change for them to become British subjects; but it was a change which they had little cause to regret, and with the exception of a few nobility who remained in the country, they transferred their allegiance with the best possible grace. They could scarcely grieve very much over the removal of a power which had kept them under such officers as the avaricious Bigot.

CHAPTER XVII.

CHANGES IN GOVERNMENT.

The first Assembly in Nova Scotia. 1758, A. D. **217.** The English colonists in Nova Scotia had been promised a representative legislature, and the laws passed by the Governor and Council were considered by legal authorities to be of no force. Governor Lawrence was accordingly instructed by the British Government to

call on the people of Nova Scotia to elect a House of Assembly. He obeyed the order unwillingly, fearing that such a body might assume too much power and obstruct the policy of his government. The first Assembly, consisting of twenty-two members, met in the Court House in Halifax on the 2d of October, 1758. Roman Catholics were not allowed to sit as members or to vote at elections.

Colonists from New England. — 218. Better days now began to dawn on Nova Scotia. On the invitation of Governor Lawrence many colonists came from New England and settled on the farms from which the Acadians had been expelled. The fertile lands of Annapolis, Cornwallis, Horton, Windsor, Truro, Onslow, and Cumberland were thus occupied by a good class of people. There was no more trouble with the Indians. Their chiefs came to Halifax and made a treaty of peace. Laden with presents they went away well pleased with their newly made friends.

The population of the province was at this time estimated at thirteen thousand, of which the Acadians formed about one-fifth.

Governors. — 219. In the midst of the prosperity which he had done so much to promote, Governor Lawrence died suddenly. For two or three years the duties of governor were discharged by Chief-Justice Belcher. Then Montague Wilmot was appointed to the office, and at the end of three years he was succeeded by Lord William Campbell.

An Alarm. 1762, A. D. — 220. During the war which formed the subject of the preceding chapter, the French captured St. John's, the capital of Newfoundland. When the news reached Halifax, the wildest alarm seized the people, lest the enemy should next attack Nova Scotia. Councils of war were held; forts were repaired; martial law was proclaimed; and the militia were brought from the country to defend the capital. But the French did not come.

221. So great was the panic in Annapolis, Cornwallis, and Boston that many Acadians who had been employed as laborers to repair the dikes were seized and sent to Halifax as prisoners. More of these people were brought in from other parts of the province, and all were sent to Boston. The Governor of Massachusetts would not allow them to land, but ordered that they be taken back to Nova Scotia. They were kept some time in Halifax as prisoners. Some of them afterwards went to the West Indies; others took the oath of allegiance and received grants of land in Nova Scotia. Many descendants of the old Acadians now live in different parts of the province, and are as loyal to the British Crown as their neighbors of other races.

Pictou. — 222. The first English settlers in Pictou consisted of a few families, who in 1767 came from Philadelphia in a small vessel called the "Hope." They endured great hardships, getting much of their food for a year or two by hunting and fishing. To obtain seed for the spring-planting some of the men travelled on foot through an unbroken forest to Truro, nearly fifty miles, carrying home on their backs their bags of potatoes.

Six years later, thirty families came to Pictou from Scotland in the ship "Hector." These suffered even more than those who preceded them. They had time only to build rude huts before winter set in. To prevent their families from starving, the men went to Truro, where they hired as laborers, and dragged home on hand-sleds the flour and potatoes given them in payment for their work.

New Territory Annexed to Nova Scotia. 1763, A. D. **223.** The territory now known as New Brunswick formed a part of the Province of Nova Scotia, as the County of Sunbury. The islands of Cape Breton and St. John's (Prince Edward Island) were also annexed to Nova Scotia. St. John's Island was divided into lots or townships, which were given to officers of the army and others having claims on the British Government, on condition of paying a small yearly tax called *quit rent* and placing on their lands at least one colonist

for every two hundred acres. In 1770 the Island was formed into a separate province, although the whole population was included in one hundred and fifty families and there were but five resident proprietors.

The Province of Quebec. — 224. Canada, or the Province of Quebec, as it was called, was for some time after the conquest ruled by military officers. In 1763 the power of making and enforcing laws was vested in a Governor and Council. The local authorities, however, had no right to impose duties on imported goods, or to make laws for the regulation of trade, this power being reserved to the British Parliament. In order to induce English people to settle in the province promises were made, that, as soon as circumstances would permit, the people should be allowed to choose a representative Assembly similar to those of the other British colonies. General Murray was the first Governor.

Pontiac. — 225. The Indians of the West, regarding the English as intruders, devised a crafty plot to drive them from the country. This originated with a chief named Pontiac, one of the cleverest and most noted Indians spoken of in the history of Canada. Pontiac sent his messengers through all the tribes of the Ohio Valley and the country around the great lakes to arrange for a simultaneous attack upon the English settlements in the West. Thus, by cunning stratagem or by open assault, the savages seized nine forts and cruelly put their garrisons to death. At Mackinaw, on Lake Michigan, they invited the officers to witness a game of La Crosse. The gates of the fort were left open, and, when all were excited over the game, the Indians rushed in, killed part of the garrison, and made prisoners of the rest. At Detroit the stratagem was less successful. The wily Pontiac, accompanied by sixty warriors, each with a short gun concealed under his blanket, sought admission to the fort to smoke the pipe of peace. But the English had received timely warning, and to Pontiac's surprise he was met by armed soldiers ready for battle. This Indian war lasted several months, when, through the good management of Sir William Johnson, the savages were pacified.

English and French Laws. — 226. The English laws

introduced into Canada in 1763 were very different from those which were previously in force in the country. The people did not like the change. In the French courts the judge alone decided the cause; trial by jury, in which the agreement of all the jurymen was required before a verdict could be given, seemed to them a contest to try the jurymen's power of endurance, rather than a means to decide the merits of the cause. The French laws relating to the ownership and transfer of lands were very unlike those of England. Under the French system, introduced when the Company of the Hundred Associates was formed, the country was divided into large estates called *seigniories*, the titles to which were held by nobles called *seigniors*. These estates were divided into lots or farms, and the peasants who occupied the lands paid an annual rent to the seignior. Also, when the peasant sold his right to the land, one-twelfth of the purchase-money was paid to the seignior. The *habitans*, or common people, were uneducated and unacquainted with business, and they preferred a state of dependence. Under this system a creditor could not take a man's land for debt, as the holder of the land was under the protection of his seignior; but it tended to prevent improvements, for the more valuable the land became the greater tax was imposed on it.

Another peculiarity in the French system was the absence of registration of deeds and mortgages. The peasants were much opposed to registration, thinking it involved needless expense. Moreover, as they could not read they were suspicious of written records, through fear of fraud. Their system, however, often led to bad results, and the English settlers disliked it very much. One could mortgage his land secretly to different persons for more than its value, and then sell it to another who knew nothing of these incumbrances until the mortgagee presented his claim.

The Quebec Act. 1774, A. D. — 227. Sir Guy Carle-

ton succeeded General Murray as Governor of Canada. He found matters in a very disturbed condition, arising from the conflict between the old French laws and the English laws which had been proclaimed in 1763. The French people did not understand the new laws, and they disliked them so much that it was difficult to enforce them. Accordingly Carleton recommended the British Government to restore the old laws as far as possible. So, after some delay, the House of Commons in 1774 passed the "Quebec Act," by which the "Custom of Paris," as the French laws were called, became the law of Canada. By the same Act the bounds of the province were extended to include the Ohio Valley. The English settlers in Canada were greatly opposed to the Quebec Act, and there was strong feeling against it throughout the other colonies.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

British Colonies in North America. 228. Great Britain had now an unbroken line of colonies along the Atlantic from Newfoundland to Georgia, and her people were rapidly occupying the interior of the continent. There were in all seventeen colonies, as follows, each having its own local government: Nova Scotia, St. John's Island, Newfoundland, Quebec, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Mary-

land, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

Discord. — 229. King George III. had scarcely ceased exulting in his splendid victories over the French and in the glory won for his crown by the acquisition of new territory, when a quarrel arose between his government and his North American colonies, which led to a disastrous war and the erection of the last named thirteen colonies into an independent republic.

Grievances. — 230. Unwise statesmen ruled Great Britain at this time, — men who denied the colonists the privileges and liberties of British subjects. We cannot speak of all the grievances of which the colonies complained. The colonial merchants were not allowed to import tea, sugar, spices, and many other articles directly from the country which produced them, but were compelled to obtain them from Great Britain. This not only caused delay, but greatly increased the cost of the goods. It also led to smuggling, and this again to seizure of goods and vessels by government officers. Then the owners of smuggled goods often resisted the officers, and unseemly riots occurred. Again, in order to protect the manufacturers in England, the colonists were not allowed to make certain articles, but were compelled to import them from Great Britain.

231. But what most aroused the indignation of the colonists and drove them to rebellion was a tax imposed on them by the Parliament of Great Britain. At first, in 1765, the "Stamp Act" was passed, which made it necessary that all legal papers, such as deeds, wills, and notes of hand, should be written on paper bearing a government stamp. This paper was sold by ~~the~~ ^{the} ~~government~~ ^{the} ~~for the purpose~~ ^{the} ~~and the money was paid over to the~~ ^{the}

British Government. In one way it did not seem unreasonable that the colonists should help to make up the revenue of Great Britain. The nation was loaded with debt, incurred in the long and expensive wars with France, carried on in large measure for the defence of the colonies. Indeed, the colonies did not so much object to the tax, as to the fact that it was imposed by a Parliament in which they were not represented. This was contrary to the principles of British freedom. And so there were murmurings throughout all the country ; while in Boston, Philadelphia, and other cities the indignation of the people was manifested in various ways. Muffled bells were rung, flags were hung at half-mast, and the officers appointed to sell the stamps were treated so roughly that they were compelled in many cases to resign their office.

The Boston Tea-Party. — 232. The repeal of the Stamp Act caused a brief lull. Then the hateful tax was imposed again in the form of a duty on tea, and the storm burst forth with increased fury. The colonists banded together and pledged themselves to use no tea or other articles which paid a royal duty. In Boston a number of men, disguised as Indians, went on board ships laden with tea and threw the cargoes into the harbor.

233. A congress of delegates was held in Philadelphia, at which the grievances were discussed, and a memorial to the British Government was drawn up and signed. Canada and Nova Scotia were invited to join the other colonies in their efforts to avoid the tax ; but they would not be drawn into the quarrel.

The War Begins. 1775, A. D. — 234. Meanwhile the Parliament in Great Britain insisted on its right to tax the colonies ; the colonies as firmly opposed this claim.

British soldiers were sent to enforce obedience to the laws, and the colonists, seeing that force was about to be used, prepared for war. They collected arms and ammunition, which they stored at Concord, near Boston. General Gage, who commanded the British troops, sent a body of men one night to seize these military stores. Their purpose was soon known, and messengers were sent from Boston to the neighboring towns, signal lights were hung on church steeples, and bells were rung to rouse the people. As the soldiers returned to Boston they were attacked all along the way, many of them were killed, and the rest narrowly escaped being taken prisoners. Thus began the Revolutionary War, which lasted six years.

Declaration of Independence.

1776, A. D.

235. At first the colonies did not think of separating from Great Britain; their object was to free themselves from the payment of what they considered an unjust tax. But in the second year of the war a congress of delegates met at Philadelphia and declared the independence of the thirteen colonies, giving the country the name of the *United States of America*.

Invasion of Canada.

1775, A. D. -- 236. As Canada refused to join in the rebellion, the insurgents sent two armies to invade the country, supposing that the French colonists would unite with them against the British. One army, under General Montgomery, proceeded by way of Lake Champlain against Montreal; the other, under Arnold, went up the valley of the Kennebec, and thence through the pathless forests to Quebec. Arnold's men had a toilsome march, and they were nearly starved when they reached Quebec. In their extreme hunger they ate dogs, and even gnawed their shoes and the

leather of their knapsacks. The people of Quebec had not thought it possible that an enemy could reach them by that route, and when Arnold appeared at Point Levi, opposite the city, they were quite unprepared for defence. Indeed, if Arnold could have transported his men across the river immediately, he would probably have made an easy conquest. Montgomery, having taken Montreal, advanced to Arnold's assistance against Quebec. He was killed early in the siege. Arnold remained near Quebec all winter; but in the following summer he was driven out of Canada by way of Lake Champlain.

Nova Scotia During the War.—237. The Assembly at Halifax gave no answer to the letter sent by the Congress of Philadelphia, and for the most part the people of Nova Scotia were loyal to Great Britain during the war. Some officers under the Government were removed from office for saying that the duty on tea was unjust. A proclamation was issued, forbidding the people to hold public meetings for the discussion of affairs connected with the government of the country.

238. During the war the coast settlements were kept in constant alarm by privateers fitted out in New England. Yarmouth, Annapolis, Cornwallis, Lunenburg, and other places were plundered. At Annapolis the invaders seized the block-house, spiked the cannon, and then carried off whatever they found of value in the houses and shops. Strong feeling in favor of the revolt showed itself in some places. This will not seem surprising, if we remember that many of the people occupying lands vacated by the Acadians had recently come from New England, where their friends still lived. In Cumberland a band of rebels attacked the fort, but they were soon dispersed, two or three of their number being killed in the affray. It is stated that in Londonderry, Onslow, and Truro only five persons could be found willing to take the oath of allegiance. The representatives of these townships were, on this account, not allowed to take their seats in the Assembly. At the close of the war an Act was passed by the Assembly, giving full pardon to all who had been guilty of treason.

Independence of the United States **239.** King George
recognized by Great Britain. III. was character-
1783, A. D. ized by great firm-

ness of purpose. His heart was so resolutely set on the subjugation of the revolted colonies, that for a long time he indignantly rejected all advice in favor of recognizing their independence. But public sentiment in England was far from unanimous in supporting the war. Leading statesmen pronounced it unjust, and especially condemned the manner in which it was conducted. Finally the King had to yield. Lord Cornwallis, a British commander from whom much was expected, surrendered to Washington at Yorktown, and the British House of Commons decided to end the war by acknowledging the independence of the colonies. It has been estimated that Great Britain expended \$500,000,000 and lost fifty thousand lives in this war.

240. The revolted colonies assumed the name of the "United States of America." In their struggle for independence they received important assistance from France. They owed their success largely to the skill and high character of George Washington, who was commander-in-chief of their forces, and who afterwards became the first President of the Republic.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE UNITED EMPIRE LOYALISTS.

241. MANY persons in the United States did not approve of the rebellion. On account of their desire to maintain the integrity of the British Empire they got the name of *United Empire Loyalists*. In the United States they were called *tories*, while those who took up arms against Great Britain were known as *patriots*. Many of the Loyalists came to Halifax when the war began; others remained and fought in the King's army. At the close of the war the Loyalists in the country were treated very ungenerously and harshly. They were denounced as enemies of the commonwealth, and were deprived of their property. Indeed, so bitter was public feeling against them, that in many instances it was not safe for them to remain in the country, and they were compelled to remove to British territory.

242. Great Britain dealt generously with the Loyalists. The House of Commons voted a large sum of money for their relief, and provided them with food, farming tools, and seed. They also received free grants of land in the provinces in which they settled. It is estimated that about twenty thousand of these people came to Nova Scotia, and about ten thousand to Canada.

Shelburne. — 243. A large number of Loyalists came to Port Razoir, on the Atlantic coast of Nova Scotia. This was quite a small place previous to the arrival of the Loyalists; but it now surpassed Halifax in population,

becoming a city of about twelve thousand inhabitants. In 1783 Governor Parr visited the town and gave it the name of Shelburne, which it still bears.

New Brunswick. 1784, A. D. — 244. Many of the Loyalists settled at the mouth of the St. John River. The first party came from New York, arriving in St. John Harbor on the 18th of May, 1783; others joined them later in the season. In honor of Governor Parr they named the place *Parr-town*. Very soon, however, they became dissatisfied with their condition. They complained to Governor Parr that their lands were not surveyed; he, in turn, blamed them for their unwillingness to assist the surveyors. They claimed the privilege of sending a member to the Assembly at Halifax; but the Governor replied that his instructions disallowed any increase of members in that body. Then the Loyalists petitioned the British Government to make their country a separate province. Their general intelligence and high social standing gave them such influence with the authorities that they easily gained their object. Accordingly, in 1784, the Province of New Brunswick was set off from Nova Scotia and placed under a separate government. Colonel Thomas Carleton was appointed governor, and provision was made for a legislature similar to that of Nova Scotia. The name of Parr-town was changed to *St. John*, and the first two sessions of the legislature were held in that city. In 1788 Fredericton, formerly called St. Ann's, was made the capital of the province.

Canada. — 245. That part of Canada west of the Ottawa River, now forming the Province of Ontario, had remained unsettled until the close of the war, except at a few isolated points where trading-posts had been established and forts erected. It was thought best

that the English-speaking people should not settle among the French. Accordingly lands were given to the Loyalists along the Upper St. Lawrence and on the north of Lake Ontario.

The Constitutional Act. 1791, A. D. — 246. The English people of Canada had never been satisfied with the French laws, and now, strengthened by the Loyalists, they began an agitation for the repeal of the Quebec Act. The French, on the other hand, were clamorous for the retention of their ancient laws. Finally, as the easiest solution of the difficulty, the British Parliament passed the "Constitutional Act," by which the Province of Quebec was divided into two provinces, — *Upper Canada* and *Lower Canada*, separated for the most part by the Ottawa River. Each province had its own governor and legislature, including an Assembly and a Council.

247. Lord Dorchester was continued as Governor-General and Governor of the Province of Lower Canada; Colonel Simcoe was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada. The population of Lower Canada was at this time about 150,000; that of Upper Canada, 20,000.

248. The Act of 1791 provided for the support of a Protestant clergy in each province by setting apart one-seventh of all the ungranted lands for this purpose. These lands, known as the "Clergy Reserves," afterwards became the subject of much agitation.

CHAPTER XX.

PEACE AND PROGRESS.

249. HAVING no foreign enemies to fight and no external dangers to guard against, the people of the provinces were able to give the more attention to the development of the resources of their country. Many of the Loyalists who had settled in the various provinces were men of excellent education, whose intelligence and refinement exerted a most salutary influence on public affairs and social life. The people began to take more interest in the government of the country, and many of their representatives in the Assembly would have graced the legislative halls of much older countries. A natural result of this increased intelligence and interest in political matters was frequent disturbance of the machinery of government, — a struggle of the new with the old, — the representatives of the people claiming their rights against governors and councils.

Government. — 250. The form of government was much the same in all the provinces, being modelled after that of Great Britain. The Governor represented the Sovereign, and the Parliament comprised two Houses, the Council and the Assembly. The Council was appointed by the Crown, that is, by the Governor acting in behalf of the Sovereign. Its members were usually selected from the most wealthy and influential class, and held office for life. The Bishop of the Church of England and the Chief-Justice were *ex officio* members of the Council.

251. In the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada the Assembly was elected for the term of four years. In Nova Scotia at first it was elected for no definite period, but continued during the pleasure of the Governor. The House elected in 1770 was not dissolved until 1785, and is known as the *Long Parliament* of Nova Scotia. In 1792 an Act was passed requiring that a new House should be elected every seven years. At this time Roman Catholics were not allowed to sit in the Assembly of Nova Scotia, or to vote at elections. Indeed, previous to 1783, they could not own lands or legally celebrate public worship in the province.

252. The provinces of Upper and Lower Canada had also an Executive Council, whose duty it was to advise the Governor in the administration of the government. Its members were appointed by the Crown and held office for life. Many of them were also members of the Legislative Council. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick had each but one Council, which performed both legislative and executive duties. Neither the people nor their representatives had any direct influence over the men who administered the government, having neither voice in their appointment nor power to remove them from office. We shall see that this afterwards came to be regarded as a grievance, and led to an agitation which resulted in what is known as *responsible government*.

253. In the early times the Governor and Council appropriated the public money pretty much as they pleased, and gave very little account of the expenditure. The members of the Assembly were not satisfied with this, but claimed, that, as the public money belonged to the people, its appropriation should vest in the people's representatives. We shall see that after much agitation this

principle was conceded, and now all bills relating to money matters must originate in the lower House.

Legislative Customs. — 254. When the Assembly first meets after an election, it chooses one of its members to preside and maintain order. This officer is called the *Speaker*. A record of all the business transacted is carefully written in books kept for this purpose, called the *Journals*. When a measure is first brought before the House, it is called a *Bill*; after it has been agreed to by both Houses and received the assent of the Governor, it is called an *Act*. When the House stops its proceedings to resume where it left off at another specified time, it is said to be *adjourned*. All the different meetings of a House which are ended by adjournments constitute a *session*. When the members are dismissed by the Governor, without any time being named for them to meet again, and they would require to be summoned by special proclamation, the House is said to be *prorogued*. The session is then ended, and all unfinished business counts for nothing. When the House is dismissed, not to be called together until after a new election, it is said to be *dissolved*.

King's College. — 255. The founding of King's College was an important event in the early history of Nova Scotia. For many years there was no college or academy in the province. The Assembly, fearing that young men would become alienated from their own country by going abroad for higher education, resolved to establish an academy at Windsor. The institution was opened in 1789, and a few years after it received a royal charter as King's College. According to the early by-laws all students were required to attend the services of the Church of England, and all graduates to sign the articles of that church.

Impeachment of Judges. — 256. Considerable agitation was caused in Nova Scotia by the action of two lawyers, who made serious charges against the Judges Deschamps and Brenton, the former of whom was a member of the Council. The Assembly passed resolutions condemning the Judges and calling on the Governor to remove them from office. Governor Parr refused to comply with this request, in which action he was sustained by the British Government.

Royal Visitors. — 257. Two princes, sons of George III., visited Quebec and Halifax. Prince William Henry,

Duke of Clarence, who held the position of captain in his Majesty's navy, came first. He afterwards ascended the throne as King William IV. Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, the father of Queen Victoria, came to Quebec in 1791, where, for over two years, he held command of his Majesty's troops. In 1794 he was removed to Halifax, and here also for over two years he filled the position of commander-in-chief of the forces in British America.

258. Prince Edward's favorite residence was the Prince's Lodge, a beautiful place belonging to Governor Wentworth, on the west side of Bedford Basin, about six miles from Halifax. In maintaining discipline the Prince was strict even to severity. The rules which he enforced did much to break up the drinking and gambling habits which prevailed in the garrison at the time of his arrival. When off duty the Prince was most affable and courteous. He became a great favorite with all classes of the community. As he was one day riding through the town his horse stumbled and fell. The Prince was seriously injured by the fall, and he shortly afterwards went to England for medical treatment. In the following year he returned to Halifax; owing to failing health, however, he remained but a short time.

The Maroons. — 259. In the year 1796 about five hundred negroes were brought to Halifax from the Island of Jamaica in the West Indies. They were called *Maroons*. For many years they had been causing so much trouble that it was thought best to remove them from the island. Making their home in the glens and caves of the mountains, they often came out to rob the settlements; then, when pursued, they fled to their mountain fastnesses. Every effort to dislodge them was in vain. Finally the English resolved to hunt them with dogs, and imported a savage breed for the purpose. When the negroes heard of the dogs, they were filled with alarm, and gave themselves up as prisoners. When brought to Halifax, they were at first lodged in tents near the city, and were employed by Prince Edward to work on the fortifications of Citadel Hill. They were afterwards removed to Preston, in the neighborhood of the city, where they were for some time supported by the Government of Jamaica. This aid being withdrawn, they were told that they must earn their own living. They now suffered much from hunger, as well as from the severe cold of winter, to which they were unaccustomed. Finally, four years after their arrival, they were removed to Sierra Leone, in Africa.

Governor Wentworth. — 260. On the death of Governor Parr, in 1791, Sir John Wentworth became Governor of Nova Scotia, which office he held for sixteen years. He was a man of unbending integrity, but belonged to the old school of politicians, who seemed to imagine that the people existed for the sole purpose of being governed. He was careful to uphold the dignity and power of the Council, appointing to this body those who stood highest in wealth, social rank, and regard for his Majesty's representative, without looking very much to their knowledge of the condition and wants of the province.

261. During Wentworth's rule the interests of country and city were frequently brought into conflict. The Assembly desired to appropriate the public money on roads and bridges, so as to open up the country for settlement. The members of the Council, being independent of the people and residing in Halifax, took a different view of matters. They cut down the amounts voted by the Assembly, preferring to spend the money on public buildings and in large salaries. When the amended money bills were sent back by the Council, the Assembly ordered them "to be thrown under the table." In these disputes Governor Wentworth supported the Council. William Cottnam Tonge was the leader of the popular party, and by his opposition to the policy of the Governor made himself the object of his Excellency's resentment. Tonge was elected Speaker of the House ; but Sir John using a prerogative seldom exercised, refused to accept him, and the House reluctantly met the difficulty by electing another Speaker.

262. Although Sir John Wentworth did not always act wisely, his government on the whole tended to promote the prosperity of the province.

and was acceptable to the people. On retiring from office he was allowed a pension of £1,000 for the remainder of his life, paid in equal shares by the Governments of Great Britain and Nova Scotia. He died at Halifax in 1820, at the advanced age of eighty-four years. During his term of office was built the handsome stone edifice in Halifax known as "Government House," still used as the official residence of the Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia. In its architectural design the building is a close copy of Lansdowne House, in London.

263. Sir George Prevost succeeded Governor Wentworth; but in 1811 he was appointed Governor-General, and Sir John Sherbrooke became Governor of Nova Scotia. Shortly before Sir George left Halifax he laid the corner-stone of the Province Building, in which the Legislature of Nova Scotia has met for the last sixty years, closing the ceremony with the words: "May the building that shall arise from this foundation perpetuate the loyalty and liberality of the province." The building is of free-stone obtained from Wallace, in Cumberland County; it was finished in 1819, costing about \$200,000.

New Brunswick. — 264. Meanwhile the new Province of New Brunswick had been steadily growing in wealth and population. Her leading industries, lumbering and ship-building, rapidly developed, and both St. John and Miramichi became important centres of trade. In political matters, however, her condition much resembled that of Nova Scotia. Disputes between the two branches of the legislature began early, originating in the rejection by the Council of a bill providing for the payment to members of the Assembly of seven shillings and sixpence per day during the session. The Assembly then placed the amount with the appropriations for roads and bridges, and other public services. The Council rejected the whole bill, and for three years no moneys were voted.

Thomas Carleton held the office of governor during

twenty years. On his retirement the government was administered for several years by members of the Council.

Prince Edward Island. 1799, A. D. — 265. In 1799, in honor of Edward Duke of Kent, St. John's Island was called *Prince Edward Island*. At this date the province had made little progress. The proprietors, to whom the island had been granted, failed to fulfil their obligations in regard to the settlement of their lands, so that many townships were yet without inhabitants. The total population was about 4,500.

Lower Canada. — 266. Matters connected with the government did not proceed very smoothly in the French Province of Lower Canada. Jealousy of race was added to other difficulties. The sitting of judges in the Legislature was a subject of much angry dispute. Bills passed by the Assembly were often rejected by the Council; the Governor-General arbitrarily broke up the discussion of public grievances by dissolving the House; and general lack of harmony prevailed.

Upper Canada. — 267. The Legislature of Upper Canada met first at Newark, a village near the mouth of the Niagara River. Governor Simcoe afterwards selected York (Toronto) — a place at that time with scarcely a house or an inhabitant — as the capital of the province.

CHAPTER XXI.

"THE WAR OF 1812."

268. DISPUTES between Councils and Assemblies were now for a time silenced by the tumult of war. The old feeling of enmity towards Great Britain had not died out in the United States, but only awaited an occasion to call it into new life. Circumstances favorable for its development soon arose, and there came the "War of 1812." Although Canada had done nothing to bring about the war, she had to bear its chief burdens and calamities. The conflict was mainly on Canadian soil, and for a period of nearly three years, while it lasted, the people of Canada, almost unaided, were required to repel the invaders from their homes. Right nobly did United Empire Loyalists and French Canadians show their patriotism and their valor. The Indians, too, throwing themselves into the struggle, but with less barbarity than had been their wont, by their fidelity and courage, proved themselves worthy of a home on Canadian soil.

Causes of the War. — 269. Great Britain was at this time engaged in a very arduous war with France. Napoleon, the ambitious Emperor of France, had conquered nearly all the countries of Europe. Great Britain alone seemed to stand in the way of his complete triumph, and he saw no means of humbling this powerful foe. Sometimes he thought of crossing the channel and invading her island home ; but this seemed too perilous an en-

terprise. Great Britain was then, as she is now, a great manufacturing country, and she carried on a most extensive trade with Europe and America. Napoleon thought to weaken her power by stopping her trade. So he issued a proclamation declaring Great Britain to be under blockade ; that is, in a state of siege, and shut out from intercourse with the rest of the world. Any merchant-ships found going to her ports or coming from them were liable to seizure. (Great Britain retaliated by issuing a similar order, forbidding the nations to trade with France. These blockades caused great damage to commerce. Many merchant vessels from the United States in trying to run the blockade were seized, some by English cruisers and some by French. The Government of the United States complained loudly, more especially when the British were the offenders.

The United States Government urged another grievance. Sailors were in the habit of deserting in large numbers from the royal navy, and seeking employment on board merchant-ships of the United States. Great Britain claimed the right to search American ships in mid-ocean for these runaways.)

270. Many people in the United States did not approve of the war ; they thought that all the difficulties could be settled peaceably. The majority in the New England States were of this opinion. President Madison, however and the Democratic party generally were eager for war, and a circumstance occurred which helped on their wishes. It was rumored that the people of New England were not well affected towards the Government of the United States, and Sir James Craig, the Governor-General of Canada, sent an agent to Boston to report on the state of public feeling. The agent, not receiving so much for his services as he

demanded, went to Washington and revealed the nature of his mission to the President. No facts of much importance were disclosed, but the publication of the story made a sensation.

War Declared. June 18, 1812. — 271. War was declared by the United States in June, and by Great Britain in the following October. In some parts of the United States there was great rejoicing; but in Boston flags were hung at half-mast in token of dissatisfaction. The Legislatures of both Upper and Lower Canada voted large sums of money to carry on the war, and took steps to prepare the militia for active service. The total number of regular troops in both provinces was at this time only about four thousand five hundred.

Events of 1812. — 272. During the first year of the war the Americans invaded Canada at three points. An army under General Hull crossed over from Michigan into the western peninsula; another, under Rensselaer, crossed the Niagara River from New York; and a third, under Dearborn, came against Lower Canada by way of Lake Champlain. All were failures. General Brock, the Governor of Upper Canada, and the Indian chief Tecumseh were the principal Canadian heroes. By sea the Americans were more successful. Their frigates, the "Constitution" and the "United States," captured several British ships.

Hull's Defeat. — 273. General Hull entered Western Canada with an army of two thousand five hundred men. He issued a boastful proclamation, stating that he had a force which would "look down all opposition," and offering freedom from British tyranny to all who would accept his protection. General Brock marched against him with seven hundred men, being joined on the way by Tecumseh at the head of six hundred Indians. Hull, hearing of his advance and alarmed by news of the capture of Fort Mackinaw by a small British force, retreated to Detroit.

Brock pursued him and soon compelled him to surrender the city, together with his entire army. On his return to the United States, Hull was sentenced by court-martial to be shot for cowardice, but was subsequently pardoned on account of former services. General Brock returned to York, leaving General Proctor in command at Detroit.

Battle of Queenston. — 274. An American army of about six thousand men, under Rensselaer, was collected on the Niagara frontier. The Canadians had at their different forts on the opposite side of the river only about one-fourth of this number. A strong detachment of the American



THE NIAGARA FRONTIER.

army crossed over from Lewiston and captured Queenston Heights. General Brock, who was at Fort George, seven miles away, heard the roaring of cannon, and hastened to the scene. He arrived early in the morning, just as the Americans had gained the Heights. Rallying the retreating forces and inspiring them with his own eager enthusiasm, he led them back to the conflict. The garrison from Fort Chippewa, and Tecumseh with his Indians, joined his standard. Queenston Heights were recaptured, and nine hundred of the enemy, with several of their officers, were taken prisoners. But the victory was dearly bought. In an early engagement Brock fell mortally wounded. Both in civil and military affairs, General Brock was distinguished for his energy, decision, and prudence. A monument marks the spot where he fell.

"The Army of the North." — 275. An army of ten thousand men,

called the "Army of the North," under General Dearborn, threatened to invade Lower Canada. Some skirmishing took place along the frontier; but the Americans showed little spirit for war, retiring without any general engagement.

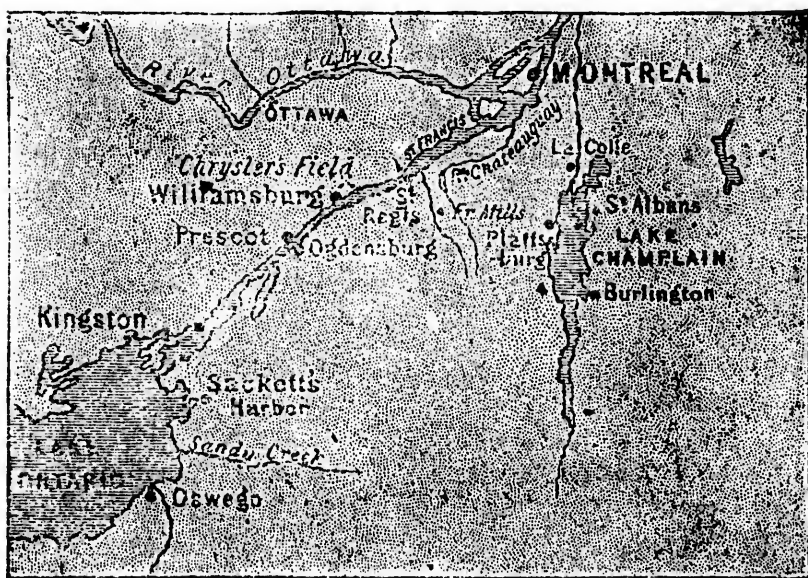
Events of 1813. — 276. During the second year of the war the Americans had the advantage in Upper Canada. They took York, the capital of the province, captured a British fleet on Lake Erie, forced Proctor to abandon Detroit, and drove General Vincent from Fort George, on the Niagara. On the other hand, the British gained the Battle of Stony Creek, and in the end compelled the Americans to abandon Fort George, pursuing them across the river and capturing several important places on the frontier. In the east the Canadians repelled two invading armies sent to take Montreal, gaining the battles of Chrysler's Farm and Chateaugay with forces greatly inferior in point of numbers to those of the enemy. The capture of the "Chesapeake" by the British frigate the "Shannon," near Boston, was the chief event on the ocean.

Capture of York and Fort George. — 277. Early in the spring, Commodore Chauncey, sailing from Sackett's Harbor with fourteen armed vessels bearing two thousand soldiers under General Dearborn, appeared before York. Having made an easy conquest of the capital, and having burned the principal buildings, the American fleet proceeded to Niagara. General Vincent, the commander of the British forces in this quarter, finding himself greatly outnumbered by the enemy and his position untenable, abandoned Fort George, making an orderly retreat to Burlington Heights, at the western end of Lake Ontario. He had now about sixteen hundred men.

Stony Creek. — 278. Vincent was closely pursued by over three thousand of the enemy, under Generals Winder and Chandler. Learning that his pursuers were resting in an unguarded manner at Stony Creek, about six miles distant, he sent Colonel Harvey with seven hundred men to surprise them by a night attack. Stealing softly upon them at midnight, the British with fixed bayonets sprang suddenly upon the enemy, and drove them in utter confusion. Not wishing to expose the smallness of his force, **Harvey withdrew before daylight, taking with him four of the enemy's**

guns and a hundred and twenty prisoners, including both Generals. We shall have occasion to notice this gallant Colonel as Sir John Harvey, the Governor of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.

Sackett's Harbor. — 279. In the mean time, taking advantage of the absence of Champey's fleet, Sir George Prevost, the Governor-General, attacked the Americans at Sackett's Harbor, an important naval station on the east of Lake Ontario. But for his timidity and lack of decision he might have taken the place. The Americans were about to surrender, when Prevost ordered his men to retire and wait for artillery, thus giving the enemy time to strengthen their position.



SACKETT'S HARBOR.

Capture of the "Chesapeake." — 280. The story of the capture of the "Chesapeake" is almost a household tale. Captain Broke, of the British frigate "Shannon," came up before Boston Harbor, where the "Chesapeake" was lying, and challenged Captain Lawrence to meet him in the open sea. The two ships were followed from the harbor by a fleet of sail-boats filled with the citizens of Boston, eager to see the battle and take part in the expected triumph. As the "Chesapeake" drew near there was great excite-

ment among Broke's men. "Don't cheer," said Broke, "but go quietly to your quarters."

In fifteen minutes after the first shot was fired, the "Chesapeake" was in the hands of the British; on her masts floated the British flag above the Stars and Stripes; seventy of her men lay dead, and her captain was dying of a mortal wound. "Don't give up the ship," were the words addressed to his men by this brave officer as he fell. On Sunday, June 6, the "Shannon" with her prize sailed into Halifax Harbor. Captain Lawrence was buried in Halifax with military honors. Broke, who was severely wounded in the engagement, was rewarded by his Sovereign with the title of Baronet.

Defeat of the British on Lake Erie, September 16, 1813. 281. The naval glory won for Great Britain by the "Shannon" was tarnished by defeat on Lake Erie. A British squadron of six vessels under Captain Barclay encountered the enemy's fleet of nine vessels under Lieutenant Perry. The United States flag-ship was named the "Lawrence," and inscribed on her flag were the words, "Don't give up the ship." During the engagement the "Lawrence" was disabled; but getting into an open boat, Perry carried his flag to another ship. Having captured the entire British fleet, Perry reported briefly to his superior officer, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

Battle of Moravian Town. — 282. The loss of the fleet on Lake Erie left General Proctor without means of obtaining supplies, and compelled him to abandon his position in the west. Having dismantled Amherstburg and Detroit, and destroyed his stores, he retreated rapidly and without proper precaution for the safety of his men along the valley of the Thames. His force consisted of about eight hundred men, besides five hundred Indians under Tecumseh. Closely pursued by General Harrison, at the head of three thousand five hundred men, he was forced to make a stand and give battle at Moravian Town. He

suffered a disastrous defeat. Three-fourths of his army were taken prisoners, while he with the remnant fled to Burlington Heights. The brave Indian warrior Tecumseh was among the slain. Proctor was afterwards disgraced by court-martial for his conduct on this occasion.

Chateaugay and Chrysler's Farm. — 283. Elated by their successes in the West, the Americans planned the capture of Montreal. Two large armies were set in motion for this purpose. General Hampton, with five thousand men, marched from Plattsburg, moving down the Valley of the Chateaugay. General Wilkinson, who had succeeded Dearborn at Niagara, leaving the forts in that quarter in charge of subordinates, collected an army of ten thousand men near Kingston, at the foot of Lake Ontario. The two armies were to meet at St. Regis. It was a gloomy prospect for Lower Canada, especially as the defence depended on a few militia.

284. As Hampton was marching through a forest country, he was met by Colonel de Salaberry with four hundred Canadian *voltigeurs* and Indians. The Canadian sharpshooters, protected by a breastwork of fallen trees, fired with deadly aim. Bewildered, the Americans turned their fire against each other. De Salaberry posted buglers at different points, who at the proper moment sounded an advance. The enemy, thinking that reinforcements were coming up, fled in confusion. Having collected his scattered troops, Hampton marched back to Plattsburg.

285. A few days later, Wilkinson, not knowing what had befallen the other army, began to descend the St. Lawrence in boats and bateaux. All along the way the Canadians, from the banks of the river and from gunboats in the rear, annoyed him with an unceasing fire. Finally,

at Williamsburg, Wilkinson landed over two thousand men to beat off the assailants. After about two hours' hard fighting at Chrysler's Farm, the Americans were driven to their boats. Arriving at Lake St. Francis, Wilkinson heard of Hampton's defeat. With deep chagrin he scuttled his boats and retired to winter quarters.

The Americans Leave the Peninsula. — 286. On learning the disasters which had befallen their armies on the St. Lawrence, the Americans who occupied British territory on the Niagara frontier at once withdrew to their own side of the river. Before crossing the Niagara they burned the village of Newark, turning the inhabitants into the street on a cold winter's night. Indignant at this outrage, the British pursued the enemy into their own territory, and by way of retaliation burned the American towns of Lewiston, Manchester, Black Rock, and Buffalo.

Events of 1814. — 287. All through another year the war went on. Early in the spring General Wilkinson attempted another invasion of Lower Canada, but with no better success than in the former year.

La Colle. — 288. A British force of about five hundred men, under Major Handcock, took refuge in a stone mill at La Colle, near the foot of Lake Champlain. Wilkinson, with ten times as many men, tried to break down the thick walls; but his cannonade of five hours' duration making but slight impression, he retired with heavy loss to Plattsburg.

Lundy's Lane. — 289. The Americans crossed the Niagara again, captured Fort Erie, gained the battle of Chippewa, and plundered the neighboring country. Then followed, within sound of Niagara Falls, the battle of Lundy's Lane, the bloodiest of the whole war, in which five thousand Americans were defeated by sixteen hundred British under General Drummond.

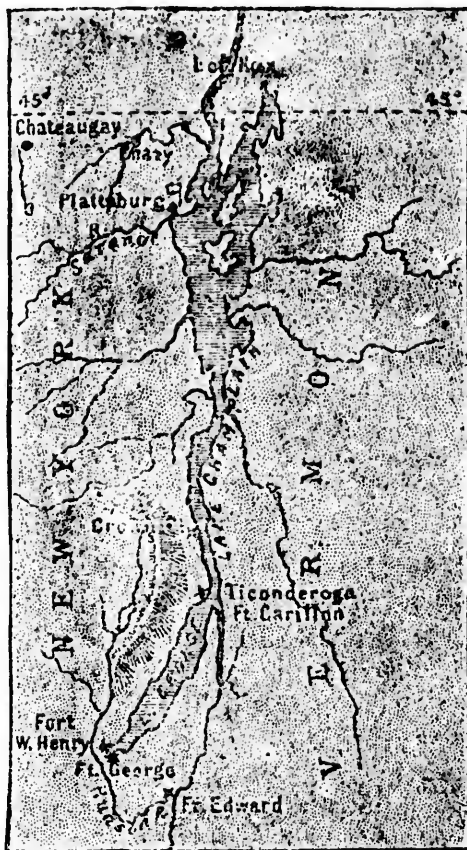
290. The Battle of Lundy's Lane began about six o'clock in the evening and continued until midnight. In some places it was a hand-to-hand struggle, muzzle to muzzle; guns were captured and recaptured, and gunners were bayoneted while loading their pieces. The carnage was fearful, — the Americans losing about nine hundred men, and the British nearly as many. Finally the Americans were routed and compelled to take shelter in Fort Erie.

Oswego, Maine, and Washington. — 291. The British also carried the war into the enemy's country. Sir James Yeo and General Drummond, the Governor of Upper Canada, captured the strong fort of Oswego, in the State of New York. Sir John Sherbrooke, the Governor of Nova Scotia, sailing from Halifax, took possession of a district on the coast of Maine, between the Penobscot and the St. Croix, which was held by the British until the close of the war. A British force under Admiral Cochrane and General Ross captured Washington, burning the capitol and other public buildings.

British Reinforcements. — 292. Napoleon, the disturber of the peace of Europe, had now been conquered, and Great Britain was able to devote more attention to the war in America. Her war-ships blockaded the ports of the United States and ruined the foreign commerce of the country. Sixteen thousand veteran troops were sent to Canada. This splendid force, which under proper management was capable of bringing the war to a speedy termination, led by the vacillating Sir George Prevost, contributed little to British success.

Plattsburg. — 293. In September, Sir George Prevost, with eleven thousand men, marched against Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain. His force was vastly superior to that of the enemy. A small fleet that was co-operating with him having been defeated, Sir George, though on the eve of victory, became alarmed and ordered his men to retire. His soldiers were greatly disappointed, and the officers broke their swords for very shame and anger. Sir George was afterwards summoned before a court-martial to answer for his unsoldier-like conduct, but he died before the court was convened.

Nova Scotia During the War. — 294. During the early period of the war privateers did much damage in Nova Scotia, plundering the coast settlements and capturing vessels engaged in trade and fishing. Chester was attacked several times. Hall's Harbor, on the coast of



LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

the Bay of Fundy, was the headquarters of a band of pirates who made frequent raids upon the Cornwallis Valley, plundering houses, stores, and farm-yards.

295. An exciting scene was witnessed in Mahone Bay. A privateer, named the "Yeung Teazer," ran up the bay, closely pursued by two British

war vessels. On the eve of being captured, suddenly the privateer blew up, and of thirty-six men on board only eight remained alive. From these it was learned that the destruction of the vessel was caused by a British deserter, who, to save himself from being captured, threw fire into the powder magazine.

296. To defend the country the old forts and block-houses were repaired, and cannon were mounted at the entrances to the principal harbors. By way of reprisals, privateers were also fitted out and sent against the enemy. Halifax was a busy place during the war. A militia force was called in from the country, and British war-ships thronged the harbor. Vessels and other property taken from the enemy were brought here to be sold. Prisoners of war were kept on Melville Island, in Halifax Harbor. Increased demand for provisions of all kinds made the period one of great prosperity for the farmers of the country.

The Siege of New Orleans. — 297. The last scene in this long and cruel war was enacted before New Orleans. Near the end of the year the fleet and army which had taken Washington arrived at the mouth of the Mississippi. The city of New Orleans was strongly fortified. General Jackson, who commanded the American forces, built breastworks of sand-bags and cotton bales to protect his troops. After a loss of about two thousand men the British retired. The Americans claim to have lost but eight men.

The Treaty of Ghent. Decem- 298. On the day before
ber, 24, 1814, A. D. fore Christmas, 1814,
a treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, a famous fortified city in Belgium. The news did not reach America for several weeks, so that hostilities were continued some time after the peace was concluded. The territory which had been seized during the war was

restored to the original owner; and strangely enough the disputed matters which were said to have caused the war were not even referred to in the treaty. It is difficult to see what either party gained by the long and costly struggle. Peace was welcomed most gladly both in the United States and the British provinces. New York, whose commerce had suffered sadly from the war, celebrated the proclamation of the treaty with marked manifestations of joy.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE PROVINCES AFTER THE WAR.

Nova Scotia, 1816-18, A. D. — 299. The withdrawal of the British forces from Halifax at the close of the war caused depression in business of all kinds; and many persons, unable to obtain employment or means of support, were compelled to leave the city. The Earl of Dalhousie was appointed Governor of Nova Scotia in place of Sir John Sherbrooke, who became Governor-General of Canada. Public attention was at this time awakened on the subject of scientific agriculture by the celebrated letters of "Agricola," published in the Halifax "Acadian Recorder." These letters led to the formation of a Provincial Agricultural Society, with the Earl of Dalhousie as President and the unknown "Agricola" as Secretary. Upon this, John Young, a Scotchman who had lately come to the province, the father of Sir William Young, acknowledged himself to be the author of the letters.

Mr. Young afterwards became a prominent member of the Assembly.

Dalhousie College. — 300. The corner-stone of Dalhousie College was laid by the Earl of Dalhousie in 1821. The funds employed in the erection of the building were derived from duties collected in the district on the coast of Maine, seized during the war by Sir John Sherbrooke. This money, known as the *Castine Fund*, amounting to about \$40,000, the British Government placed at the disposal of the Governor of Nova Scotia, to be used for the benefit of the province. The Earl of Dalhousie applied the greater part of the money in the founding of the college.

301. The Earl of Dalhousie was a popular Governor in Nova Scotia, although his recommendations were not always heeded by the Assembly. In appreciation of his services the legislature voted the sum of \$4,000 to purchase for him a star and sword. But the Earl refused to accept the presents, because provision had not been made for the survey of the province and the inspection of the militia, measures which he had urged as of the highest importance.

Governors. — 302. Sir James Kempt was Governor of Nova Scotia from 1820 to 1828. He gave special attention to the public roads, travelling through the province to make himself acquainted with their condition, and planning measures for their improvement. He was succeeded by Sir Peregrine Maitland.

The Shubenacadie Canal. — 303. The Shubenacadie Canal was begun in 1827. The object was to connect Halifax Harbor with the headwaters of the Bay of Fundy through a chain of lakes and the Shubenacadie River, providing a route to Halifax for the trade of the western part of the province, which was then passing to St. John. A large amount of money was expended on the work, which was finally abandoned without resulting in any practical advantage.

Cape Breton. — 304. In 1820 the Island of Cape Breton was annexed to the Province of Nova Scotia, with the

privilege of sending two members to the Assembly. The people of the island were not easily reconciled to the loss of their independence, as they considered it, and they endeavored to break up the union. One of the first members sent to the Assembly was Lawrence Kavanagh, a Roman Catholic. The oath of admission to the House at this time contained a clause abjuring certain tenets of the Roman Catholic faith; Kavanagh could not, therefore, take his seat. The Governor applied to the King for instructions in the matter, and in the following year he informed the House that his Majesty had given permission to admit Mr. Kavanagh. Upon this, the House resolved to change the oath for Roman Catholics by omitting the obnoxious clause. In 1827 an Act was passed freeing Roman Catholics from all their disabilities.

Noted Men. — 305. The Nova Scotia Assembly was at this time adorned with men of more than ordinary talents. John Young, or "Agricola," has already been mentioned. Two other names will never be forgotten in the history of our country, — Samuel George William Archibald and Thomas Chandler Haliburton.

306. S. G. W. Archibald, a lawyer of polished manners, ready wit, and powerful eloquence, was a native of Truro. By his talents and industry he raised himself from a humble station to a position of honor, influence, and wealth. At one time, while practising at the bar and holding a seat in the Assembly of Nova Scotia, he held the office of Chief-Justice of Prince Edward Island. For several years he was Speaker of the Assembly in Nova Scotia; then he was Attorney-General; and finally he became Judge in the Court of Chancery, holding the title, "Master of the Rolls."

307. Thomas C. Haliburton, also a lawyer, was born at Windsor. For many years he represented the County of Annapolis, and afterwards became a Judge. Scholarly, witty, and polished by travel, he at times electrified the House with "thoughts that breathe and words that burn."

His great strength lay in humor and sarcasm. Haliburton's "Clock-maker" and other humorous works have amused the English-speaking world. He also wrote a history of Nova Scotia. Judge Haliburton removed to England, where for several years he held a seat in the House of Commons.

The Barry Riot. — 308. Much excitement was occasioned in the Assembly and in the city of Halifax by a member of the Assembly named Barry, who represented the County of Shelburne. Mr. Barry had spoken of another member in offensive terms, and refused to apologize. He afterwards published a letter, charging certain members of the House with falsehood. The House ordered him to be taken to prison; but a mob rescued him from the officers, and, when the members of the Assembly appeared on the streets, pelted them with snow-balls and stones. Barry was then expelled from the House; but on being re-elected by the people of Shelburne he was allowed to take his seat.

New Brunswick. — 309. New Brunswick had been making rapid progress, and now had a population of 74,000. The people at this time gave little attention to the cultivation of the soil, — ship-building and lumbering being the chief industries.

The Miramichi Fire. — 310. The year 1825 is memorable for a terrible fire which swept over the eastern portion of New Brunswick. The season was remarkable for drought and heat, which continued unusually late into the autumn. On the night of October seventh the fire, which had been raging in the neighboring forests, burst upon Newcastle and other flourishing settlements on the Miramichi River with such suddenness and power as to sweep everything before it. Many persons were burned to death, and a still larger number were left houseless and destitute at the approach of winter. Aid was sent to the sufferers

from the other provinces, the United States, and Great Britain.

Upper and Lower Canada. — 311. The regular industries of Upper and Lower Canada had been considerably disturbed by the war, and many people had acquired unsteady habits. Both provinces, however, soon recovered from this temporary derangement and entered upon a course of renewed prosperity. The paper money, called "Army Bills," issued by the Government during the war, was promptly redeemed at its par value. Persons disabled in the war, and the widows and orphans of those who had fallen, were allowed small pensions. The population increased rapidly by emigration from Europe. Emigrants were encouraged to settle in the country by offers of free passage, grants of land, and provisions for one year. For some time after the war, people from the United States were looked upon with suspicion, and were allowed to remain only as aliens, liable to be expelled at any time.

312. In Upper Canada the establishment of common schools and improved facilities for trade and travel were among the first matters which received attention. Public roads were improved and extended to new settlements, steamboats were placed on the lakes and rivers, and canals were constructed. The La Chine Canal, for overcoming the rapids of the St. Lawrence, was begun in 1821. Previous to the opening of this canal, produce was brought down the St. Lawrence in flat-boats, which were not taken back, but disposed of with the produce. The Welland Canal, connecting Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, was begun three years later. Agricultural societies, also, were organized, which tended to improve the methods of tillage and the character of farming implements. The first banks in the country were established in Quebec and Montreal in 1817.

CHAPTER XXIII.

GRIEVANCES AND DISAGREEMENTS.

313. POLITICAL grievances and agitation for reform were characteristic of the time at which we have now arrived in our history. The kind of government which had suited the circumstances of the provinces in earlier times now proved inadequate. But existing customs and institutions, though unsatisfactory, were not easily broken up. The Governor and Council exercised the chief power in the management of public affairs, holding the control of matters which the members of the Assembly, as the people's representatives, claimed as belonging to them. The questions in dispute assumed different forms in the different provinces; but underlying all was the one general principle, — the right of the people to govern themselves. The Assembly claimed the sole right of levying taxes and controlling the expenditure of the public money. In all the provinces the Reformers took common ground in demanding that the Executive Council should hold office only so long as it had the confidence of the people, as expressed by their representatives.

Nova Scotia. — 314. In Nova Scotia the members of the Council were, with one exception, residents of Halifax; eight of them belonged to the Church of England; five were partners in the same banking company; and some were connected by family ties. Moreover the Anglican Bishop and the Chief-Justice were members of this body, which exercised both executive and legislative func-

tions. So closely bound together and mutually helpful were its different members that the Council was aptly designated the "Family Compact." Then, as if the public business were a private concern, the Council sat with closed doors.

The Brandy Dispute.—315. In the session of 1826, a duty of one shilling and four pence was imposed on brandy. Four years after, the Assembly discovered that the law had been evaded, and that only one shilling per gallon had been collected. A bill was then passed by the Assembly, fixing the duty as previously intended; but to this the Council refused to give assent. The Assembly, claiming the right to regulate the taxes, was indignant at this action of the Council, while public feeling was intensified by the fact that the duty related to an article used chiefly by the wealthy. But neither Assembly nor Council would yield; and as the revenue laws expired at the end of the year, unless re-enacted, no duties were collected during the following year, causing a loss of over \$100,000 to the treasury. Before the next session, in consequence of the death of George IV., the Assembly was dissolved. The new House adhered to the larger duty, which the Council, with some ill humor, finally adopted.

316. Sir Colin Campbell succeeded Sir Peregrine Maitland as Governor of Nova Scotia in 1834. Though an honest man and a brave soldier, he served his country much better and gained more renown for himself on the field of battle than in the office of Lieutenant-Governor. He viewed affairs in Nova Scotia as his Council viewed them, and gave his influence to keep things as they were. We shall have occasion again to speak of his lack of sympathy with the spirit of reform which was now taking possession of the public mind.

Halifax. 1835, A. D. — 317. Halifax was not yet incorporated. Its business was managed by the magistrates, who levied the taxes and expended the public money as they saw fit. Everywhere there existed neglect, mismanagement, and corruption. Everybody was dissatisfied, except the favored few whose interests were cared for at the public expense. But who would lead in the work of reform? This question was soon answered by the appearance in a Halifax paper, called the "Nova Scotian," of a letter signed "The People," attacking the magistrates and accusing them in the strongest terms of robbing the city annually of \$4,000. The "Nova Scotian" was edited and published by Joseph Howe, a young man destined to attain a commanding position in the country and to exercise a powerful influence in moulding its institutions.

Joseph Howe. — 318. Joseph Howe, the son of a Loyalist, was born at the Northwest Arm, near Halifax, in 1804. He had few educational advantages. He walked two miles to school in summer; in winter he remained at home. But his genius and industry made up for what he had not gained at school. When thirteen he became a printer's boy. At the date of the difficulty with the magistrates he was about thirty-one years of age. Resolute, fearless, and hating abuses, he was the man for the times. Like most bold reformers, he was impetuous, his zeal and enthusiasm occasionally leading him to extremes.

The Libel Suit. — 319. The magistrates prosecuted Mr. Howe for libel. The lawyers told him that his case could not be defended, and advised him to settle with his prosecutors as best he could. Regardless of the maxim that "he who pleads his own cause has a fool for his client," Mr. Howe undertook his own defence. His address to the jury, which occupied six hours in its delivery, has been described as "ingenious and masterly." The brilliant and eloquent S. G. W. Archibald, then Attorney

General, conducted the prosecution. The Judge in his charge maintained that the offence was one of criminal libel. The jury, however, exercising their own judgment, brought in the verdict, "Not guilty." Mr. Howe was carried home in triumph by his friends, and the people kept holiday that day and the next. In the following year he was elected to the Assembly as member for the County of Halifax.

1836, A. D. — 320. Joseph Howe was now the acknowledged leader of the popular party in the Assembly of Nova Scotia. Of the prominent men associated with him in the reform movement were Lawrence O'Connor Doyle, Herbert Huntington, and William Young. The first task undertaken was to open the Council doors. The Assembly, by a unanimous vote, condemned the exclusion of the public from the Council Chamber, and offered to provide funds to make room for strangers. But the Council treated this interference with its privileges with haughty disdain.

The Twelve Resolutions. — 321. On motion of Mr. Howe, the Assembly passed twelve resolutions, directed against both the course pursued by the Council and the constitution of that body. The members of the Council were indignant, especially over one clause in the resolutions, which asserted that they desired to protect their own interests at the public expense; and they informed the Assembly of their determination to hold no further intercourse with that body until the offensive clause should be rescinded. How the difficulty was to be settled, was a question which naturally excited intense anxiety. But Mr. Howe, with great coolness, said he would concede to the Council more than they demanded. He would rescind not one clause alone, but the whole of the resolu-

tions. They had already done their work in eliciting the opinion of the House, and that work could not be undone. The wrath of the Council being thus appeased, the business of the session was finished. Then the Assembly drew up an address to the King, stating the evils in the government, and asking his Majesty's interference. The Council also sent an address to the King, presenting the case from their point of view.

Changes for the Better. — 322. In the mean time Queen Victoria had succeeded William IV. on the British throne. But before any reply came to the memorials, the Council Chamber was thrown open to the public. Soon despatches came from the Colonial Secretary to the Governor, Sir Colin Campbell, instructing him to form two distinct bodies, — a Legislative Council of nineteen members, selected from different parts of the province and from different religious bodies; and an Executive Council of twelve members, taken partly from the Legislative Council and partly from the Assembly. The Chief-Justice was not to be a member of either Council, and the public money was to be under the control of the Assembly.

323. The Reformers were not satisfied. They complained that the Executive Council was not responsible to the Assembly; in fact, that both Councils were composed chiefly of men who were opposed to the reforms desired by the great body of the people. They urged also that there were too many lawyers and too many adherents of the Church of England in the Council, and that it was unfair to other denominations that the Bishop of that Church should be *ex officio* member of a body representing the people in general.

324. While the House was in session, despatches came from England intimating that there was some mistake as

to the number of members in the two Councils. The Legislative Council must be reduced to fifteen members, the Executive to nine members. In reconstructing these bodies, the few Reformers they contained were left out.

Appeals to the Queen. — 325. The Assembly now sent a memorial to the Queen, complaining that neither of the Councils was in accord with the views of the people, as expressed by their representatives. Two leading Reformers, Herbert Huntington and William Young, were sent to England to urge the popular cause. The Council did not look idly on. Two of its ablest members, Wilkins and Stewart, were sent as delegates to the Imperial Government to counteract the influence of the Assembly's representatives. Young and Huntington failed in the chief object of their mission. Five new ports of entry were made in the province, which gave increased facilities for trade; but the British Government thought that an Executive Council responsible to the people's representatives was not suited to the condition of a dependent colony.

Canada. — 326. In the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada public feeling was so much aroused over political grievances that a portion of the people, urged on by their leaders, Mackenzie and Papineau, rushed to arms, and for two years the country was disturbed by civil war. Of affairs in these provinces we shall speak more fully in another chapter. In Nova Scotia the enemies of reform pointed to this rebellion as the natural result of political agitation, and accused Mr. Howe and his party with working for a similar end. This charge was vigorously and successfully repelled.

New Brunswick. — 327. The history of political reform in New Brunswick resembles that of Nova Scotia;

but the movement began earlier and was carried on with less bitterness. The two Councils were made distinct in 1832. The mismanagement of the crown lands was the most serious ground of complaint. These lands were under the charge of a commissioner who was quite independent of the Assembly, and who was charged with deviating from the line of fairness and impartiality in the discharge of his duty. The proceeds arising from the sale of the lands, called the "casual and territorial revenue," were applied to the payment of the "civil list," — that is, the salary of government officers. Sir Archibald Campbell, who was at this time Governor of New Brunswick, like Sir Colin Campbell, was a much better soldier than governor. According to his view, this revenue belonged to the King, and he refused even to give an account of receipts and expenditures to the Assembly.

328. The leader of the reform party was Lemuel Allan Wilmot, who, like Joseph Howe, was of Loyalist stock. Mr. Wilmot and others were sent to England to urge the Imperial Government to give the Assembly control over the casual and territorial revenue. The Governor placed every possible obstacle in the way of reform, making himself so unpopular that the Assembly petitioned the Crown for his recall. But Sir Archibald did not await the result of this request. Displeased at the action of the home Government in agreeing to give the Assembly control over the revenue on condition that a suitable civil list should be provided, he voluntarily placed his resignation in the hands of the Colonial Secretary.

The New Brunswick Assembly	329. Sir John Har-
obtain control of the Rev-	vey, who as Colonel
enue. 1837, A. D.	Harvey gained the
battle of Stony Creek, was now	appointed Governor.

The British Government accepted the civil list provided by the Assembly of New Brunswick, and placed the crown-land revenue at the disposal of that body. Under the mild rule of Sir John Harvey agitation for reform was temporarily arrested.

Disputed Territory. — 330. An event now occurred which for the time overshadowed all other matters. The boundary line between New Brunswick and the State of Maine had never been definitely settled, and a large territory was claimed by both countries. Some New Brunswick lumbermen entered this disputed territory to cut timber; the authorities of the State of Maine sent a band of officers to drive them off and seize their lumber. The two countries were soon on the verge of open hostilities. The Governor of Maine called for ten thousand militia to vindicate the rights of his State, and Sir John Harvey sent two regiments of soldiers to maintain the honor of Great Britain. When the news reached Halifax the reform agitation ruled the hour. Quickly the Assembly and Council forgot their strife. There was neither Conservative nor Liberal; they were Britons all. The Assembly voted \$400,000 and the service of the whole militia of Nova Scotia for the defence of New Brunswick. Happily, through the prudence of Sir John Harvey and General Scott of the United States army, veterans who had fought on opposite sides at Stony Creek and Lundy's Lane, war was averted.

The Ashburton Treaty. 1841, A. D. — 331. The territory under dispute comprised an area of about twelve thousand square miles. By the Ashburton Treaty, arranged in 1841 by Lord Ashburton and Daniel Webster, acting in behalf of the Governments of Great Britain and the United States, seven thousand square miles of this

territory were given to Maine, and the remainder to New Brunswick. The treaty also defined the boundary line between British America and the United States by the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes, and thence westerly as far as the Lake of the Woods.

CHAPTER XXIV.

POLITICAL AGITATION IN UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.

332. THE twenty-five years following the close of the American war were stormy times in Canada. We need not trace all the details of the political agitation in the upper provinces, as they were similar to those we have already described in the history of Nova Scotia. Probably the grievances were worse and more numerous in these provinces; the popular leaders were also less prudent and patient, and when they failed to secure immediate compliance with their demands, they urged matters to extremes, involving consequences which they themselves had not at first contemplated.

Grievances. — 333. One of the leading grievances, and one in which many of the other troubles had their origin, was the irresponsible character of the Executive Council. The Reformers in Canada, as in Nova Scotia, demanded that this Council should hold office only so long as its policy was sustained by a majority of the Assembly. They also insisted that the Legislative Council should be elected by the people, instead of being appointed by the Crown for life. The control of the public revenue by

the Governor and Council also provoked much agitation. The revenue was derived from three principal sources, — a duty on imports, imposed by the British Government; the proceeds arising from the sale of crown lands; and duties on imported goods, levied by the Provincial Legislatures. The Governor and Council appropriated the funds arising from the two first named sources, refusing even to submit a statement of expenditure to the Assembly.

334. The "Clergy Reserves" gave rise to much contention, especially in Upper Canada. The Imperial Act of 1791, by which Upper and Lower Canada were made separate provinces, had set apart one-seventh of the ungranted lands for the support of a Protestant clergy. These reserved lands, comprising about two and a half millions of acres in Upper Canada, were being appropriated for the exclusive benefit of the clergy of the Church of England, to the great dissatisfaction of the other denominations. Subsequently, the Church of Scotland also was allowed to share in these lands.

There was much complaint also against the favoritism shown in the disposal of the crown lands. It was asserted that members of the Government and their friends obtained large tracts of land without paying their full value into the treasury.

Lower Canada. — 335. In Lower Canada the agitation for reform assumed largely the character of a struggle between the French and English nationalities. The people of French origin formed about four fifths of the whole population; while the remaining fifth, comprising those of English descent, ruled the country, holding nearly all the seats in both Councils and the principal offices under the Government.

336. The Governor and Council paid the salaries of public officers and the various expenses incurred in carrying on the government; out of the revenue over which they had control. But as these expenses increased, their funds became insufficient to meet the demands. During the rule of Sir John Sherbrooke, who became Governor-General in 1816, the Assembly agreed to vote supplies sufficient for the civil service, on condition that all accounts were submitted for its approval. But the Duke of Richmond, who succeeded Sir John Sherbrooke, declining to give a full statement of expenditure, the Assembly refused to vote supplies. The Duke, however, drew the amount required from the Receiver-General, and appropriated it on his own responsibility.

337. The Duke of Richmond's term of office was brief, and ended sadly. He was bitten on the hand by a tame fox, and a few weeks after, while making a tour through the province, he was seized with hydrophobia, of which he died in great agony.

1820, A. D. — 338. The Earl of Dalhousie, who became Governor-General in 1820, followed the example of the Duke of Richmond in drawing funds from the treasury without the authority of the Assembly. During his administration a new scandal furnished occasion for attack on the Government. Sir John Caldwell, the Receiver-General, who had charge of the public money, became a defaulter in the sum of £96,000, and, as the Government had neglected to take any sureties, a large loss was sustained by the province. Public sentiment was outraged yet further by the fact that Sir John was still permitted to retain his seat in the Executive Council.

Louis Papineau. 1827, A. D. — 339. Louis Papineau, the most popular and influential man in Lower Canada, was the leader of the Reform party, and for several years

he had been Speaker of the Assembly. Of fiery temperament and unguarded speech, he denounced the Earl of Dalhousie and his Council in the severest terms, so that there grew up between him and the Governor-General a hostility similar to that which afterwards arose in Nova Scotia between Lord Falkland and Joseph Howe. A new House of Assembly chose Papineau again for Speaker; but the Earl of Dalhousie refused to accept its choice. The Assembly declining to elect another Speaker, the business came to a stand-still, and the Governor-General prorogued the House. The greatest excitement now prevailed. The newspapers were filled with inflammatory articles against the Governor-General, political meetings were held in all parts of the country, and a memorial of grievances, with eighty-seven thousand names appended, was sent to the Imperial Government in London.

Concessions. — 340. Some important changes followed. Sir James Kempt, who had been Governor of Nova Scotia, succeeded the Earl of Dalhousie. He accepted Papineau as Speaker of the Assembly, and appointed some of the Reformers to seats in the Council. All the public funds, except the casual and territorial revenue, were placed under the control of the Assembly. But these were only half measures, and satisfied nobody.

A Crisis. — 341. Failing to secure all the reforms demanded, the Assembly refused to vote money to pay the salaries of the Judges and other officials in the public service. Violent speeches were made by Papineau and other Reform leaders, and strong resolutions were passed, denouncing British tyranny and threatening rebellion if the rights of the people were not respected. The British Government appointed a commission, which included the new

Governor-General, Lord Gosford, to report on the state of affairs in the province. But no material improvement resulted.

Upper Canada. — 342. The Reform movement in Upper Canada was a struggle between the new settlers and the old. The ruling party was chiefly of United Empire Loyalist descent ; while the opponents of the Government were of those who had more recently come into the province. On account of the narrow circle from which its members were selected, and their close relationship to one another, the Executive Council was even more appropriately styled the *Family Compact*, than the Government of Nova Scotia.

343. When the Assembly began to discuss grievances, the Governor cut short the deliberations by proroguing the House. Writers for the press who ventured to criticise any act of the Government were prosecuted for libel, fined, and imprisoned. Laws were passed prohibiting the holding of public meetings to discuss political matters. Exclusion from social position and branding with the epithet "rebel" were among the milder measures adopted to suppress adverse criticism on the constitution and policy of the Government.

Political Leaders. — 344. Robert Gurlay, an eccentric Scotchman, who had resided a short time in the United States and afterwards removed to Canada, was one of the first and boldest advocates of reform. He was thrown into prison, and finally banished from the country as an alien. William Lyon MacKenzie, also born in Scotland, came upon the scene a little later, and was soon a recognized leader of the opposition. Like Papi-neau, he lacked discretion. He published a paper called the "Colonial Advocate," in which he attacked the Government in the most unsparing manner. As he could not

easily be silenced, some young men of the Government party broke into his office by night, destroyed his printing press, and threw the type into Lake Ontario. This only awakened popular sympathy. MacKenzie recovered large damages, and was shortly afterwards elected member of the Assembly. In this new sphere he even surpassed his former boldness in advocating reform, and his harsh language often exceeded the limits of parliamentary usage. Several times he was expelled from the House for violation of privilege, and as frequently re-elected by his constituents. In 1834, when York was incorporated and its name changed to Toronto, MacKenzie was chosen as the first Mayor of the city.

Governors. — 345. Sir John Colborne, a veteran soldier, noted for his calm dignity and his brevity of speech, was Governor of Upper Canada from 1827 to 1836. He was then appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in Canada, and was succeeded as Governor by Sir Francis Bond Head. Sir Francis was sent out by a Whig ministry, and the Reformers, who formed a majority in the Assembly, had high hopes that he would govern the country according to the principles of his party in Great Britain. In this hope, however, they were mistaken. Three of their party were indeed placed in the Council; but finding themselves without influence in the government, they resigned their seats.

On the eve of Rebellion. 346. The Assembly **1836, A. D.** now adopted extreme measures. An address was sent to the King, severely criticising the action of the Governor; for the first time in the history of the province the supplies were not voted; and at the close of the session the Speaker read a letter from Papineau, urging concerted action by the two prov-

inces to secure the rights of the people. The Governor, indignant at any manifestation of disloyalty, dissolved the House, and managed so to influence the elections that in the new House two-thirds of the members were in sympathy with himself. Even the Reform leaders — Baldwin, MacKenzie, and Bidwell — were defeated. Sir Francis, confident in his ability to crush out all opposition to his government, refused to adopt measures of reform urged upon him by the Colonial Secretary. He asked that he might be allowed to follow out his own plans, and pledged his character that he would overcome every difficulty. Meantime MacKenzie, despairing of redress of grievances through constitutional means, turned his thoughts towards rebellion.



CHAPTER XXV.

THE REBELLION.

1837, A. D. — 347. For five years the Assembly of Lower Canada had refused to vote the supplies, leaving the Judges and other public officials without their salaries. The British Parliament now authorized the Governor-General to take £142,000 from the treasury and pay the arrears of the civil list without the authority of the Assembly. The announcement of this measure excited the strongest indignation throughout the country. The extreme Reformers, or "Patriots," as they called themselves, most prominent of whom were Louis Papineau and Dr. Wolfred Nelson, urged the people to rebel and

free themselves from British power. They held meetings in various parts of the province, at which, in violent and seditious language, they appealed to the passions and prejudices of the people. Secret associations were formed, the members of which held regular meetings for military drill. Lord Gosford issued a proclamation, warning the people against sedition. Copies of this proclamation were posted on the churches and in other public places, but the excited populace tore them down, shouting "Long live Papineau!" The Governor-General ordered troops from the other provinces, and in other ways prepared to meet the crisis which he saw was approaching.

Risings. 1837, A. D. -- 348. The first outbreak was a riot in the streets of Montreal; but the rebels were dispersed without loss of life. Risings followed in different parts of the country. In some places the English inhabitants, alarmed at the threatening attitude of their French neighbors, left their homes and fled to Montreal. A band of insurgents, under Dr. Wolfred Nelson, posted themselves in a stone mill at St. Denis, on the Richelieu, where they for a time successfully resisted the troops sent to dislodge them. Another rebel force, collected at St. Charles, was dispersed with considerable loss. Warrants having been issued for the apprehension of the leaders of the rebellion, Papineau fled to the United States. Nelson, seeking the same refuge, was taken prisoner. Later in the autumn serious disturbance occurred in the County of Two Mountains. Sir John Colborne proceeded against the insurgents, many of whom fled at his approach. In a sharp encounter at St. Eustache, one hundred rebels were killed and another hundred were taken prisoners. At St. Benoit the insurgents sought peace; but a large part of the

village was burned by the English in retaliation for injuries inflicted on them by the rebels.

The Earl of Durham. 1838, A. D. — 349. The Earl of Durham, an able statesman of the Liberal party in England, was sent to Canada, invested with the double office of Governor-General and High Commissioner to report on the state of affairs in Canada. The Legislature of Lower Canada was for the time set aside, and a special Council was appointed in its stead. As it was impossible in the disturbed state of the country to deal with the rebels by the ordinary forms of law, the *Habeas Corpus* Act was suspended, and martial law proclaimed.

350. The Earl of Durham, desiring to conciliate the people, adopted a mild course towards those convicted of rebellion. He pardoned all except the principal leaders, taking as the occasion for this exercise of clemency the coronation day of her Majesty Queen Victoria, June 14, 1838. Dr. Nelson and eight others, who had taken a prominent part in the rebellion, were banished to Bermuda. Papineau was proclaimed an outlaw, and forbidden to return to the country on pain of death.

351. The action of the Governor-General in transporting the rebels to Bermuda was severely criticised in the British House of Lords, and a resolution was passed declaring that he had exceeded his powers. The Earl of Durham, greatly annoyed at this vote, immediately resigned his position and returned to England. Before leaving the country, he extended free pardon to those whom he had sentenced to exile. Sir John Colborne, the commander of the forces, succeeded as administrator of the government.

Renewed Insurrection. 1838, A. D. — 352. In the autumn of 1838 the insurgents of Lower Canada, aided

by adventurers from the United States, sought again to carry out their wild schemes of rebellion. They boldly proclaimed the independence of Canada, pledging themselves by an oath to support a republican government. In some parts of the country, loyal citizens were compelled to flee from their homes to save their lives, while their property was wantonly destroyed. Sir John Colborne took active measures to suppress the rebellion. Skirmishing occurred at various places ; but the most serious conflict was at Napierville, where the rebels were dispersed with much loss.

Upper Canada. — 353. In the mean time the "Patriots" of Upper Canada had been playing their part in the rebellion. The outbreak began later than in Lower Canada. MacKenzie and his associates issued a manifesto, renouncing British authority, and calling on the people to assert their independence. Baldwin and other moderate Reformers declined to take part in this extreme course. Though Sir Francis Bond Head had received warning from various sources that MacKenzie was plotting rebellion, he took no active measures to thwart the plans of the rebel leader. The troops were all sent to Montreal to aid in quelling the insurrection in that province, and no precautions were taken against surprise.

Defeat of the Rebels at Toronto. 354. And so without hindrance a body of about four hundred insurgents gathered near Toronto, and under cover of night marched towards the City Hall, where four thousand stand of arms were stored. Their approach was discovered, and alarm bells gave warning of the danger. The loyal citizens rushed to the hall and prepared for defence, some of the Judges and members of the Government being among the foremost. The rebels retired without risking an attack.

355. Tidings of the rising soon spread to the country, and the loyal militia under Colonel McNab hastened to Toronto. Within a few days an engagement took place near the city, the rebels being defeated with heavy loss. Insurrections in other parts of the province were quelled with equal promptness. MacKenzie was proclaimed an outlaw, and a reward of £1,000 was offered for his head. Through the aid of his friends he escaped to the United States.

Navy Island. — 356. MacKenzie and his followers, about a thousand in number, consisting of Canadian refugees and Americans, took possession of Navy Island, in the Niagara River, about two miles above the Falls. This was the "Patriot army;" its flag bore two stars, one for each of the Canadas. MacKenzie issued a proclamation declaring Canada a republic, and offering a reward of £500 for the capture of Sir Francis Bond Head. A United States steamer, named the "Caroline," was employed to carry men and supplies to the island. A force sent by Colonel Allan McNab captured the boat as she lay moored on the American side, set her on fire, and allowed her to drift over the Falls. This event occurred about the time of the boundary difficulty between Maine and New Brunswick, referred to in a former chapter, and it served to increase the agitation which so nearly resulted in war between the two nations. Shortly after the capture of the "Caroline," the "Patriots" were compelled to abandon Navy Island.

The "Patriots" Defeated at Prescott. 1838, A. D. **357.** During the following year the "Patriots," crossing over from the United States, attacked various places near the borders. Everywhere they were repulsed. At Prescott about two hundred posted them-

selves in a windmill, a large circular building having thick stone walls. After a three days' siege, when forty of their number had been killed, and the walls of their fort were yielding to the cannonade, they surrendered.

The End of the Rebellion. 1839, A. D. — 358. The rebellion was now over, and it remained to deal with the misguided men who had so sadly disturbed the peace of the country, and who were now crowding the jails. One hundred and eighty of those who had taken part in the rebellion were sentenced to be hanged. Some of these were executed; some were banished to Van Diemen's Land; while others, on account of their youth, were pardoned and sent to their homes.

Papineau and MacKenzie. — 359. After a few years of exile, those who had been outlawed or transported were pardoned and permitted to return to Canada. Even Papineau and MacKenzie were allowed to come back and enjoy the full privilege of citizens. The latter had during his exile experienced hard fortune. For some offence against law in the United States, he was for many months confined in prison. During this period his mother, now in the ninetieth year of her age, lay on her death-bed. To enable him to visit her, his friends got up a law-suit and sent for him as a witness. The trial was held in the house which the old lady occupied. MacKenzie returned to Canada in 1850, when he was again elected a member of the Assembly. Papineau also held a seat in the Assembly after his return.

CHAPTER XXVI.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

Lord Durham's Report. — 360. Although the Earl of Durham remained but a short time in Canada, his mission resulted in lasting benefit to the country. The able report which he submitted to the British Government on the provinces of North America, whose condition and wants he had carefully studied, was made the basis of important political changes. Among other suggestions he recommended a federal union of all the provinces, an intercolonial railway, and an Executive Council responsible to the Assembly. His scheme was strongly opposed, especially by the "Family Compact" of Upper Canada, who foresaw that it involved a speedy termination of their control of public affairs. The British Government favored the union of Upper and Lower Canada, and instructed the new Governor-General, the Hon. Charles Poulett Thompson, to use all proper means to carry out the project.

The Union of Upper and Lower Canada. February 10, 1841. 361. The Governor-General had little difficulty in effecting his object in Lower Canada. The Special Council, which represented chiefly the loyal English element of the population, passed the Union Bill by a large majority. In Upper Canada he carried his point by skilful management. The members of the "Family Compact" prided themselves on their loyalty to the mother country, and the Governor-General, by

presenting the union scheme as an object desired by the Imperial Government, appealed to sentiments which they could not consistently disregard. The Union Bill was introduced as a Government measure and carried without difficulty. The two provinces having thus assented to the union, an Act was passed by the Imperial Parliament placing them under one government and legislature. Finally the union came into effect by royal proclamation on February 10, 1841.

362. The Act of Union provided for the United Province of Canada an Assembly of eighty-four members, — forty-two from each of the old provinces, — a Legislative Council of not less than twenty members, and an Executive Council of eight members. The whole revenue was placed under the control of the legislature.

Lord Russell's Despatches. — **363.** Lord John Russell, the Colonial Secretary, through his despatches instructed the Governor-General that the members of the Executive Council were not to regard their position as a life tenure, but must retire from office when, in the view of the Governor, public policy or the interests of the country demanded a change. These instructions were somewhat indefinite; but the Reformers throughout the different provinces hailed the announcement as granting the long-sought boon of responsible government. The principle was indeed conceded, but, as we shall see, some little time was necessary to secure its full development; and an epoch of conflict had yet to be passed through before the new order of things was completely established. While most of the principles for which the Reformers had contended were substantially conceded, one feature of colonial government which they had denounced survived the storm, and is perpetuated to our own times, — an Upper House

appointed by the Crown, forming a strange combination of the old and the new.

The Maritime Provinces. — 364. Returning to the maritime provinces we find the old political questions still unsettled. The Reformers of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia contended that Earl Russell's instructions to the Governor-General touching the Executive Council applied to all the provinces. Sir John Harvey, the Governor of New Brunswick, favored this interpretation of Earl Russell's despatches, and was willing to adopt responsible government. A measure having this object in view was introduced into the Assembly of that province, but was defeated through the casting vote of the Speaker. Sir John's advanced views gave offence to the upholders of the existing form of government and exposed him to abuse from a portion of the press. His rule, however, was on the whole very popular, and when he left the province the Legislature voted him a service of silver plate as a mark of its esteem.

Extreme Measures in Nova Scotia. — 365. In Nova Scotia, Sir Colin Campbell adhered to old principles. The Assembly, by a majority of thirty to twelve, passed a vote of want of confidence in the Executive Council. The Reform members then waited on the Governor and presented their resolution. Sir Colin coolly told them that he was quite satisfied with his advisers, and that he had received no instructions which required him to make changes to suit the views of the Assembly. The Reformers were naturally indignant, but they discreetly avoided hasty measures. They presented an address to the Governor, urging that Earl Russell's despatches conceded responsible government to all the colonies, and referring to Sir John Harvey's views in confirmation of their

opinion. But their arguments failed to influence Sir Colin.

366. Sir Colin Campbell soon found that he had to deal with men as unyielding as himself. Mr. Howe prepared a memorial of grievances to the Queen. After stating the evils of the existing mode of government and the vain efforts of the Assembly to secure the desired changes, the memorial asked her Majesty to remove Sir Colin Campbell and send a Governor who would be willing to be guided by the wishes and interests of the people, as expressed by their representatives. This was a bold measure, and some of the more timid in the ranks of the Reformers hesitated. Besides, Sir Colin Campbell was personally respected, even by those who most disapproved of his policy. But the address was carried by a large majority of the House.

367. Then the whole country was in a ferment. The people were divided into two great parties. Everybody was either Conservative or Reformer. Political meetings were held to discuss the great questions of the day, while hard and no doubt unjustifiable things were said on both sides. Some thought there never was such a patriot as Joseph Howe; others said that Howe was but another Papineau or MacKenzie, inciting the people to rebellion.

James W. Johnstone. — 368. While Sir Colin Campbell and his measures were thus vigorously attacked by Mr. Howe, the brothers Young, James B. Uniacke, and others, they were defended with equal eloquence by James W. Johnstone, then Solicitor-General. Mr. Johnstone, a statesman of singularly acute mind and unimpeachable integrity, destined to share with Mr. Howe for a third of a century the esteem and affection of the people of Nova Scotia, was now for the first time coming

into notice. He soon took rank as the leader of the Conservative party, whose unwavering confidence he retained throughout his long career.

1840, A. D. — 369. Shortly after his arrival in Canada, Sir Charles Poulett Thompson came to Halifax to inquire into matters. He had a long interview with Mr. Howe, and listened attentively to his views. Although he was guarded in his expressions, he saw that Mr. Howe was contending for the very principles which he himself was instructed to follow in the government of Canada. His report to the British Government probably led to the changes which followed. In the autumn of the same year, Lord Falkland arrived in Halifax as successor to Sir Colin Campbell. He had belonged to the Liberal party in England, and the Reformers in Nova Scotia expected much from him. He began well. It was thought advisable to try a compromise, and have both parties represented in the Government. Several members of the Executive Council who held seats in neither branch of the Legislature were asked to retire, while Messrs. Howe, Uniacke, and McNab accepted the seats thus vacated.

A Pleasing Incident. — 370. Before Sir Colin Campbell left the province, he and Mr. Howe met at Government House. Mr. Howe bowed and was passing on, when Sir Colin called out, "We must not part that way, Mr. Howe. We fought out our differences of opinion honestly. You have acted like a man of honor. Here is my hand." And so they shook hands and parted.

Discordant Elements. — 371. There was little harmony in that first Council of Lord Falkland. It was called a *coalition government*, because it was made up, as we have seen, of men from both sides of politics; but its elements were too discordant to coalesce. That it was

composed of two distinct and hostile parties was soon apparent. The college question, which was then agitating the country, brought the two leaders, Howe and Johnstone into open conflict. Howe advocated the endowment of one provincial university; Johnstone was in favor of giving aid from the public funds to the various denominational colleges. Mr. Howe's attitude on this question gave offence to many of his old supporters in the country. Mr. Johnstone and his friends in the Council, taking advantage of this position of affairs, persuaded the Governor to dissolve the House without consulting Mr. Howe. In the new House Mr. Johnstone's party had a small majority.

The Coalition Government 372. When Lord Falk-

Broken up. 1844, A. D. land first came to the province, many of those who had supported Sir Colin Campbell's government thought he favored the Reformers, and in their ill-humor they abused him in the public press. The Reformers were now dissatisfied because he seemed to lean to the other side. William Young, on being elected Speaker of the Assembly, resigned his seat in the Council. To fill the vacancy Lord Falkland appointed Mr. Almon, who did not hold a seat in either branch of the Legislature, and who, though moderate in his views, belonged to the Conservative school. On the ground that Almon's appointment, besides violating the principles of responsible government, destroyed the balance of parties in the Executive, Howe, Uniacke, and McNab at once sent in their resignations.

373. The breach between Lord Falkland and Mr. Howe widened, until it came to open hostilities. In his despatches to the Colonial Secretary, Lord Falkland described Mr. Howe as an ambitious, troublesome man,

with whom he would hold no further intercourse. He also tried to persuade Mr. Howe's friends to desert him and accept seats in the Council. On the other hand Mr. Howe, in the columns of the "Nova Scotian," sometimes by sober argument, sometimes by comic verse, attacked Lord Falkland and his government.

Lord Falkland Retires. — 374. Lord Falkland failed to reconcile the Reformers whom he had unwisely driven from his Council. Hoping to gain the good-will of the people and strengthen his government, he made a tour through different parts of the province. He was treated with respect; but he was told with great plainness that his government had not the confidence of the country. No effort could withstand the tide of public sentiment. Lord Falkland quietly retired, probably carrying away no very pleasant memories of his experience in Nova Scotia. His successor was Sir John Harvey.

Canada. 1841, A. D. — 375. The United Province of Canada now entered on a prosperous career. The first Parliament met at Kingston; but in 1844 the seat of government was removed to Montreal. Many important laws were passed relating to municipal institutions, education, public works, and trade. The Queen rewarded Sir Charles Poulett Thompson for his services in restoring order in Canada, by raising him to the Peerage of Great Britain, with the title of Baron Sydenham of Kent and Toronto. But Lord Sydenham did not long enjoy his new honors. He was thrown from his horse, receiving injuries of which he died in the autumn of 1841.

1842, A. D. — 376. Sir Charles Bagot succeeded Lord Sydenham. From his party relations in Great Britain the opponents of responsible government hoped for some sympathy with their views. But during his short rule

he faithfully administered the principles of reform which had been introduced. On account of his failing health he resigned his position, and died shortly after at Kingston.

1843, A. D. — 377. Sir Charles Metcalfe, the new Governor-General, refusing to be guided by the principles of responsible government, made appointments to office without consulting the Executive Council. Baldwin and Lafontaine, the leaders of the Government, holding that the Council was responsible to the Assembly for all appointments made, placed their resignations in the hands of the Governor. A Conservative Government, under the leadership of Mr. Draper, succeeded, remaining in power until 1848.

In 1845 the city of Quebec was laid waste by two destructive fires, rendering homeless twenty-four-thousand inhabitants.

The Earl of Elgin. 1847, A. D. — 378. The Earl of Elgin arrived in Canada as Governor-General early in 1847. He was a man of ability, firmness, and liberal views, and his rule tended to develop more fully the principles of responsible government. Hitherto, in order to protect British manufactures and trade, the provinces were required to place higher duties on foreign imports than on those from the mother country. These restrictions of trade were now removed, and the colonies were allowed to regulate their tariff as seemed most conducive to their own interests.

379. During the year 1847 about seventy thousand persons came to Canada from Ireland and Scotland, being driven from their homes by the scourge of famine. Many of these immigrants proved themselves to be valuable settlers. The advantage to Canada from the large

influx of population was, however, somewhat diminished by the fact that many of the new-comers, crowded in ill-ventilated vessels, contracted malignant fever on the passage, and thus brought pestilence to the shores of their adopted country.

Nova Scotia. — 380. When Sir John Harvey assumed the reins of government in Nova Scotia, the Executive Council consisted of but six members, no appointments having been made since the Reformers retired. Sir John invited Mr. Howe and his friends to return, proposing that Mr. Almon should retire. But the Reformers had lost faith in governments composed of men holding opposite principles, and they informed the Governor that they could not act with the present members of his Council, between whom and themselves the people would soon judge at the polls.

Reform Principles Triumphant. 381. The elections 1848, A. D. came off in Nova Scotia on the 5th of August, 1847, the first time in the history of the province when all the votes were polled in a single day. Previously, the elections were held at different times in the various counties, and in each county the voting was continued from day to day for a week or more. When the House met in the following January the Reformers had a majority of seven. Mr. Johnstone and his friends retired, and a Liberal Government was formed, with Joseph Howe at its head.

382. The year 1848 was remarkable for the triumph of Reform principles. The New Brunswick legislature, by a large majority, adopted responsible government, the Conservative leaders voting with the Reformers. The two most prominent Liberals, Wilmot and Fisher, now accepted seats in the Council with Conservative col-

leagues. In Canada, also, the principles of responsible government were more fully recognized and established. A new election in that province gave the Reformers a majority in the Assembly. The Draper Ministry resigned, and the Baldwin-Lafontaine Government was re-instated. Among the members of the House elected at this time were Louis Papineau and Wolfred Nelson.

383. The voice of the people was now recognized by all parties as the supreme authority, at whose bidding governments must stand or fall. It really was of little importance to the country, henceforth, which party ruled. Tory and Liberal were but empty names; as to the principles of the two parties there was little difference. Sometimes, indeed, the Tories, or Conservatives, as they preferred to call themselves, outstripped the Liberals in measures of reform and extension of power to the people. For the most part men, not measures, formed the bond by which the members of a party were held together.

CHAPTER XXVII.

SETTLEMENT OF OLD QUESTIONS AND DEVELOPMENT OF NEW PRINCIPLES.

Rebellion Losses. 1849, A. D. — 384. One of the first acts of the new Government of Canada aroused a violent storm. During the reign of the Draper Ministry the Loyalists of Upper Canada were paid for losses arising from the destruction of property during the rebellion. The French members insisted that similar compensation should

be made in Lower Canada. But on account of the general disaffection which had prevailed in that province, it was alleged to be difficult to distinguish Loyalists from rebels. A small sum, however, was voted for the partial payment of claims, and the matter was left in an unsettled condition.

§35. The Baldwin-Lafontaine Government now introduced a measure providing £100,000 for the payment of losses in Lower Canada. This excited the strongest opposition among the Conservatives, who urged that the French of Lower Canada either openly aided the rebellion or sympathized with its leaders, and were not entitled to compensation. Violent agitation against the bill was stirred up in Montreal, Toronto, and other cities of the west. "No compensation to rebels" was a party cry. Many who had not ceased to taunt the Reformers with their former disloyalty now talked loudly of annexation to the United States.

Parliament House Burned by a Mob. — 386. The bill passed the House by a large majority, and there was much anxiety as to the course the Governor-General would pursue. Contrary to the expectation of the opposition, Lord Elgin assented to the bill. On leaving Parliament House he was saluted with hisses and groans, and his carriage was pelted with sticks, stones, and other missiles. In the evening the mob gathered around Parliament House, broke the windows, and rushed into the building, the alarmed members escaping for their lives. One of the mob, seating himself in the Speaker's chair, proclaimed with mock dignity, "Gentlemen, the French Parliament is dissolved." Then they proceeded to tear up the seats, break the chandeliers, and destroy all movable property within their reach. Soon the cry of fire drove all from the building.

In the morning the Parliament House was a mass of smoking ruins. For two or three days it was not safe for the supporters of the bill to appear on the streets. The Governor-General was again attacked, and narrowly escaped falling into the hands of the mob.

The Seat of Government Removed **387.** Lord Elgin
from Montreal. sent home his re-

signation, but the Queen refused to accept it, thus showing her approval of his action. The Legislature was prorogued shortly after the riot, never again to meet in Montreal. For several years it met alternately in Toronto and Quebec, — four years in succession in each, — until, in 1866, Ottawa became the permanent seat of government.

Education. — 388. The Legislature of Canada from time to time made liberal provision for the support of education. In 1846 Egerton Ryerson, afterwards better known as Dr. Ryerson, was appointed Superintendent of Education. By travel in Europe and the United States he made himself acquainted with the most improved educational systems in the world. During the long period of thirty years he devoted his rare abilities to the development of the common and high school system which is the pride of Ontario and commands the admiration of all civilized nations.

The high appreciation in which Dr. Ryerson's services were held by the country is evinced by the action of the Legislature of Ontario in granting him his full salary as a retiring pension. He died full of years and honors in February, 1882. The Legislature, which was in session at the time of his death, besides attending his funeral in a body, voted the sum of \$10,000 to provide an annuity for his widow.

1851, A. D. — 389. Division in the ranks of the Reformers of Canada led to the resignation of the Baldwin-

Lafontaine Ministry. A new Government was formed under the leadership of Francis Hincks, noted as the chief promoter of the Grand Trunk Railway. Other important events of the year were the adoption of a uniform postage of five cents throughout the province, and the laying of the corner-stone of the Normal School building at Toronto, by Lord Elgin.

In the following year Montreal was the scene of a terrible fire, which left ten thousand persons homeless.

Canals and Railways. — 390. The St. Lawrence canals were completed in 1848, affording continuous navigation from the ocean to the great lakes. The construction of railways was begun in Canada about 1850. Among the first lines projected were the Northern, the Great Western, and the Grand Trunk. The first railway constructed in Nova Scotia was that portion of the Intercolonial between Halifax and Bedford, opened in 1855. The first telegraph line in Canada was opened in 1847.

Important Measures. 1854, A. D. — 391. A new Government was formed in Canada, of which the leading members were Sir Allan McNab and John A. Macdonald. Three important measures characterized the beginning of its reign, — *the Reciprocity Treaty* with the United States, the *Seigniorial Tenure Act*, and the settlement of *the Clergy Reserves*.

392. **The Reciprocity Treaty** secured free trade in various natural products between the United States and the British Provinces for the period of ten years. It also gave the people of the United States the privilege of navigating the St. Lawrence canals and of fishing in the coast waters of the provinces. Lord Elgin was an active promoter of this treaty, and represented the British Government in arranging its terms. At the close of the year 1854 he was succeeded as Governor-General by Sir Edmund Head.

393. **The Seigniorial Tenure Act** provided for the purchase of the rights of seigniors, or landlords, in the lands of Lower Canada, at a

value fixed by a commission. A part of the valuation price was paid by the occupant of the land, and part by the Government, a grant of \$2,600,000 being made for this purpose.

394. The Clergy Reserves, which had caused so much dissatisfaction in Upper Canada, were handed over principally to the various municipalities, to be used in the general public service. The Churches were, however, allowed to retain such funds as they had in actual possession.

**An Elective Legislative Council
in Canada. 1856, A. D.**

395. One after another the various changes which the Reformers had asked for had taken place. And now it remained for a Conservative Government, of which John A. Macdonald was a prominent member, to bring in a bill making the Legislative Council elective. The bill provided that existing members should not be disturbed; but as vacancies occurred, new members were to be elected for the term of eight years.

**Ottawa Chosen as Capital.
1858, A. D.**

396. Frequent changes in the seat of government being found inconvenient, the Queen was asked by the Legislature of Canada to select some place as a permanent capital. Several of the leading cities of Canada were rivals for this distinction; but her Majesty's choice fell on the comparatively small city of Ottawa. The announcement of this choice was received with much dissatisfaction, and the opponents of the Government, taking advantage of this feeling, succeeded in carrying a resolution expressing regret that Ottawa had been selected as the seat of government. John A. Macdonald at once resigned, and the Governor-General called on George Brown to form a Government. Mr. Brown's Cabinet remained in power but two days, when, failing to command the support of the House, it was forced to retire. A new Government was then formed under the leadership of George E. Car-

tier, including John A. Macdonald as one of its leading members.

Death of Prince Albert.

1861, A. D.

397. Lord Monck succeeded Sir Edmund Head as Governor-General in 1861. The same year is noted for the death of the Prince Consort, "Albert the Good." Prince Albert, though of foreign birth, was deeply interested in all that concerned the prosperity of the British Empire, and his death was regarded as a national calamity. It was he who originated the idea of international exhibitions, the first of which was held in London in 1851.

Rebellion in the United States.

1861-65, A. D.

398. A civil war in the United States, known as the *Southern Rebellion*, which lasted four years, affected the British Provinces in many ways. Business was stimulated; produce of all kinds brought high prices; and money was plentiful. In the first year of the war an event occurred which threatened to involve Great Britain and the United States in hostilities. Two Southern Commissioners, Mason and Slidell, who had taken passage for Europe in the British steamer "Trent," were seized by the officers of an American war-ship, carried back to the Northern States, and thrown into prison. There was much excitement in Great Britain, and active preparations were made for war. Happily the affair was settled by the prompt surrender of Mason and Slidell to the British authorities. During the war the trade of the Northern States was greatly damaged by Southern cruisers. The "Alabama," specially noted for its destruction of Northern shipping, was built in England. This gave rise to what was known as the "Alabama Claims," the settlement of which cost Great Britain \$15,500,000.

Nova Scotian Heroes.—399. Sir John Harvey, the Governor of Nova Scotia, died at Halifax in 1852. His successor was Sir Gaspard le Marchant. In 1854 an Industrial Exhibition was held in Halifax, the first general exhibition held within the bounds of the province. A great war was at this time raging in Europe, — Great Britain, France, Turkey, and Italy on the one side, and

Russia on the other. Three Nova Scotians distinguished themselves in this war, — Captain William Parker, Major Augustus Frederick Welsford, and General Fenwick Williams.

400. Captain Parker was a native of Laurencetown, near Halifax, and was educated at Wolfville. Major Welsford was born in Halifax, and was educated at Windsor. Both were killed at the final storming of the Redan in the Crimea, Welsford's head being carried away by a cannon ball, as, in scaling the walls, he led his men over the parapets. To the memory of these heroes the Parker-Welsford monument was erected in Halifax, in 1860.

401. General Williams was born at Annapolis Royal. His brave defence of Kars in Asia Minor won for him the highest renown. The Queen conferred on him the honor of knighthood, under the title of *Sir Fenwick Williams of Kars*; the British House of Commons voted him a pension of a thousand pounds sterling; and the Legislature of Nova Scotia presented him with a costly sword.

Change of Government in Nova Scotia. 1857, A. D.

402. In a series of letters referring to a riot of railway navvies, and to other exciting incidents of the day, Mr. Howe began in the public press a discussion which gave offence to the Roman Catholic supporters of the Government. When the Legislature met, a vote of want of confidence was carried, and a new Government came into power, with the Hon. J. W. Johnstone as Attorney-General and Dr. Charles Tupper as Provincial Secretary.

403. One of the most important acts of Mr. Johnstone's Government was the settlement of a long-standing dispute respecting the minerals of Nova Scotia. King George IV. had during his reign leased the right to work the mines in Nova Scotia to his brother, the Duke of York. The Duke, again, had disposed of his claim to an English company. The Legislature of Nova Scotia maintained that this was an improper disposal of the minerals of the prov-

ince, and disputed the validity of the company's claim. Mr. Johnstone and Mr. A. G. Archibald were now sent to England to arrange terms of settlement. As a result of their mission a compromise was effected, the company giving up all claims to the minerals of the province, except within certain areas around the mines already opened.

The Atlantic Cable. 1858, A. D. — 404. The Earl of Mulgrave succeeded Sir Gaspard le Marchant as Governor of Nova Scotia. The year 1858 is noted as that in which Europe and America were first connected by a sub-marine telegraph cable from Ireland to Newfoundland. But the hopes of the projectors of the enterprise were doomed to disappointment. The cable, which had been safely laid on the bed of the Atlantic Ocean, broke after a single message of congratulation had been transmitted from the Queen to the President of the United States. A new cable, however, was successfully laid in 1866.

Liberal Government. 1860, A. D. — 405. The general election of 1859 gave the Opposition a majority in the Assembly. But the Government objected to the right of several members to sit in the House, on the ground that when elected they held offices which legally disqualified them for that position. In the mean time, however, these members had a right to vote on the question of their eligibility, and by the help of their own votes a majority was obtained to defeat a motion to unseat them. Lord Mulgrave's advisers urged him to dissolve the House and order a new election. The Governor refusing to accept this advice, the Ministry resigned, and a new Administration came into power, of which Joseph Howe, William Young, and Adams G. Archibald were the most prominent members.

**Visit of the Prince of Wales. 406. The Govern-
1860, A. D.**

ment of Canada invited the Queen to visit their country and take part in laying the corner-stone of the new Parliament buildings at Ottawa; and also to be present at the opening of the great Victoria Bridge, by which the Grand Trunk Railway crosses the St. Lawrence at Montreal. Her Majesty expressed her inability to accept the invitation in person, but deputed her eldest son, the Prince of Wales, to visit Canada as her representative. Accordingly, in the summer of 1860, his Royal Highness came to America. On his way he called at Newfoundland. He then visited Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Canada. In Nova Scotia he visited Sydney, Halifax, Windsor, Truro, and Pictou. Everywhere the people gave him an enthusiastic welcome, as became the son of their Queen and the heir-apparent of the British throne. The Prince also crossed over into the United States, where he was received with greetings as cordial as any that had welcomed him in the dominions of his royal mother.

**Discovery of Gold in Nova Scotia. 407. The year 1861 was noted
1861, A. D.**

for the discovery of gold in Nova Scotia. The precious metal was discovered first at Tangier, in Halifax County; but it has since been found in many parts of the province, more especially in Guysborough, Halifax, Hants, and Lunenburg Counties.

Conservative Government in Nova Scotia. 1863, A. D. 408. Sir Rich-

ard Graves MacDonnell was now Governor of Nova Scotia. A general election resulted in a Conservative majority. At first the Hon. J. W. Johnstone was the leader of the new Government; but Mr. Johnstone having been appointed Judge, Dr. Tupper became Premier. The two leading questions

before the House and the country were education and confederation of the provinces.

Free Schools. — 409. One of the first acts of the new Government was to introduce a measure for the improvement of the system of common-school education in the province. During the fifteen years preceding, the subject of education had received considerable attention from successive governments and legislatures. In 1849, James W. Dawson, since well known as a scientist and as Principal of McGill University, was appointed to the office, then first created in Nova Scotia, of Superintendent of Education. Though holding the position but a short time, he awakened much interest in common-school education, by means of lectures, reports, and Teachers' Institutes convened in various parts of the province. In 1855 the Provincial Normal School for the training of teachers was established at Truro. The Rev. Alexander Forrester was appointed to the double office of Principal of that institution and Superintendent of Education. Dr. Forrester labored with great enthusiasm, and under his training many teachers obtained more enlarged views of their calling, as well as increased skill for the performance of its practical duties. By the influence which in this indirect way he brought to bear on the public mind, and also by his lectures, he did much to prepare the way for the legislation to which we are now referring.

410. The Education Act of 1864 declared that a school receiving public aid must be free to all the children of the section, but left it optional with the rate-payers to raise funds for the support of the school by assessment on the property of the section or by voluntary subscription. With a view, however, to encourage assessment, a bonus was given from the public treasury to all sections adopt-

ing that method. This option tended to make the Act ineffective, many sections being left without schools. Accordingly, at the next session of the legislature the law was amended so as to render assessment the only legal mode of support.

411. The bill relating to Public Instruction, though introduced as a Government measure by the Provincial Secretary, Dr. Tupper, was not dealt with by the Legislature in a party spirit. Mr. Archibald, Mr. Annand, and other prominent leaders of the Opposition gave its leading features a hearty support. As might have been expected, the new system met with much opposition throughout the country. Some would have preferred separate schools for different religious denominations; others opposed the Act because they disliked the principle of assessment which it involved. Many sections refused to appoint Trustees or organize schools under the law, and for a year or two there was much confusion. Gradually, however, the opposition disappeared, and all parties united harmoniously in striving to make the law effective in advancing the educational condition of the province. New and greatly improved school-houses throughout the whole province, better qualified teachers, more effective methods of teaching, and a nearly doubled attendance of pupils in the public schools mark the educational progress of Nova Scotia since 1864.

412. The Government measure of 1864 separated the offices of Principal of the Normal School and Superintendent of Education. Theodore H. Rand, Esq., M. A., was appointed to the latter office, while Dr. Forrester retained his position as Principal of the Normal School. On the new Superintendent devolved the responsible task of bringing the Free School Act into practical operation. Mr. Rand was succeeded in office in 1870 by the Rev. A. S. Hunt, M. A. On Mr. Hunt's death in 1877 David Allison, Esq., LL.D. was appointed Superintendent.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

CONFEDERATION.

Difficulties in Canada. — 413. For nearly a quarter of a century Upper and Lower Canada had been united under one government. During this period the whole country had made great progress in population, wealth, education, facilities for trade, and material prosperity generally. Although comparative contentment prevailed, the political condition of the country was not satisfactory. The two great divisions of the province did not work together harmoniously under one government. Differences of race and religion added the weight of their influence to local jealousies in causing embarrassments. So jealous was each division of the ascendancy of the other, that it was not deemed sufficient for a Ministry to be supported by a majority of the members of the whole province; a Government was weak and ineffective if it failed to command a majority of both Upper and Lower Canada, taken separately. The terms of union gave to each division the same number of members in the Legislature; but Upper Canada, now having over a quarter of a million of inhabitants more than Lower Canada, claimed a proportionately larger representation.

414. The population of Upper and Lower Canada at different periods was as follows: —

1841. — Upper Canada	465,000
„ Lower Canada	691,000
1851. — Upper Canada	952,000
„ Lower Canada	890,000
1861. — Upper Canada	1,396,000
„ Lower Canada	1,111,000

415. The two political parties into which the Province of Canada was divided were so evenly balanced and the interests to be provided for were so conflicting, that it was difficult for a Ministry to carry out any definite policy. Governments were weak and unstable, and were able to maintain even a brief hold of power only by frequent reconstructions. In 1862, on the defeat of the Conservative Cartier-Macdonald Government, a weak Reform Government was organized under the leadership of John Sandfield Macdonald. Although reconstructed in the following year, and somewhat strengthened by the accession of Mr. Dorion, it soon failed to command a working majority of the House. In 1864 a Conservative Ministry, with Sir Etienne Tache as Premier, was again called to the helm. The new Government included Cartier, Galt, and John A. Macdonald; but the ability and distinction of its *personnel* failed to secure for it permanence of power. In less than three months a vote of want of confidence brought matters to a crisis.

**Conference of Conservative
and Reform Leaders.
1864, A. D.**

416. Neither of the political parties of Canada was strong enough to hold firmly the reins of power, and some constitutional change seemed to be the only means of removing the difficulty which obstructed the successful government of the country. Party politics were for the time held in abeyance, and a conference of Conservative and Reform leaders was convened. A scheme was proposed, providing for separate local governments in Upper and Lower Canada and a federal union of the various provinces under one central government. With the express object of carrying out this scheme, a coalition government was formed, in

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which George Brown and other Reformers were associated with Tache, Cartier, Galt, and John A. Macdonald.

The Maritime Provinces.—417. At this time the maritime provinces were discussing the subject of union among themselves. It began to appear absurd that four small provinces so contiguous to each other and so similar as regards the character and interests of their people, should maintain separate governments and be as exclusive in their trade relations as if they belonged to distinct nationalities. In Nova Scotia the veterans who had long guided the councils of Liberals and Conservatives had now retired from the toil and strife of politics. Mr. Young, afterwards Sir William Young, was Chief-Justice; Mr. Johnstone was Judge-in-Equity; while Mr. Howe held the office of Fishery Commissioner under the Imperial Government. It fell to new men to guide the affairs of the country through this important epoch. Charles Tupper was Premier, and Adams G. Archibald was leader of the opposition.

The Charlottetown Convention. 418. The Governments of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island appointed delegates to arrange the terms of a legislative union of the three provinces. The delegates met at Charlottetown Sept. 1, 1864. There were present Charles Tupper, W. A. Henry, R. B. Dickey, Jonathan McCully, and Adams G. Archibald, from Nova Scotia; Samuel L. Tilley, J. M. Johnson, J. P. Gray, E. B. Chandler, and W. H. Stevens, from New Brunswick; Colonel Gray, E. Palmer, W. H. Pope, G. Coles, and A. McDonald from Prince Edward Island. The coalition Government of Canada, which had recently been organized with the special object of bringing about a union of the provinces asked per-

mission to send delegates to the Charlottetown Convention. Accordingly, John A. Macdonald, George Brown, Alexander Galt, George E. Cartier, Thomas D'Arcy Magee, and William MacDougall, came down the St. Lawrence in the Government steamer "Victoria," and were cordially admitted to the maritime convention.

419. The minor union of the maritime provinces was now scarcely thought of, being quite overshadowed by the prospect of a grand confederation of all the provinces. But the delegates of the maritime provinces were not authorized by their respective governments to arrange a basis for this larger union. Efforts were made, however, to impress the popular mind in favor of the scheme. From Charlottetown the delegates went to Halifax, and thence to New Brunswick. Everywhere they were honored with balls and banquets, and little wonder if, amid such festivities, some extravagant things were said in praise of union.

The Quebec Scheme. — 420. Before leaving Charlottetown, the delegates arranged for another meeting at Quebec. In the autumn of the same year the "Victoria" was sent down the St. Lawrence to bring up the delegates from the maritime provinces. The convention was held in the old Parliament House in Quebec, and sat with closed doors for eighteen days, until the terms of union were arranged. Everything was to be kept secret until laid before the legislatures of the different provinces. But the best laid plans often fail; long before the Legislatures met, the Quebec scheme was before the public.

1865, A. D. — 421. The Canadian Legislature, which in the following February met in Quebec for the last time adopted the union resolutions by a large majority. But in the maritime provinces there was a storm of opposition. Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island regarded the

whole scheme with utter scorn. In New Brunswick a general election took place before the union resolutions were submitted. Not a single member of the delegation to Quebec gained a seat in the new Legislature. An anti-union Government came into power, rendering confederation, in so far as New Brunswick was concerned, a very improbable event. In Nova Scotia there were murmurings of dissatisfaction; but the people had no opportunity of expressing their views at the polls.

New Brunswick and Nova Scotia **422.** On the
adopt the Principle of Union. meeting of the
1865, A. D. Nova Scotia Leg-

islature, Dr. Tupper, the leader of the Government, stated that on account of the opposition in New Brunswick, the subject of confederation would not be brought before the House during that session. But in the course of a few weeks a great change was wrought in the public sentiment of New Brunswick. Governor Gordon and a majority of the Legislative Council had all along been strongly in favor of union; and the Imperial Government urged it as a measure of prime concern both to the provinces and the empire. A strong reaction set in throughout the province with a force which the anti-unionists could not resist. In the speech from the throne on the opening of the House, Governor Gordon, in opposition to the views of his advisers, recommended union. The Ministry, regarding this procedure as unconstitutional, resigned office, when a confederate Government was immediately formed under the leadership of Hon. S. L. Tilley. The new Administration appealed to the people, and were sustained by a large majority. The change in New Brunswick led the Government of Nova Scotia to introduce into the Assembly resolutions in favor of confederation. There was

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strong opposition ; many who did not object to the principle of union thought the Quebec scheme did not sufficiently protect the interests of Nova Scotia. To meet these views, Dr. Tupper consented to drop this scheme and to have a new basis of union drawn up by the British Government, aided by delegates from the various provinces. This measure was carried by a large majority ; and to it Canada and New Brunswick gave their assent.

The Delegates in London. — 423. The scene was now changed to the Colonial Office in London. Sixteen delegates, representing Upper Canada, Lower Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, proceeded to England to arrange a new basis of union. The Nova Scotia delegates were Charles Tupper, Adams G. Archibald, Jonathan McCully, J. W. Ritchie, and W. A. Henry. There were opposition delegates also. The anti-confederates, though defeated in the Assembly, were not disposed to yield. Mr. Howe, who hitherto had been a silent looker-on, joined their ranks, giving them courage and strength. Howe, Annand, and Hugh McDonald were sent to London as the "People's Delegates" to thwart the union scheme. Dr. Tupper skilfully set Howe the unionist against Howe the anti-unionist ; for no one had in former days advocated union more vigorously and ardently than Joseph Howe. His former utterances were now effectively turned against him. The strongest argument of the anti-confederates, one never fully answered, was the fact that the people of Nova Scotia had never been consulted on the question. But the "People's Delegates" could not stay the movement.

The Dominion of Canada Organized. July 1, 1867, A. D. 424. The scheme drawn up by the delegates in London was different in some respects from

that prepared at the Quebec Convention. It arranged terms of union for the four provinces, — Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Lower Canada, and Upper Canada, — making provision also for the admission of other provinces which might afterwards wish to come into the union. The name of Upper Canada was changed to Ontario, and that of Lower Canada to Quebec, while the whole territory of the united provinces was designated the *Dominion of Canada*. In February, 1867, the British Parliament ratified the terms of union by an Act known as the British North America Act. The British Government also guaranteed to Canada a loan of £3,000,000 sterling to aid in the building of the Intercolonial Railway. Finally the union was consummated by Royal Proclamation on July 1, 1867.

The Government of the Dominion. — **425.** The British North America Act forms the political constitution or general basis of the government of the Dominion, prescribing the sphere of action for the general and provincial authorities. It provides a central legislature and government for the whole country, having control over matters of common concern, as defence, trade, navigation, fisheries, currency, coinage, banking, the issue of paper money, mails, and criminal law. It also gives to each province its own legislature and government, with jurisdiction over local matters, — as education, crown lands, and minerals.

426. The Governor-General, who represents the Sovereign, and is appointed by the Crown, is the highest officer in the Dominion. He receives a salary of \$50,000 from the Dominion treasury. He is the commander-in-chief of the military and naval forces in the Dominion; has the power to commute the sentence of a court of justice, and with the advice of his Ministry appoints the Lieutenant-Governors of the various provinces, the Judges, and other officers under the Government. His advisers,

designated the Ministry, and also the Privy Council, must be members of Parliament. The Ministry, as well as the Executive Council in the different provinces, is responsible to the people, — that is, can hold office only so long as its policy is approved by the people's representatives in the Lower House.

427. The **Parliament** of the Dominion is composed of the Governor-General, the Senate, and the House of Commons. The assent of the three branches is necessary before any measure can become law.

428. The **Senators** are appointed by the Governor-General in Council. A Senator must be over thirty years of age, possess property worth at least \$4,000, and reside in his own province. Originally there were in all seventy-two Senators. The number has since been increased to seventy-seven, — ten for Nova Scotia, ten for New Brunswick, four for Prince Edward Island, twenty-four for Quebec, twenty-four for Ontario, two for Manitoba, and three for British Columbia. The **Speaker** of the Senate is appointed by the Governor-General.

429. The **members of the House of Commons** are elected by the people for the term of five years. The number for each province is to be readjusted after each decennial census, — the number for Quebec remaining at sixty-five, and those for the other provinces bearing the same proportion to their population as sixty-five to the population of Quebec. At present the House of Commons comprises two hundred and eleven members, distributed as follows: —

Nova Scotia	21
New Brunswick	16
Prince Edward Island	6
Quebec	65
Ontario	92
Manitoba	5
British Columbia	6

New Governments. 1867, A. D. — 430. Lord Monck was the first Governor-General of the Dominion. One of his earliest acts, after taking the oath of office, was to confer the honor of knighthood on John A. Macdonald in the name of the Queen. Sir John, having been called on to form a Ministry, invited to his aid gentlemen of both of the old political parties of the various provinces. In Nova Scotia General Doyle was Lieutenant-Governor. The Tupper Ministry resigned office, and was succeeded by the



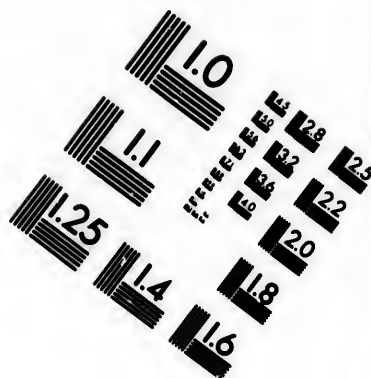
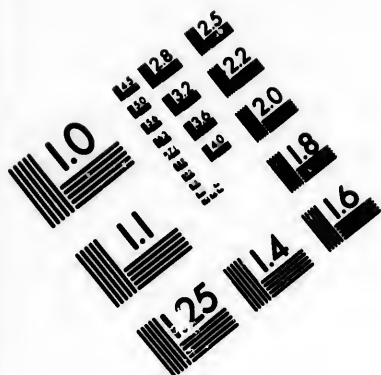
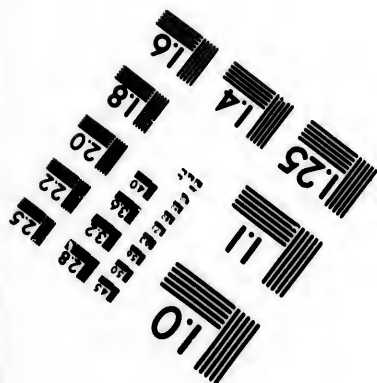
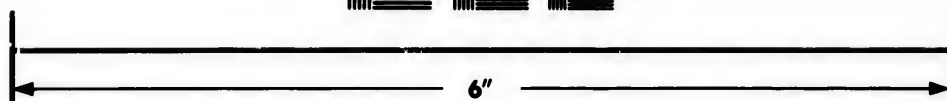
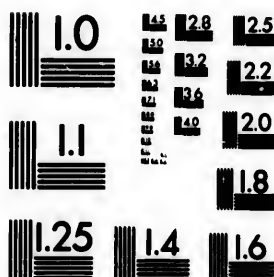


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Hill-Blanchard Government, which had a brief existence, pending the decision of the people at the polls.

The Voice of the People. — 431. Sir Fenwick Williams was appointed Governor of Nova Scotia shortly after the confederation of the provinces. He tried to quiet the agitation which the question of union had stirred up; but even the hero of Kars could not pacify those who still gave their voice for war. In the strife old party lines were obliterated, old party names forgotten. Those who as Liberals and Conservatives had fiercely opposed each other in the great political questions of former days, were surprised to find themselves standing side by side under the same banner. In the summer and autumn of 1867 members were elected for the Dominion and local legislatures. Throughout the whole of Nova Scotia only three union men were elected, — Dr. Tupper for the House of Commons, Hiram Blanchard and Henry Pineo for the House of Assembly. In New Brunswick about one half the members elected for the House of Commons were unionists; in Quebec and Ontario they formed a majority, so that Sir John A. Macdonald's Government was strongly sustained.

Repeal. — 432. The new Government of Nova Scotia, led by Mr. Annand, was bent on repeal of the union. An address was sent to the Queen by the Assembly, stating that while Nova Scotia loved connection with Great Britain, nothing was more hateful to her than confederation. Howe and Annand proceeded to England for the purpose of breaking up the union. At the Colonial Office they were met by Dr. Tupper, who had come to defeat their object. All efforts for repeal were of no avail.

Better Terms. — 433. In 1868 Lord Lisgar (Sir John Young) became Governor-General. In the same year meas-

ures were taken by the Dominion Government to secure possession of the Northwest Territory, of which we shall speak more fully in another chapter. The opposition in Nova Scotia, though not less demonstrative, began to give way. Mr. Howe gave up the struggle for repeal, and, as he said, "only labored to make the best of a bad bargain." The British Government urged the Government of the Dominion to conciliate Nova Scotia. Accordingly, negotiations were entered into by Sir John A. Macdonald and Mr. Howe, by which Nova Scotia received a larger subsidy for the period of ten years, together with some permanent financial advantages. On this, Mr. Howe accepted office as Secretary of State in the Dominion Cabinet. Many of the anti-confederates, following the example of their great leader, became unionists; others, indignant at what they regarded as his desertion of them, heaped upon him unmeasured abuse.

CHAPTER XXIX.

CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

The Raid on St. Albans. — 434. During the civil war in the United States the peaceful relations of that country with the provinces were imperilled by the action of Southern sympathizers who had crossed over into Canada. Taking advantage of the shelter which was afforded them on neutral soil, they secretly organized expeditions against the North. In the autumn of 1864 a band of raiders plundered the banks of St.

Albans, in northern Vermont, killing one man in the affray, and then hastily retreated into Canada with their booty, amounting to \$223,000. The Canadian authorities arrested several of them, and seized a portion of the stolen money; but afterwards they set the robbers at liberty, restoring to them \$90,000 of their booty. This money the Government of Canada was subsequently required to refund to the United States.

Assassination of President Lincoln. — 435. The war in the United States was brought to a close in the spring of 1865. The resources of the South having become completely exhausted, General Grant took possession of Richmond, the seat of the Confederate Government, and compelled General Lee to surrender with all his army. Yet one sad event, showing the intensity of Southern feeling, closed the scene. The election of Abraham Lincoln as President, whose views on the Slavery question made him obnoxious to the slave-holding States of the South, had been the proximate cause of the rebellion; on the 14th of April, five days after the surrender of Richmond, Lincoln was struck down by an assassin's bullet as he sat in his box in a Washington theatre.

The Fenians. — 436. During the year succeeding the close of the war in the United States, certain portions of the provinces bordering on that country were kept in a state of alarm by rumors of threatened invasion of the Fenians. The professed aim of the Fenian organization was the overthrow of British rule in Ireland. It is difficult to discover the connection between this object and marauding expeditions against the provinces; but it gratified the members of the organization to show their hatred for anything that was British, and it suited their leaders to keep up a show of action in order to draw larger contributions from their supporters. Disbanded soldiers and military officers out of employ joined their ranks. Arms and other war material were easily obtained.

437. In the spring of 1866, a band of Fenians from the

United States seized the Island of Campobello, in the Bay of Fundy, with the intention of making it a base for raids on New Brunswick ; but finding troops and volunteers ready to meet them they soon dispersed. In June a force of about twelve hundred, under "General O'Neil," crossed over from Black Rock on the Niagara frontier, and took possession of Fort Erie. Thence they advanced to Ridgeway, near the Welland Canal. Hundreds of volunteers hastened to repel the invaders, and an engagement took place at Ridgeway, in which seven Canadians were killed. The Fenians retreated to Fort Erie, and after some further encounters with the volunteers, they withdrew from Canadian territory. Several of them were killed ; others were taken prisoners, some of whom were sentenced to be hanged, which sentence was afterwards commuted to imprisonment.

438. The Fenians continued for some time to give trouble, crossing the line at various places and plundering the country. Finally the United States authorities arrested the leaders and put a stop to hostile proceedings.

One of the saddest incidents connected with the Fenian agitation was the assassination of Thomas D'Arcy Magee. In the early morning of April 7, 1868, after a protracted session of the House of Commons, Magee was followed from the Parliament House by a Fenian fanatic named Whelen, and shot dead as he was entering his boarding-house.

Termination of the Reciprocity Treaty. 1866, A. D.

439. The Reciprocity Treaty entered into with the United States in 1856 for the term of ten years now expired. Protection to home industries was probably the leading motive which influenced the United States Government in declining to renew the treaty, although

the hope of promoting annexation, through desire on the part of the provinces for free commercial intercourse, may have had some weight in determining its action. The abrogation of the treaty caused temporary embarrassment by closing in effect the markets of the United States to certain products of the provinces; but trade gradually found new channels, and a spirit of independence has been fostered by the exercise of self-reliance.

The Washington Treaty. 440. Several matters

1871, A. D. affecting the relations of

Great Britain and Canada with the United States required to be adjusted. The leading questions in dispute were the "Alabama Claims," the Boundary Dispute, Compensation for Fenian Depredations, and the Coast Fisheries. To secure peaceable settlement of these questions a Joint-High Commission, composed of prominent statesmen of both nations, including Sir John A. Macdonald as the representative of Canada, was appointed to meet at Washington. At the request of the British Government the claims of Canada on account of losses sustained through the Fenians were not brought before the Commission.

441. The claims of the United States for damages to Northern commerce by cruisers fitted out in England, known as the "Alabama Claims," were referred to arbitration. The arbitrators, who met at Geneva in Switzerland, in the following year, awarded the sum of \$15,500,000 damages, which amount was promptly paid by Great Britain.

442. A treaty made in 1846 fixed upon the middle of the channel between Vancouver Island and the mainland as the boundary between British America and the United States, on the western side of the continent. The

ownership of the Island of San Juan, situated in this channel, afterwards became a matter of dispute between the two nations, and was now one of the questions before the Commission. The matter was referred to the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the United States.

443. An arrangement was made in regard to the fisheries of British America and the United States to continue in force for twelve years. The treaty provided that, with the exception of the produce of British Columbia, fish and fish oil should be admitted to each country free of duty; and that the subjects of each country should have the privilege of fishing in the coast waters of the other. But as the fisheries of British America were the more valuable, it was agreed that the United States should pay such equivalent in money as should be fixed by a commission to be appointed for the purpose. Americans were permitted to use the canals of Canada on the same terms as British subjects, and to float their timber down the St. John River; and the Canadians were allowed to navigate the St. Clair Canal and Lake Michigan.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE NORTHWEST.

444. IN the early times both the French and the English claimed the vast territory extending northerly from the Province of Canada to the Arctic Ocean. The territory was prized chiefly for its valuable furs. The French held communication with the country by way of the Saguenay River; and very early in the history of Canada, Tadoussac, at the mouth of this river, became a noted fur dépôt. The English entered the country by the Hudson Bay route. By the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, in 1632, England gave up all claim to the territory; but disregarding the terms of this treaty, Charles II., in 1670, ceded it to an English company, of which the leading member was Prince Rupert. Under the ambiguous terms of its charter, which included the territory drained by the rivers flowing into Hudson and James Bays, the company claimed the basin of Lake Winnipeg and the country of the Saskatchewan River. It had the right to govern the country through officers of its own appointment, and it enjoyed exclusive rights of trade. Numerous forts or trading-posts were established on the shores of Hudson and James Bays, and at various places on the rivers. During the first hundred years of its existence the company derived immense revenues from this northern country, giving the Indians guns, ammunition, blankets, and other articles in exchange for their furs.

The Northwest Company. — 445. Shortly after Canada was ceded to Great Britain, Montreal merchants began a fur-trade in the Northwest, and in 1784 they organized an association called the Northwest Company for the purpose of carrying on this traffic. The headquarters of the new company were at Fort William on Lake Superior. A dispute soon arose between the two companies as to the ownership of the territory drained by the rivers flowing into Lake Winnipeg, and a conflict began between their employés which lasted nearly forty years, resulting in great destruction of property and in loss of life.

Red River Settlement. — 446. In 1811, when the quarrel between the rival companies was most violent, the Earl of Selkirk obtained from the Company a grant of an extensive tract of country on the Red River. To this place, afterwards known as Red River Settlement, he invited colonists, offering free grants of land and other inducements. In the following year a band of Scotch emigrants formed the first settlement at Red River. The Northwest Company regarded these colonists as intruders, and an armed band of its employés, disguised as Indians, attacked the settlement, burning the dwellings and forcing the inhabitants to take refuge at Pembina. Having returned to their lands the colonists were again similarly expelled, while several of their number were shot dead by their assailants. They persevered in trying to establish for themselves a home, but only to encounter new ills. For two consecutive years the plague of grasshoppers devastated the land. Countless myriads of these creatures invaded the country, darkening the air as they swept down upon the fields, and devouring every green thing in their onward march. Other calamities followed. In the winter of 1826 several persons perished from the intensity of

the cold. In the succeeding spring the river rose to an extraordinary height, overflowing its banks and sweeping houses, barns, and everything movable onward to Lake Winnipeg, while the terror-stricken inhabitants fled to the higher grounds for safety.

Explorations in the Northwest. — 447. In the mean time explorers had been making their way into the hitherto unknown regions of the Northwest. In 1789 Sir Archibald MacKenzie discovered the great river of the north, which bears his name, crossed the Rocky Mountains, and continued his course westerly to the Pacific Ocean, being the first to make the journey across the continent in these high latitudes. About the same time Captain Vancouver was exploring the Pacific Coast waters of British America.

The two Companies United. 448. The two rival
1821, A. D. companies, having become weary of their ruinous strife, laid aside their hostility and united under the name of the Hudson Bay Company. This new Company procured by an Act of the Imperial Parliament exclusive right to trade over the vast territory extending from Labrador to the Pacific Ocean ; it also purchased the tract of country on the Red River which had been granted to the Earl of Selkirk.

British Columbia and Vancouver Island. 449. In 1849 Vancouver Island was formed into a Crown Colony. A few years later gold was found in large quantities along the rugged valley of the Fraser River, in British Columbia. Thousands of miners flocked thither from California and other parts of the world, and a strong local authority was necessary for the maintenance of order. Accordingly, in 1858, the British Government assumed direct control of the country. In 1866 British Columbia and Vancouver Island were united into one province.

Measures taken by Canada for acquiring the Northwest. 1868, A. D.

450. The Hudson Bay Company, desirous of maintaining permanent possession of a country which had been to its shareholders so rich a harvest-field, discouraged the settlement of their territory, representing that it was unsuited to agriculture. Travellers, however, who visited the country from time to time told of the wonderful fertility of its rich prairies. Meanwhile Red River Settlement had gradually increased in population, so that at the time of the organization of the Dominion of Canada it had from ten to twelve thousand inhabitants. The people were of varied origin, — Scotch, French, Indian, and half-breed or mixed. They were not satisfied with their position under the government of the Hudson Bay Company, and naturally regarded with favor annexation to Canada. Canadian statesmen, also, were ambitious of extending the new Dominion westerly so as to include within its limits the whole of British America. Accordingly, in 1868, Sir George E. Cartier and the Hon. William MacDougall proceeded to England to arrange for the purchase of the territory held by the Hudson Bay Company. Terms having been agreed on, an Act was passed by the Imperial Parliament, providing for the transfer of Hudson Bay Territory.

Terms of Transfer. — 451. The Hudson Bay Company reserved its trading-posts with adjacent lands to the extent of fifty thousand acres in all, and also one-twentieth of the lands which should be laid out for settlement in the fertile belt lying south of the north branch of the Saskatchewan. All its other lands, its right of government and exclusive trade privileges, the Company ceded to the Dominion Government for £300,000 sterling.

Opposition. 1869, A. D. — 452. In the session of 1869 the Dominion Parliament passed an Act providing for the temporary government of the Northwest Territory by a Governor and Council, and during the summer surveyors were sent to Red River to lay out roads and townships. Many of the inhabitants who had no title by deed or grant to the lands which they occupied became alarmed lest they should be dispossessed; some were dissatisfied also with the form of government provided for the territory. Moreover, certain ambitious persons in the settlement used their influence to encourage suspicion and disaffection, so that affairs at Red River began to present an unpleasant aspect.

Rebellion in Red River Settlement. — 453. In the autumn of 1869 the Hon. William MacDougall, having been appointed Governor of the Northwest Territory, set out for Red River Settlement, proceeding by way of St. Paul, in Minnesota. On crossing the borders he was met by a party of armed men, by whom he was compelled to retire to Pembina. Red River Settlement was now the scene of an organized rebellion, under the guidance of Louis Riel and M. Lepine. The insurgents seized Fort Garry, from which they obtained arms, ammunition, and valuable stores belonging to the Hudson Bay Company. During the winter of 1870, Riel, whom they elected President, ruled the settlement with despotic power. All who opposed his authority or endeavored to suppress the rebellion were seized and imprisoned in Fort Garry. He sentenced Major Boulton to be shot for treason against his government, but after much entreaty, urged by influential friends, granted him a reprieve. Others, on whose death he had resolved as a means of establishing his authority, saved their lives by escaping from prison and fleeing from the country.

Thomas Scott. — 454. A victim was found in Thomas Scott, whose death aroused the deepest indignation, especially in Ontario, of which province he was a native. Scott was subjected to a mock trial before a so-called court-martial and sentenced to be shot. Every effort was made to save his life, clergymen and others interceding in his behalf; but Riel would yield to no entreaty. On the day succeeding the trial the sentence was summarily executed.

The Province of Manitoba. 455. In May, 1870, 1870, A. D. the Dominion Parliament passed an Act forming Red River Settlement and the adjoining territory into a province under the name of Manitoba, with a representative government similar to that of the other provinces. Manitoba as thus constituted had an area of about fourteen thousand square miles. The remaining portion of the Northwest was placed provisionally under the jurisdiction of the Governor of Manitoba. The whole territory acquired from the Hudson Bay Company was finally annexed to the Dominion by Royal Proclamation, issued June 23, 1870. As yet, however, Riel's power was supreme at Red River.

A Military Expedition precedes Governor Archibald to Manitoba. 456. The Honorable Adams G. Archibald was now appointed Governor of the new Province of Manitoba. It was, however, considered advisable to send a military force into the country to restore order and aid in establishing civil government. Accordingly, Colonel Garnet Wolseley, who has since acquired renown in Asiatic and African wars, with about twelve hundred men, composed of regular troops and Canadian volunteers, set out for Manitoba. The expedition proceeded by way of the Great Lakes to

Fort William on Thunder Bay, and thence through a rugged wilderness country a distance of nearly five hundred miles, along numerous lakes, streams, and portages. Where circumstances permitted they went in boats; and when they came to a portage, they dragged their boats across with immense labor. On the arrival of the forces at Winnipeg, Riel and his leading associates fled hurriedly, taking refuge among their friends near the Assiniboine River. The rebellion was now at an end; but it required much prudence on the part of Governor Archibald to calm the excited feelings of the people.

457. Lepine was subsequently apprehended, brought to trial for the part he had taken in the murder of Thomas Scott, and sentenced to be hanged; but the sentence was commuted to imprisonment, and then to banishment from the Dominion. Riel, keeping beyond the reach of the officers, was declared an outlaw. In 1874 he was elected to the House of Commons by the constituency of Provencher, in Manitoba; but, as a fugitive from justice, he was excluded from his seat by a vote of the House.

Manitoba Enlarged. — 458. Since its organization as a province of the Dominion, Manitoba has increased rapidly in population through emigration from the older provinces and from Europe. By an Act of the Dominion Legislature passed in 1881 a portion of the Northwest Territory was annexed to the province, giving it an area of about one hundred and twenty-three thousand square miles.

British Columbia annexed to the Dominion. 1871, A. D. **459.** In 1871 the Province of British Columbia was annexed to the Dominion of Canada. One of the leading conditions on which this province consented to enter the union was the construction within ten years by the Dominion Government of a railway to connect the railway system of Ontario with the Pacific Coast. It was, however, found impracticable to complete this great work

within the time specified, and the delay caused much dissatisfaction among the people of British Columbia.

Further Changes in the Northwest. — 460. In 1876 the Northwest Territory was separated into two divisions. The westerly and more important division, retaining the name of the Northwest Territory, was placed under a separate government, consisting of a Governor and Council. The Hon. David Laird was appointed first Governor of this territory. The easterly division, called Keewatin, was placed under the jurisdiction of the Governor of Manitoba.

461. Again, in 1882, the Northwest Territory was divided into four provinces, as follows: *Assiniboia*, lying along the United States frontier west of Manitoba, and having an area of about ninety-five thousand square miles; *Alberta*, on the United States frontier between Assiniboia and British Columbia, having an area of about one hundred thousand square miles; *Saskatchewan*, on the north of Manitoba and Assiniboia, having an area of about one hundred and fourteen thousand square miles; and *Athabaska*, on the north of Alberta, having an area of about one hundred and twenty-two thousand square miles.

CHAPTER XXXI.

RECENT EVENTS. 1872-1893, A. D.

The Earl of Dufferin. — 462. In the summer of 1872 the Earl of Dufferin succeeded Lord Lisgar as Governor-General. Distinguished alike for his eloquence, scholarship, and fascinating manner, Lord Dufferin soon became one of the most popular governors that have ever represented royalty in America. He visited all the principal places in the Dominion from Halifax on the Atlantic to Victoria on the Pacific Coast, using his powerful influence for the promotion of the various interests of the country.

Native Governors. — 463. Sir Fenwick Williams of Kars was the first native Governor of Nova Scotia. In 1873, the Hon. Joseph Howe succeeded General Doyle in this office. He had given to his country the service of a self-sacrificing life; it was most fitting, therefore, that he should now enjoy the highest honors which that country could bestow. But the evening-time of rest and dignity was short. On June 1, a few weeks after his appointment, Mr. Howe died at Government House in Halifax. The unexpected death of this eminent statesman called forth universal manifestations of sorrow. Political differences and animosities were forgotten, and all classes united to honor the memory of a man whose genius and patriotism had done so much to promote the welfare of his native province.

464. The position of lieutenant-governor was now offered to Mr. Howe's old rival, Judge Johnstone, who was at the time in England ; but the Judge's feeble health compelled him to decline the honor. Shortly after this he died, Nova Scotia thus losing in swift succession two of her most distinguished sons. The Hon. A. G. Archibald, C. M. G., who had already as Governor of Manitoba done good service to the Dominion in organizing that new province, was now appointed Governor of Nova Scotia. Although decided and out-spoken as a politician, Mr. Archibald's moderation and integrity had won for him the confidence and respect of all parties during an active political life of twenty years ; and his appointment to the highest office in the province was received with universal satisfaction.

465. A few days preceding the death of Governor Howe, Sir George E. Cartier, one of the most distinguished of French Canadian statesmen, died in London. His remains were brought to Montreal and buried with imposing ceremonies, at the expense of the Dominion Government.

New Brunswick. — **466.** The most marked features in the history of New Brunswick during the years following the confederation of the provinces were the extension of the railways of the province and the introduction of free schools. The Common School Act of 1871, for which New Brunswick is largely indebted to the Hon. George E. King, then the leader of the local government, is similar in its leading features to that of Nova Scotia. The administration of the law was intrusted to Theodore H. Rand, Esq., D. C. L., who was appointed Superintendent of Education in 1871. The Free School system at first met with strong opposition ; but the difficulties connected with its introduction have long since disappeared, and marked educational results have followed the working of the law.

The St. John Fire. — 467. On the 20th of June, 1877, a large part of the city of St. John was reduced to ashes. The fire swept over a district of about two hundred acres in extent, burning about sixteen hundred houses, including many churches, other public buildings, and the principal business part of the city.

Prince Edward Island. — 468. Prince Edward Island was admitted as a province of the Dominion of Canada in 1873. The system of tenantry with non-resident landlords, which had prevailed in the Island since its first settlement, had long caused much dissatisfaction. Strenuous but unavailing efforts had been made by the Government to effect some compromise by which the claims of the proprietors should be extinguished. By the terms of union the Dominion Government guaranteed a loan of \$800,000 for this object; and in 1875 an Act was passed by the local legislature, compelling the owners of lands to accept a valuation price affixed by three appraisers, — one to be appointed by the Governor-General, one by the Lieutenant-Governor of the Island, and one by the proprietor.

Resignation of the Macdonald Ministry. — 469. In the summer of 1872 the second general election of members for the Dominion House of Commons took place, resulting in a majority in favor of the Government of which Sir John A. Macdonald was Premier. Early in the following year a charter was given by the Government to an association of persons designated the "Canada Pacific Railway Company," arranging the terms for the construction of a railway across the continent through Dominion territory. A few days after the meeting of Parliament in March, Mr. Huntingdon, the member for Shefford, startled the House by asserting that the Government had given the contract to this company in consideration of money re

ceived to aid in carrying the elections of the preceding year. A committee was appointed to inquire into the matter, and pending its action the House adjourned. On the reassembling of Parliament a few weeks after, it was found that, owing to lack of power to receive sworn testimony, the committee had made no investigation. An address, signed by a majority of the members, was now presented to the Governor-General, urging that the House should not be prorogued until it had opportunity of examining the charges which had been brought against the Government. But as the House had been convened for a special purpose and all the members were not present, his Excellency declined to accede to this request.

470. A Royal Commission was now appointed to investigate the charges against the Government. In October the House was called together to receive the report of this Commission ; but contrary to expectation the report simply recited the evidence taken, without giving any judicial opinion as to the merits of the case. The Hon. Alexander Mackenzie, the leader of the Opposition, then moved a resolution involving censure of the Government. For a week, amid much excitement, the question was discussed ; but before a vote was taken, Sir John A. Macdonald announced the resignation of the Government. A new Ministry was at once formed with Mr. Mackenzie as Premier, and the House was within a few months dissolved with a view to test the country on the question which had led to the change of Government. The elections came off in January, 1874, resulting in a large majority in favor of the new administration. The House elected at this time existed for the full term of five years, throughout which the Mackenzie Ministry remained in power.

The MacKenzie Government. — 471. Mr. MacKenzie's chief colleagues in the Ministry were the Hon. Edward Blake from Ontario and the Hon. Antoine A. Dorion from Quebec. The most important measures of the five years' rule of his Government were a new Election Law, the establishment of a Court of Appeal at Ottawa, the Canada Pacific Railway Act, treaty arrangements with the United States, and the Scott Act.

The Election Law. — 472. The two leading features of the Election Law were the provision for holding the election of members of Parliament on the same day throughout the Dominion with the exception of a few remote districts, and voting by ballot instead of open voting. Some regarded the old way of open voting the more manly, as the elector thus showed that he was not ashamed of his principles; but the ballot seems better calculated to prevent bribery and protect the elector from influences which interfere with his freedom.

The Court of Appeal. — 473. The Court of Appeal was established in 1875. It has jurisdiction in cases brought up by appeal from the higher courts in the various provinces, and also in all matters which may be referred to it by the Governor in Council. Under certain conditions an appeal may be had from this court to the Privy Council in England.

The Canada Pacific Railway. — 474. Probably the most difficult matter with which the Government had to deal was the Pacific Railway. Four years of the ten specified in the contract with British Columbia had passed, and the road was scarcely begun. It seemed impossible to carry out the arrangement without taxing the country beyond what it was able to bear. British Columbia was much dissatisfied on account of the delay, and a delegate

was sent to England to lay the matter before the British Government. The Colonial Minister proposed a plan of compromise, which, after its adoption by the Canadian House of Commons, was rejected by the Senate. There seemed no way out of the difficulty, and the withdrawal of British Columbia from the Union began to be agitated. While matters were in this state the Governor-General, Earl Dufferin, visited British Columbia with the view of trying to conciliate its government and people. Through his tact a better state of feeling was brought about in the Pacific Province, and its people were led to believe that the Dominion Government would deal with them in good faith.

475. In the measures afterwards adopted by the Government for the construction of the railway no time was fixed for its completion; but the work was to be carried forward as rapidly as possible without increasing the taxes of the country. It was resolved to construct first such portions of the road as would connect water stretches between Port Arthur on Lake Superior and the Rocky Mountains, leaving the eastern portion of the road on the north of Lake Superior to be built after the rest was finished. In this way it was proposed to open up a combined rail and water route for use in summer between Eastern Canada and the North West.

A Treaty with United States.—476. As a dependency of Great Britain Canada has no power to make treaties with foreign states, such right being reserved to itself by the Imperial Government. In taking steps to secure a new commercial treaty with the United States Mr. MacKenzie felt that Canadians could guard their own interests better than could statesmen from beyond the Atlantic. In deference to his views the British Govern-

ment appointed the Hon. George Brown, a Canadian of great ability and long experience in the affairs of the country, as one of the delegates to frame a draft treaty. The work was carefully done at Washington, but the Senate of the United States refusing to ratify it, the treaty never came into force.

The Fishery Commission.—477. It will be remembered that the Washington Treaty of 1871 arranged for an exchange of fishing privileges between Canada and the United States. But as the Canadian fisheries were considered the more valuable, it was provided that the United States should pay Canada such sum of money as represented the difference in value. Several years had passed without further action in the matter. A commission was now appointed by the government of Great Britain and the United States to determine the amount to be paid. Again a Canadian statesman, Sir Alexander Galt, was appointed, in response to the wishes of the Premier of Canada, to represent Great Britain. The Commission met in Halifax in 1878, and after a full consideration of all questions relating to the matter in hand awarded to Canada \$5,500,000, which sum was duly paid by the United States.

The Scott Act, 1878.—478. Among the measures adopted for the restriction of the liquor traffic perhaps the most noted and popular is that known as the Scott Act. It took its name from Senator Scott by whom the bill was introduced into the Senate. The chief feature of the law is the local option afforded by it, which enables any municipality, by a vote of its inhabitants, to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquor within its limits.

Prerogative and Privilege.—479. The central principle of Responsible Government makes the people the

source of lawful authority ; this authority is delegated to the Ministry by the people's representatives. In his public acts the Governor-General is to be guided by the advice of his Ministry. The Governor-General's instructions from the British Government were not quite consistent with this view. On the contrary, these instructions directed him to act in opposition to the opinion of his advisers when the public interests demanded such action. Mr. MacKenzie was a firm believer in Canada's right of self-government and he grappled manfully with every obstacle that seemed to hinder the free and full exercise of that right. In deference to his views the objectionable clause was struck out of the Governor's Commission. The principle now fully recognized is that the Governor-General must follow the advice of his Ministers. If he refuses to do so, they resign and leave him to find a new ministry whose policy is in harmony with his views.

The Governor of Quebec and his Ministry.—480. The Province of Quebec was at this time much agitated by a question in statecraft. The Lieutenant-Governor, the Hon. Luc Letellier de St. Just, was a liberal and his advisers were conservatives, having the support of a majority of the House of Assembly. They did not get on very harmoniously. His Honor complained that the Ministers did not treat him courteously. They published proclamations over his signature without his knowledge, and they submitted measures to the Legislature without consulting him. He accordingly dismissed them and summoned a new ministry from the ranks of the opposition. Of course the new Ministers could not expect to carry on the government with a Legislature opposed to their policy. The Governor accordingly dissolved the Assembly, trusting that the new House would be in

sympathy with his present advisers. Failing in this hope he would have been in an awkward position. His ministry was sustained by a majority of one.

The propriety of Governor Letellier's action in dismissing his advisers was questioned in the House of Commons. Sir John A. Macdonald, then the leader of the Opposition, moved a vote of censure against the Governor. But Mr. MacKenzie and his supporters, regarding the action as a matter of local concern and holding that the Province of Quebec had endorsed it by sustaining the new Ministry, voted it down. Subsequently, when Sir John was Premier, the new house passed the vote, and the Governor of Quebec was removed from office.

Change of Government. — 481. The Liberal-Conservatives were almost disorganized by the defeat sustained in 1874; but rallied by their old leader, Sir John A. Macdonald, they soon recovered sufficient strength to form a vigorous Opposition. The years that followed Mr. MacKenzie's accession to power were not prosperous; the trade of the Dominion was greatly depressed; and the public revenue year after year showed large deficits. Sir John A. Macdonald and his associates urged on the House a reconstruction of the tariff, so as to protect native industries from being destroyed during their infancy by the importation of the products of older and wealthier countries. But these efforts were powerless to disturb the position of the Government, though its usual majorities were considerably reduced on this special question. It was soon shown, however, that the Opposition had correctly gauged the feelings of the constituencies. The general election came off in the Autumn of 1878, with results which probably surprised all parties. The Opposition had a majority of about eighty in the New House.

The MacKenzie Ministry at once resigned office, and Sir John A. Macdonald resumed the reins of power.

The New Government. — 482. Shortly after the election Lord Dufferin, having held the office of Governor-General for six years, bade adieu to Canada. He was succeeded by the Marquis of Lorne. Descended from an ancient and honorable line of Scottish nobles, distinguished in his own person for ability and culture, and closely connected with the Queen as the husband of the Princess Louise, the Marquis was welcomed with much enthusiasm. In the new Cabinet Sir John A. Macdonald was Premier and Minister of the Interior. He was surrounded by able colleagues, as the Hon. S. L. Tilley, the Hon. Charles Tupper and others scarcely less noted. Moreover he had a large and loyal following in the House of Commons, — too large to be easily managed, thought some.

The National Policy. — 483. The new Parliament, during its first session, readjusted the tariff, imposing high duties on such natural and manufactured products as were considered proper to the Dominion. A larger revenue was thus obtained to meet the liabilities of the country. The chief object, however, of the higher duties was professedly the encouragement of home industries by a protective tariff. This line of action, known as the "National Policy," has formed the most distinctive feature of the Liberal Conservative Administration. The Liberals contend that it is not a wise policy. It may enrich the manufacturer, but, say they, the money comes out of the people's pockets.

The Canadian Pacific Railway. — 484. The Canadian Pacific Railway is Sir John A. Macdonald's grandest monument. It was a vast undertaking. Great foresight,

self-reliance, and energy were essential characteristics of the statesman who could afford to propose such an enterprise. The Government entered into a contract with a company, of which Sir George Stephen and Sir Donald Smith were leading members, to build this road. The Government agreed to give the Company twenty-five million acres of land along the line, a cash subsidy of \$25,000,000, and the parts of the road already constructed, which had cost about \$28,000,000. The road was to be completed within ten years. It was commenced in 1881, and with such marvellous energy was the work carried on that the road was finished and open for traffic in the summer of 1886. The Company has since built various branch lines and made connections with other roads, so that it now controls about 9,000 miles of railway. Its trains run from Halifax to Vancouver. It has also established lines of steamers running from Vancouver to Japan and China, and from Vancouver to Australia.

485. The Canadian Pacific Railway is one of the greatest and best equipped railways in the world. Its importance to Canada cannot be overestimated. It has done more to consolidate the Dominion and give a national character to the country than almost any other agency. Without it British Columbia would be shut off from her sister provinces by the great Rocky Mountain wall; Manitoba and the North West would be separated from Eastern Canada by the vast wilderness on the North of Lake Superior. Through this great highway has been realized, in a very important sense, the dream of Columbus and others of his time of discovering a westerly route to India.

Rebellion in the North West, 1885, A.D. — 486. During the summer of 1884 there were mutterings of discontent

amongst the half-breeds of the North West. It was hard times with them. Since the opening of the country for settlement, the buffalo, once a great source of wealth to half-breeds and Indians, had become nearly extinct. Government surveyors were laying out the country for settlement, and the half-breeds having no titles to the lands which they occupied feared that they were to be dispossessed. They asked the Dominion Government to give them free grants of their farms, as had been done for the half-breeds of Manitoba. Failing to get an answer they sent for Louis Riel, the leader of the Manitoba rebellion of 1870. Riel's old offence had not been pardoned and he was still an outlaw, living in Montana. Regardless of danger he accepted the invitation. He held public meetings in the Saskatchewan district, discussing the wrongs of the half-breeds. Under his direction a petition was sent to the Government at Ottawa, setting forth the demands of his people. Riel also gained the sympathy of the Indians by telling them that they were the rightful owners of the country, and that the Government should have bought it from them rather than from the Hudson Bay Company.

487. The agitation assumed a threatening aspect. The English settlers in the country began to be alarmed. The Dominion Government, however, did not seem to realize that there were any wrongs to be redressed, or any dangers to be guarded against. No attention was given to petitions, and no precautions were taken against insurrection. Meanwhile the half-breeds, under Riel and Gabriel Dumont, entered upon a course of plunder and violence. They set up a government of their own with Riel at its head. They seized arms, ammunition and other property belonging to the Dominion Government,

the Hudson Bay Company, and private individuals. Persons who dared to question Riel's authority were imprisoned. Towards the end of March, 1885, they attacked a company of volunteers and mounted police at Duck Lake near Fort Carleton, killing twelve of their number. At Frog Lake, also, nine men were killed by Indians.

488. The rebellion was now an undoubted fact. Indeed matters looked serious enough. A rebellion of the half-breeds might not be a very formidable affair, but there were thousands of Indians in the North West, whose loyalty was very doubtful in such a crisis. Portions of the railway were not completed, and troops would have to march many miles through the snow to reach the scene of the rebellion. The call for men by the Government, however, met with willing response, and the various provinces sent their quota without delay.

489. General Middleton had command of the Dominion forces. The first encounter was at Fish Creek on the Saskatchewan, where General Middleton met the half-breeds under Gabriel Dumont. Several volunteers were killed, but the results of the fighting were not decisive. Col. Otter led a company of volunteers in an unsuccessful attack on the Indians under the Chief Poundmaker, at a place called Cut-Knife Creek.

490. The final contest was at Batoche. Here, on the eleventh of May, after three days' fighting the insurgents were completely routed. Riel was captured and handed over to the civil authorities at Regina. After a fair trial he was found guilty of treason and murder. Subsequently, he and several Indians, who had taken a prominent part in the rebellion, paid the penalty of their crimes on the gallows.

Local Matters in Nova Scotia.—491. During the sessions of three local Parliaments in Nova Scotia, embracing a period of about eleven years (1867–1878), the Liberals were in power. The Premiers who held office in succession were Hons. William Annand, W. B. Vail, and P. C. Hill. In the Assembly elected in 1878 the Opposition had a large majority. A new government was formed, of which the Hon. S. H. Holmes was Premier, and the Hon. John S. D. Thompson and the Hon. Samuel Creelman were the other leading members. In 1882 the Government was reconstructed, Mr. Holmes retiring and the Hon. Mr. Thompson taking his place as Premier. A new House of Assembly, elected in the same year, brought the Liberals once more into power, with the Hon. William T. Pipes as leader of the Government. Again, in 1884, a new Liberal Government was formed which has existed to the present time (1894). This Administration includes the Hon. William S. Fielding, Premier and Provincial Secretary, the Hon. Charles Church, Commissioner of Mines and Works, and the Hon. J. Wilberforce Longley, Attorney-General.

492. During the premiership of Mr. Hill a new Normal School building was erected in Truro, to take the place of the one erected in 1854. The building, which is of brick with stone facings and is one of the finest structures of the kind in the Dominion, was opened for use in the autumn of 1878.

493. The most important measure of the Holmes Government is the County Incorporation Act, passed in 1879. This Act provides for the transaction of the public business of the several counties of the Province by a Council for each County, elected annually by the people. The duties of the Council comprise the maintenance of roads

and bridges, making provision for the poor, the care of the public buildings of the County, levying County taxes, passing laws in regard to domestic animals running at large, appointment of various local officers, as assessors of taxes, constables, overseers of roads, and county treasurer. The greater part of this business was previously transacted by the Court of Sessions, an irresponsible body, composed of the Magistrates and Grand Jury of the County.

494. Among the public measures adopted during the present Administration may be named the establishment of a School of Agriculture at Truro, an Act providing for the construction of iron bridges over the principal streams which cross the public roads of the country, and an Act relating to coal mining in Cape Breton. Under this last-named Act extensive coal fields are leased to a Syndicate for the term of ninety-nine years. The Syndicate binds itself to pay to the Government a royalty of twelve and one half cents per ton on the coal it sells from these mines.

Death of Canada's Premiers. — 495. The two distinguished statesmen of Canada who had, in turn, guided her public affairs since the Union were not far removed from each other in their death. Sir John A. Macdonald died in June 1891 in the seventy-seventh year of his age. The Hon. Alexander MacKenzie died in April 1892. His seventieth birthday was on the 28th of the preceding January. Both men were born in Scotland.

496. Sir John A. Macdonald was descended from the head of the Scottish clan Macdonald. He came to Canada with his parents in 1820, being then about five years of age. The family resided in Kingston, which city Sir John represented throughout the greater part of his parliamentary career. By profession he was a lawyer. For nearly half a century he took a prominent part in the

politics of his adopted country. He was so closely connected with the principal public affairs of Canada since the Union, that the record of his life during this period is, in large measure, the history of the country. He was specially distinguished as a leader of men, holding his followers together and guiding them whither he would by the magnetic force of his personality. While still a young man practising law in the city of Kingston, two students graduated from his office, who were destined to bear a conspicuous part in the public affairs of the Province of Ontario. One, now known as Sir Alexander Campbell, became Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario. The other, Sir Oliver Mowatt, has been for many years its Premier.

497. The Hon. Alexander MacKenzie was a great and good man. He rose to the high position of Premier of Canada from a humble beginning. His early education was slim. He finally left school when he was thirteen. During the three preceding years he went to school only during the winter. In summer he hired out with the farmers of the neighborhood to herd their cows and sheep. He came to Canada in 1842, when he was about twenty years of age. Like his distinguished fellow-countryman Hugh Miller, he started out in life as a tone-cutter. On coming to Canada he remained for a time in Kingston, but afterwards removed to Sarnia. He was first elected to parliament as member for Lambton in 1861. He was not ambitious of preferment or fond of personal distinction. Though for five years he held the highest position in the gift of his country, the Premiership of Canada, the honor was not of his seeking. Three times he declined the honor of Knighthood. He was a man of sterling integrity. He would not deviate from principle to make

a friend or keep one, to ensure success or save himself from defeat.

498. Senator Abbott succeeded Sir John A. Macdonald as First Minister in the Cabinet. But owing to failing health he retired from the Government in 1892, and Sir John S. D. Thompson became Premier.

Since the Marquis of Lorne left Canada in 1883, the office of Governor-General has been held in succession by the Marquis of Lansdowne, Lord Stanley of Preston, and the Earl of Aberdeen. The last named nobleman succeeded to the vice-regal honors in 1893.

The Bering Sea Arbitration, 1893, A. D. — 499. Disputes between nations have generally been settled by war. The Bering Sea Arbitration in 1893, for the adjusting of differences between Great Britain and the United States, is strong evidence of the advancement of civilization. Canada was much interested in the matters under consideration. The dispute was over the seals in Bering Sea. The United States claimed all the seals in this Sea. The claim was based on two points. The Government of the United States contended, in the first place, that it had right of exclusive control over Bering Sea, and hence the ownership of all the animals in its waters. Again, this Government claimed the seals because they were born in the Pribyloff Islands which belong to the United States. The seals were said to have their home on these islands. They might stray far away over the wide ocean, but no matter, they still belonged to the United States. The case was similar to that of a farmer's sheep or cattle which might stray from his pasture and be found on the highway or on the open plains. Great Britain held that Bering Sea with all its belongings is open and free to all nations alike, and that the seals in that sea are as much

common property as the codfish in midocean. Insisting on its asserted rights the United States seized Canadian vessels engaged in hunting seals in Bering Sea, and confiscated the furs they had on board.

500. As the governments of the two countries failed to come to any agreement, they decided to leave the matter in dispute to arbitration. They each appointed two arbitrators, and at their request France, Italy, and Sweden each appointed one arbitrator. The British delegates were Lord Hannan of England and Sir John S. D. Thompson, the Premier of Canada. The Hon. Charles Hibbert Tupper, the Canadian Minister of Marine and Fisheries, was asked by Great Britain to assist in the management of the case.

501. The Court met in Paris. After a long and careful hearing of evidence and counsel, it decided that the United States has no control over Bering Sea outside of the three mile limit, nor has it ownership in the seals when they cross this limit. The Tribunal had also been asked to frame regulations for the protection of seal life in the open sea. The rules drawn up impose no restriction on the United States within three miles of the coast. They forbid the killing or capture of seals within sixty miles of the Pribyloff Islands. They prohibit seal-hunting in any part of the Bering Sea in the months of May, June, and July. The use of nets, fire-arms, and explosives is also forbidden in seal-hunting. A curious feature in the case is the apparent satisfaction of both parties with the decision. Each claims a victory.

Conclusion. — 502. We have briefly traced the history of our country through a period of nearly four hundred years, — a long time even in the life of a nation. The progress made seems scarcely commensurate with this ex-

tended period of growth. Different causes have tended to hinder more rapid development. For over a hundred years at the beginning, as we have seen, systematic colonization was wholly neglected, while explorers and adventurers came and went, leaving the country as they found it. For another hundred and fifty years the struggle for supremacy between France and England kept matters in a state of unrest and uncertainty, so that little over a century has elapsed since the ownership of the country was finally settled. Then, during the greater portion of English rule, or until 1867, the several provinces remained isolated from each other, with comparatively little influence, national sentiment, or community of interest. Meanwhile a neighboring country, consolidated as one people, with strong national vitality and absorbing power, drew away from the provinces many of their natural elements of growth.

503. In the mean time, however, the provinces were gathering strength, though slowly and obscurely. They were striking root downward and accumulating energy, which, under the present more favorable condition of things, is developing an abundant fruitage. By toil and self-sacrifice our fathers have left us a noble inheritance to cultivate and adorn. The Province of Nova Scotia is running a race with her sister provinces, all emulous of superiority. The Dominion of Canada is called upon to compete in industrial, intellectual, and moral progress with the nations of the world. The resources and possibilities of our country should stimulate us to cultivate those habits of industry, intelligence and virtue without which both individual and national greatness are impossible.

CHRONOLOGY OF NOTED EVENTS.

	A. D.
Columbus discovered America	1492
Newfoundland discovered by the Cabots	1497
Cartier's first voyage	1534
Cartier's second voyage	1535
Cartier's third voyage	1541
Sir Humphrey Gilbert took possession of Newfoundland	1583
De la Roche left convicts on Sable Island	1598
M. Pontgravé established a fur-trade at Tadoussac	1599
De Monts visited Nova Scotia	1604
Port Royal founded	1605
Champlain founded Quebec	1608
Argall destroyed Port Royal	1614
New England settled by the Pilgrims	1620
Grant to Sir William Alexander of Acadie (Nova Scotia)	1621
The Company of the Hundred Associates founded	1627
Sir David Kirke's conquests	1627-29
Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye	1632
Death of Champlain	1635
Société de Notre Dame de Montreal formed in Paris	1640
Montreal (Ville-Marie) founded	1642
Jesuit Missions in the Huron country destroyed by Iroquois	1648-49
Colonel Sedgewick took Port Royal	1654
The Great Earthquake in Canada	1663
Sovereign Council established in Canada	1663
Treaty of Breda — Acadie restored to France	1667
Arrival of Count Frontenac	1672
Father Marquette and M. Joliet discovered the Mississippi	1673
Voyage of the "Griffin," the first ship on the Great Lakes	1679

	A. D.
La Salle reached the mouth of the Mississippi	1682
Count Frontenac recalled	1682
The Massacre of Lachine	1689
Return of Count Frontenac	1689
Sir William Phipps took Port Royal	1690
Treaty of Ryswick	1697
Final capture of Port Royal — name changed to Annapolis Royal	1710
British fleet under Sir Hovenden Walker shattered on Egg Islands	1711
Treaty of Utrecht	1713
Du Vivier besieged Port Royal	1743
Capture of Louisburg by Pepperell and Warren	1745
D'Anville's expedition	1746
Massacre at Grand Pré	1747
Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle — Louisburg restored to France .	1748
Founding of Halifax	1749
Fort Beauséjour built	1750
Germans settled at Louisburg	1753
Collision between French and English in the Valley of the Ohio	1754
Fort Beauséjour taken from the French	1755
General Braddock defeated at Monongahela	1755
Expulsion of the Acadians from Nova Scotia	1755
Earl of Loudon's failure	1757
Capture of Louisburg by Boscawen, Amherst, and Wolfe .	1758
First meeting of Assembly in Nova Scotia	1758
Fort du Quesne captured by Colonel Forbes, and named Fort Pitt	1758
Capture of Quebec by General Wolfe	1759
Capitulation of the French army at Montreal	1760
End of French rule in Canada	1760
Pontiac's conspiracy	1762
The Treaty of Paris	1763
Prince Edward Island a separate province	1770
Meeting of the first Assembly in Prince Edward Island . .	1773
Quebec Act passed	1774
Meeting of Congress at Philadelphia — Beginning of the Revolutionary War	1775

	A. D.
Unsuccessful assault on Quebec	1775
Independence of the United States recognized	1782
Landing of the United Empire Loyalists at St. John	1783
New Brunswick made a separate province	1784
Cape Breton made a separate province	1784
Windsor Academy opened	1789
Septennial Act in Nova Scotia	1792
Division of Canada into Lower and Upper Canada — First meetings of their Legislatures	1792
Town of York (Toronto) founded by Governor Simcoe	1794
The Duke of Kent arrived at Halifax	1794
Maroons brought to Halifax	1796
Island of St. John named Prince Edward Island	1799
Edward, Duke of Kent, finally left Halifax	1800
President Madison declared war against Great Britain	1812
Battle of Queenston Heights	1812
Battle of Stony Creek	1813
Battle of Lundy's Lane	1814
Treaty of Ghent	1814
Assembly first met in new building at Halifax	1819
First Roman Catholic member admitted to Assembly	1823
Great Fire at Miramichi	1825
The Brandy Dispute	1830
Town of York incorporated as the city of Toronto	1834
Sir Colin Campbell Governor of Nova Scotia	1834
Joseph Howe's libel suit	1835
Surrender of Casual and Territorial Revenue to New Brun- swick Legislature	1836
Howe first entered Nova Scotia Legislature	1837
Rebellion in Canada	1837-38
Arrival of the Earl of Durham in Canada	1838
Accession of Queen Victoria	1838
Lord John Russell's despatch on the tenure of office	1839
Lord Falkland Governor of Nova Scotia	1840
Halifax incorporated	1841
Union of Lower and Upper Canada	1841
Seat of Government transferred from Kingston to Mon- treal	1845
Sir John Harvey Governor of Nova Scotia	1846

	A. D.
Responsible government established in Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick	1848
Parliament buildings in Montreal burned	1849
Clergy Reserves question settled	1854
Normal School opened at Truro	1855
Visit of the Prince of Wales to Canada	1860
✓ War of Secession begun	1861
Death of Prince Albert	1861
✓ Serious political crisis in the Canadian Parliament	1864
Conference of delegates from the maritime provinces in Prince Edward Island	1864
Quebec Conference	1864
Free schools established in Nova Scotia	1864
✓ End of the War of Secession	1865
✓ Termination of the Reciprocity Treaty	1865
✓ British North America Act passed by the Imperial Parlia- ment	1867
Dominion of Canada formed	1867
Province of Manitoba organized	1870
The Treaty of Washington	1871
British Columbia entered the Confederation	1871
Hon. Joseph Howe Governor of Nova Scotia	1873
Death of Sir George Etienne Cartier, the Hon. Joseph Howe, and Judge Johnstone	1873
Prince Edward Island entered the Confederation	1873
Resignation of the J. A. Macdonald Ministry	1873
The Mackenzie Government defeated at the polls	1878
Sir John A. Macdonald again becomes Premier	1878
Contract made between the Dominion Government and Pacific Railway Syndicate	1880
Dissolution of the House of Commons and new election	1882
Rebellion in the North-West	1885
Completion of the Canada Pacific Railway	1886
Death of Sir John A. Macdonald	1891
Death of Hon. Alexander MacKenzie	1892
Bering Sea Arbitration	1893

A. D.

1848
1849
1854
1855
1860
1861
1861
1864

DOMINION OF CANADA.

CENSUS OF 1891.

	AREA IN SQ. MILES.	POP.
Nova Scotia	20,550 . . .	450,396
New Brunswick	28,100 . . .	321,263
Prince Edward Island	2,000 . . .	109,078
Quebec	227,500 . . .	1,488,535
Ontario	219,650 . . .	2,114,321
Manitoba	64,066 . . .	152,506
British Columbia	382,300 . . .	98,173
Territories	2,371,481 . . .	66,799
Total of Dominion	3,315,647	4,833,239

POPULATION OF CITIES AND TOWNS HAVING OVER 5,000 INHABITANTS.

Halifax, N. S.	38,556	Hull	11,265
St. John, N. B.	39,179	St. Henrie	13,415
Fredericton	6,502	Sorel	6,669
Moncton	8,765	St. Hyacinthe	7,016
Charlottetown, P. E. I.	11,374	Toronto, Ont.	181,220
Montreal, Que.	216,650	Hamilton	48,980
Quebec	63,090	Ottawa	44,154
Trois Rivières (Three Rivers)	8,334	London	31,977
Lévis	7,301	Kingston	19,264
Sherbrooke	10,110	Guelph	10,539
		St. Catherines	9,170

1864

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1893

Brantford	12,753	Port Hope	5,042
Belleville	9,914	Woodstock	8,612
St. Thomas	10,370	Galt	7,535
Stratford	9,501	Lindsay	6,081
Chatham	9,052	Winnipeg, Man.	25,642
Brockville	8,793	Victoria, Brit. Col.	16,841
Peterborough	9,717	Vancouver	13,685
Windsor	10,322	New Westminster	6,641

AREA AND POPULATION OF THE COUNTIES OF
NOVA SCOTIA.

	AREA IN SQ. MILES.	POP.
Inverness	1,270	25,779
Victoria	1,097	12,432
Cape Breton	1,169	34,244
Richmond	623	14,399
Guysborough	1,514	17,195
Halifax	2,064	71,358
Lunenburg	1,116	31,075
Queens	1,065	10,610
Shelburne	948	14,956
Yarmouth	736	22,216
Digby	1,021	19,837
Annapolis	1,308	19,350
King's	811	22,459
Hants	1,177	22,052
Cumberland	1,612	34,529
Colchester	1,308	27,160
Pictou	1,126	34,541
Antigonish	552	16,114

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS IN CANADA.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Baptists	5,749	Disciples	531
Free-Will Baptists . .	512	Methodists	13,596
Roman Catholics . . .	47,837	Presbyterians	33,072
Church of England . .	6,646	Salvation Army . . .	180
Congregationalists . .	11	Others	944

NOVA SCOTIA.

Baptists	72,731	Disciples	1,728
Free-Will Baptists . .	10,377	Methodists	54,195
Roman Catholics . . .	122,452	Presbyterians	108,952
Church of England . .	64,410	Salvation Army . . .	1,377
Congregationalists . .	3,112	Others	5,181
Lutherans	5,882		

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Baptists	54,960	Disciples	1,003
Free-Will Baptists . .	24,674	Methodists	35,504
Roman Catholics . . .	115,961	Presbyterians	40,639
Church of England . .	43,095	Salvation Army . . .	993
Congregationalists . .	1,036	Others	3,021
Lutherans	377		

QUEBEC.

Adventists	3,364	Roman Catholics . .	1,291,709
Baptists	6,854	Church of England .	75,472
Free-Will Baptists . .	1,127	Congregationalists .	4,296

5,042
8,612
7,535
6,081
25,642
16,841
13,685
6,641

OF

POP.

25,779
12,432
34,244
14,399
17,195
71,358
31,075
10,610
14,956
22,216
19,837
19,350
22,459
22,052
34,529
27,160
34,541
16,114

Disciples	20	Presbyterians	52,673
Jews	2,703	Salvation Army	297
Lutherans	1,385	Others	9,091
Methodists	39,544		

 ONTARIO.

Adventists	447	Jews	2,501
Baptists	96,969	Lutherans	45,029
Free-Will Baptists	7,869	Methodists	654,033
Brethren	9,343	Presbyterians	453,147
Roman Catholics	358,300	Quakers	4,350
Church of England	385,999	Salvation Army	10,320
Congregationalists	16,879	Others	60,129
Disciples	9,106		

 MANITOBA.

Baptists	15,829	Methodists	28,437
Roman Catholics	20,571	Presbyterians	39,001
Church of England	30,852	Salvation Army	399
Congregationalists	1,815	Jews	743
Lutherans	6,545	Others	8,036

 BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Baptists	2,960	Presbyterians	15,284
Roman Catholics	20,843	Congregationalists	775
Church of England	23,619	Salvation Army	298
Lutherans	2,083	Jews	277
Methodists	14,297	Others	17,736

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS IN CANADA.

213

TERRITORIES.

Baptists	1,397	Methodists	7,980
Roman Catholics . . .	13,008	Presbyterians	12,507
Church of England . .	14,166	Salvation Army . . .	85
Lutherans	2,676	Others	15,065

DOMINION OF CANADA.

Adventists	6,354	Methodists	847,765
Baptists	257,449	Presbyterians	755,326
Free-Will Baptists . .	45,116	Protestants	12,253
Brethren	11,637	Quakers	4,650
Congregationalists . .	28,157	Salvation Army . . .	13,949
Roman Catholics . . .	1,992,017	Tunkers	1,274
Church of England . .	646,059	Universalists	3,186
Disciples	12,763	Unitarians	1,777
Jews	6,414	Others	123,111
Lutherans	63,982		

