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Rev. M. Harvey, LL.D.

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FRENCH EPOCH,
F. G. Forsaith de Fronsac.

GEOLOGICAL HISTORY OF THE
BAY OF FUNDY,
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THE NEWFOUNDLAND OF TO-DAY.

BY THE REV. M. HARVEY, LL. D.

It is curious and instructive to note the contrast between the condition of Newfoundland at the opening and close of the nineteenth century. When the last sands of the eighteenth century were running out the colony was still under the repressive system which had obstructed its growth from the outset. It was regarded by the Imperial Government as a fishing station and a training post for seamen for the Royal Navy, not as a home for a civilized community. It was governed by naval commanders who enforced the laws with the sternest quarter-deck discipline. These laws prohibited settlement in the island, refused all grants of land for cultivation or building sites, and reserved the shores for the use of migratory fishermen who came from England in the spring and were compelled to return at the close of each fishing season. No right of private property in land was permitted, unless actually employed in the fisheries. The governors of those days were in the habit of returning to England each winter and re-appearing at the opening of summer. If they found on their return that any one had erected a fence round a piece of ground during their absence, or built a house with a chimney, they issued orders for their immediate removal. Such repressive measures were actually enforced by Governor Waldegrave in 1799; and the nineteenth century was eleven years old before restrictions against the cultivation of land and the building of dwelling-houses were finally abolished.

At the date referred to, the total population of the island was under 20,000 people, who were scattered in small hamlets around the shores. St. John's, the capital, contained about 3,000 people who were sheltered in wooden huts, huddled together in such a way as to be in continual danger of fire. The principal thoroughfare was in one place not more than six feet wide. All the streets were narrow, unpaved and unlighted. The condition of the people in the smaller and more remote fishing settlements was deplorable. Successive generations lived and died without education and almost without any religious teaching. The lives of the people under these cruel and senseless laws were rendered hard and often miserable for the express purpose

of driving them away and preventing a settled population from growing up. As to the interior of the island, it was reported to be a great dismal swamp, with here and there patches of rocks and bogs, and in some places covered with a low scrub — a repulsive region unfit for the habitation of civilized man.

These bad old times have passed away; and at the close of the nineteenth century what a marvellous change for the better do we see! St. John's has grown into a city of 30,000 inhabitants. Its streets are lighted by electricity, and seamed with an electric street railway. It possesses all the appliances of modern civilization — railways, telegraphs, telephones, fire-brigades, water and sewerage. Its cathedrals, churches and public buildings, its banks, shops, stores, wharves, compare not unfavorably with those of any other city of the same size. A memorial tower in honour of John Cabot crowns Signal Hill, at the entrance of the harbour. The hum of manufacturing industry is heard on all hands. A busy population throngs its streets. Its harbour is a forest of masts, and steamships are constantly arriving and departing. The strutting quarter-deck governors and the rough old "fishing admirals"—where are they? Gone to the chambers of oblivion, as will go also all who now walk its streets and carry on its life activities ere the new century has run its course. "We are such stuff as dreams are made of."

But perhaps the change in this great island itself is more striking than even in its capital. Its winter seems over and gone, and the voice of the locomotive is heard in the solitudes of the interior. The great dismal swamp has turned out to be a fair island, with waving forests, fertile plains, rich in mineral treasures, and containing some of the finest scenery in this beautiful world. Nearly seven hundred miles of railway now seam its surface, connecting together its various centres of population, while a steam ferry links it to the neighboring continent, thus bringing it within the comity of nations, and rendering its natural resources accessible. From afar come streams of tourists, travellers, health-seekers, worshippers of the beautiful, who return to celebrate the wonders of this newly-found land. The sportsman in pursuit of the stately deer, and the quiet angler seeking salmon and trout, are found tramping over its "barrens," or along its lakes and rivers. The smoke-dried denizen of the great city comes to drink in its health-giving breezes and restore the iron to his blood. One and all proclaim, "Here is the Norway of the New World."

But the colony has attractions for more than health and pleasure-seekers. Capitalists in increasing numbers are finding their way to its shores. As a mineral-producing country it has already taken a high place. It can boast of one of the finest iron mines in the world, which was discovered only three years ago on Bell Isle, Conception Bay, about twelve miles from St. John's. A portion of the deposit was sold lately to the Dominion Iron and Steel Company for a million dollars, and it is estimated by experts to contain forty million tons of red hematite ore. The remaining portion is owned by the New Glasgow Steel Company, and is probably of not less value. In some respects the mine is unique. The ore, containing fifty-four per cent of iron, is deposited in horizontal strata extending over an area three miles in length and nearly half a mile in breadth. The remarkable feature of the ore is that it is not in solid masses but small rhomboidal pieces of various sizes, none exceeding twelve inches in length. There is no need of shafts or tunnels or complicated machinery. It is worked as an open quarry, with crow-bars, pick-axes, and occasional charges of dynamite to loosen the masses. When taken from the bed it falls into these rhomboidal forms, and the cost of putting it on board does not exceed twenty-five cents per ton. It is not known that there is anywhere a similar deposit of iron ore. It occurs in the Lower Silurian formation. Shipping it at the rate of four thousand tons a day would require more than twenty years to exhaust what is now in sight, and to what depth the deposit may extend is at present unknown. Geologists are at present divided in opinion as to how this marvellous deposit took place—some holding that it has been separated from the Archæan parent rock by the action of water, and then crystallized by chemical action; while others think both chemical and mechanical agencies were combined in its production. Possibly some ancient eruption may have brought it near the surface.

Among copper-producing countries Newfoundland occupies the sixth place. Indeed, the commencement of the new progressive era dates from 1864, when the first copper mine was opened at Tilt Cove, in the northeast of the island, on the shore of Notre Dame Bay. It was the first, and it has also proved to be the best, copper mine yet discovered. During the first twelve years it yielded 49,719 tons of copper ore and 411 tons of nickel, the value being \$1,572,154. It has been worked for thirty-four years and shows no sign of exhaustion.

Last year the shareholders had a net profit of £70,000. A number of other copper mines were soon discovered in the same neighborhood, and were worked vigorously, so that at the close of 1879 the total value of the copper export had reached \$4,629,880. The report of Mr. J. P. Howley, Director of the Geological Survey, shows that the total value of the copper ore exported from 1888 to 1898 was \$5,907,638. The total value of copper ore since its first discovery must therefore have exceeded ten and a half million dollars in value. Mr. Howley gives \$7,829,158 as the value of all minerals exported during the ten years preceding 1899. Of this \$1,502,260 was realized from the export of iron pyrites.

Magnetic iron ore and chrome iron have been found on the west coast under very promising conditions; while there are in various places indications of silver and lead, and latterly of gold-bearing quartz. Only the fringe of the mineral deposits of the island has yet been touched.

And it holds not only minerals but other economic materials, which are likely to prove of great value. One of these is roofing slate, and of this the island contains a larger quantity and a finer quality than any other country on this side of the Atlantic. A company with a large capital has recently opened a slate quarry at Smith's Sound, Trinity Bay. It is pronounced by one of the most eminent geologists of the day to be one of the finest slate deposits in the world, equal to the finest Carnarveshire slate in Wales. The best slate deposits in Wales are now approaching exhaustion; and slate capitalists are looking to Newfoundland, where the deposits are inexhaustible, for supplies. Of gypsum there are numerous deposits of the finest quality on the west coast, especially at Romanes' Brook, St. George's Bay, which is to be soon worked. In Codroy, also, there are immense deposits.

Lumbering is extending every year and now contributes a large export. Recently an eminent Scotch lumberer has removed all his men and plant from Sweden, where he had been operating for years, to Newfoundland, where he has secured 800 square miles of forest lands, and will carry on a very large lumbering trade.

As a pulp manufacturing country the island is destined to take a high place. Vast areas are covered with the very best materials for pulp making. Arrangements are in progress for the erection of a

pulp factory at Grand Lake, on a gigantic scale; and on Black River, Placentia Bay, a pulp establishment has been worked for some time. The island may not become a great agricultural country, but there are millions of acres which will in time become excellent arable and grazing lands, capable of supporting many thousands in comfort.

The famous fisheries of Newfoundland have long constituted the staple industry on which the bulk of the people depend for their daily bread. The average annual value of the shore fishery is about \$4,500,000. The value of the Labrador fishery is \$1,200,000; of the bank fishery, \$100,000; of the herring fishery, \$200,000; of the lobster fishery, \$600,000. The total value of the fish products is \$7,000,000 per annum.

The annual revenue of the colony is about \$1,500,000; the funded debt \$16,485,760. The value of the exports is five to six million dollars; of the imports six to seven million dollars.

On the whole, Newfoundland, at the close of the century, can reckon up her gains with satisfaction, and accept these as pledges and promises of better things to come. Old things have passed away and better things have come. The country is one of freedom's homes—free thought, free speech, free worship. All the marks of advancing civilization are apparent.

Education is receiving that attention its paramount importance demands. Religious ministrations are adequate to the wants of the people. All the great appliances to secure material advance are multiplying. It can enter on the new era without any misgivings and with much that is bright and hopeful.

CANADIAN NOBILITY OF THE FRENCH EPOCH.

BY F. C. FORSAITH DE FRONSAC.

Nobility in Canada was created by the kings Henry the Great and Louis XIV., for the purpose of recognizing that merit among the inhabitants which distinguishes heroic souls, and always is the bulwark of nationality, order and honour. The first commission by the king, given to the Marquis de la Roche, Governor and General of Canada, enabled him to nominate for titles, "gentlemen, and those whom he

will judge men of merit, to fiefs, seigneuries, chatelleries, counties, viscounties, baronies, and other dignities derived from us, on the responsibility that they guard in tuition and defence the said country.”¹ There were two kinds of titles granted. One was territorial only—as seigneur—corresponding to the English lord of a manor. King Louis XIV. organized the seigneurs into an order of nobility for Canada in 1663, from which date every seigneur received his investiture at the castle of St. Louis, at Quebec, promising fealty, and to maintain the honour of the crown. He was granted for this purpose the powers of a magistrate within his fief, and the military captaincy over his tenants, whom he was to drill and lead in the defence of the country. He could sell his seigneury with the king’s consent, giving one-fifth of the purchase money to the crown. The consent of the next heir was also necessary; otherwise the seigneury passed hereditarily from father to son without any dues to the crown. But if direct heirs were lacking, the next heir, being a collateral, paid one year’s rent to the crown on his succession. The title of seigneur, or lord of the manor, passed with the seigneury, or manor. A family, formerly holding a seigneury only, had the right of adding the name of the seigneury to the family name, like Le Jardens + de St. Pierre. And the family always is reckoned as noble or seigneurial ever after. There were nearly two hundred seigneuries granted by the various kings of France in Canada from the earliest to the latest time. The rights and privileges of a seigneur are continued in those places in Canada where seigneuries yet exist (with the exception of the civil and military powers), according to the solemn pledge of Great Britain in the Treaty of Paris of 1763, which ceded Canada on the part of France to the king of England.

The other sort of title granted by the kings of France in Canada was personal and hereditary as well as territorial. These titles are equivalent to duke (duc), marquis, earl (comte), viscount (vicomte), baron and baronet. A list of these will be valuable, as they have rights of precedence at the court of the Governor-General of Canada, guaranteed them by the thirty-seventh Article of the above mentioned Treaty of Paris, of 1763, which are as valid as the charter by which the Governor-General himself holds power, and more so, because irrevocable.

¹ Lareau Hist. du Droit Canadien, Tome I. p. 159.

FAMILY NAME.	TITLE.	PRESENT POSSESSOR.
Jean Law, Minister of Finance to Louis XIV.	Duc d'Arkansas, in Louisiana.	Unknown to writer.
François M. L. d'Albergati	Marquis de Vezza, French and Canadian, 1760.	In Quebec.
Michel Chartier.	Marquis de Lotbinière and Alainville, by Louis XVI., 1789, Canad'n	Sir H. G. Joli de Lotbinière.
Pierre Dandonneau.	Marquis du Sablé, 16—, Canadian.	Unknown to writer.
Philippe de Rigaud.	Marquis de Vaudreuil, Governor in 1698, Canadian and French.	" "
Pierre de Rigaud.	Comte de Cavagnial, 1743, French and Canadian.	" "
Jacques Simard.	Comte de Ramusqué, 1744, Canad'n	In Province of Quebec.
Louis Liénard.	Comte de Beaujeu, French and Canadian, 1700.	In Montreal.
Pierre L. de Rastel.	Comte de Rocheblave, French and Canadian, 1750.	In Montreal.
F. Talon, Canadian Minister of Louis XIV.	Comte d'Orsainville, Canadian.	Unknown to writer.
	Comte de l'Isle d'Orleans, mentioned by Lareau in <i>Droit Canadien</i>	" "
François P. Douglas.	Comte de Douglas, French and Canadian, 1760.	" "
Nicolas Denys, Governor 1654.	Vicomte de Fronsac, French and Canadian, 1676.	F. G. Forsaith de Fronsac.
Charles Le Moyne.	Baron de Longûeuil, Canadian, 1700.	Grant de Longûeuil.
Jean V. d'Abbadie.	Baron de St. Castin, French and Canadian, 1688.	Bourbon de St. Castin.
Réné Robineau.	Baron de Portneuf and Becancour, Canadian, 1652.	In Quebec Province.
	Baron de Beauville, mentioned in Lareau's <i>Hist. du Droit Canadien</i> .	Unknown to writer.
Guillaume de Caen.	Baron du Cap Tourmente, Canada, 1599.	" "
Alphonse de Tonty.	Baron de Paludy, French and Canadian, 1700.	" "
Gaspard Chaussegrosse.	Baron de Léry, French and Canadian, 1760.	" "
Claude Turgis de St. Etienne de la Tour.	Baronet of Nova Scotia, By King James I. of England.	In the Bradstreet family.

The pedigrees of these families, with their titles, are found in Tanguay's *Dictionnaire Genealogique du Canada*; Murdoch's *History of Nova Scotia*, and *Les Grandes Familles Canadiennes*; while historical sketches abound in the histories by Garneau, Charlevoix, Ferland, Dionne, and *Le Droit Canadien*, by Lareau.

THE GEOLOGICAL HISTORY OF THE BAY OF FUNDY.

BY PROF. L. W. BAILEY, PH.D.

Surely no reader of Acadian history, especially no reader of these historical leaflets, needs to be reminded of the associations which cluster around the Bay of Fundy. Lying, as a great water-wedge, between the Provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, forming no inconsiderable portion of the borders of each, and receiving on its rocky shores the waters of the St. John and other important streams, it could hardly fail to have been intimately associated with the earliest events in the settlement of the country, as well as in the subsequent struggles for its possession and control. The first explorations of Champlain and his companions, the terrible winter spent on the little island in the St. Croix, the jovial meetings of the Knights of the Good Time at Port Royal, the romantic adventures of Madame La Tour, the conflicts around the walls of old Fort Cumberland at the head of the Bay, the piratical expeditions of Argall and others, are topics familiar to every reader of Canadian history or literature.

But, interesting as are the events associated with the Bay of Fundy during the Historic Period, it must not be supposed that these comprise the whole, or even any very large part, so far as time is concerned, of the real history of the bay. When the first Europeans landed upon its shores they found them already occupied by other races, destined to play an important part in the struggles to which reference has been made, some of whose descendants still live among us, and to whose language we are still indebted for the names of many of our best known mountains, lakes and rivers. Who knows when and whence they came to this part of America? and, granting that they are but branches of the old Algonquin stock, of which other branches survive in other parts of the continent, what do we know of the origin of these? Again, have we any right to assume that, as regards even its geographic and climatic features, the Acadia of pre-historic times was in every respect the same as the Acadia of to-day? And how did there come to be any Bay of Fundy at all? How can we account for its distinctive features, its form, its depth, its wonderful tidal phenomena, the contrasts between its northern and southern shores, the peculiarities of its flora and fauna? Has the Bay of Fundy

always been essentially as it is at present, or is it the final result of a process of historical development of which it is possible for us to decipher some, at least, of the progressive stages?

To do this, in some small degree, is the purpose of the present paper; and though in making the attempt we shall, like the mariner upon the present bay, find ourselves not unfrequently enveloped in well-nigh impenetrable fog, and find it necessary to pause a while for further light, we must not be discouraged; for we are not wholly without a guide. As the pilot of the "Prince Rupert," leaving the harbour of St. John, when it is hardly possible to see one end of the steamer from the other, and knowing that he will have to encounter winds and currents which constantly tend to sway him from his course, yet points and keeps his way with confidence to the narrow inlet of Digby Gut, bounded by rocky walls, to strike which would be certain destruction, so the geologist has also *his* compass and charts, and, like Champlain and his associates, is not only not afraid, but finds a delight in exploring unknown seas, and finding lands unheard of before.

First, then, let us see whether even in comparatively recent times the Bay of Fundy has remained entirely unchanged. For if it is possible for us to prove the fact of such change, and to determine its causes, it will be much easier for us to recognize the operation of these same causes in earlier times.

One of the most obvious of the changes referred to is to be found in the *waste of the present shores*. Who can skirt the latter by sail or steamer without seeing that the features which determine their variety and sublimity, the alternation of rocky headland and narrow indentation, of overhanging bluff and darksome cavern, of rocky islets and half-submerged ledges, are the results of a process of *wear*, evidences of the unceasing attempts of old ocean, working through waves and tides and currents, to invade and to subdue the land? The conflict is one which never ceases, and though at any one time we may be unable to measure the result, we have only to study some limited area of the coast, especially where the conditions are favorable, to find that even in the course of a few years very considerable changes may be brought about. One admirable locality for such studies is the vicinity of Quaco, or St. Martins, where the soft red sandstones which here skirt the bay exhibit some wonderful illustrations of sea-

sculpture, and where the writer, after an interval of only a few years, found an entire alteration in all the more prominent details of the coastal scenery. The vicinity of Hopewell Cape is another well-known locality. And finally, should one, tempted by the rich mineral harvest to be there gathered, venture to walk or sail beneath the precipitous bluffs of Blomidon, and see the thousands of tons of rock lying shattered on the shore below, he will probably see also reason to be thankful that he was not there in the early spring, at which time these gigantic slides are most apt to fall.

But obviously what is thus gained from the land and contributed to the sea must be disposed of. And here is another source of change. To understand this disposition we have only to walk along any extended line of coast and to mark the deposits which are there in course of accumulation, great sea-walls made of huge rounded blocks where the shore is exposed to the full fury of the sea, pebbly or sandy beaches where the waves have less power, fine muds in sheltered bays or in off-shore shallow soundings. And it is important to notice that such deposits always tell the story of their origin. They could not be formed anywhere else than upon a coast line, certainly not in the deep sea; and hence the features which they present, once noticed, become a key wherewith we can recognize similar coast lines, even though these may belong to the most remote ages of the past. The finer muddy sediments are especially instructive in this way. As exposed in the great tidal flats at the head of the modern bay, one cannot but be surprised to see what a wonderful record they keep of every change to which they are subjected: in one place raised in little ridgelets, marking the advance or retreat of the tide, in another furrowed with little channels produced by the rills which follow the breaking of the waves, here honeycombed with cracks, due to the drying action of the sun when the tide was out, and here, it may be, covered with little pits, produced by the drops of a passing shower. Almost everywhere are they marked by the long trails or the vertical borings of marine worms, to which not unfrequently are to be added the easily-recognized footprint of a bird, or even of man himself; while now and then a stranded shell, a bunch of sea-weed, or a half-buried log, illustrates how such deposits may become the burial place of what once were living creatures.

But evidently these processes of wear and re-distribution, if un-

affected by other considerations, must in time reach their limit. The land must lose in height and extent; the bay must shallow or become filled up. In one way only can the work be prolonged, viz., by changes of level in land and sea, the lifting of the one or the sinking of the other. Have we any evidence of such changes as being now in progress in or about the Bay of Fundy? Well, it is said that from time to time it is found necessary to build higher the dykes which at the head of the bay are the farmers' sole bulwark against the advancing sea; but stronger evidence even than this is to be found in the occurrence of the remains of upland trees which must have flourished long before any dykes existed at points where, were it not for these dykes, they would now be daily submerged. Again, upon the coast of Charlotte County are to be seen the shell-heaps which mark the site of old Indian encampments, not only in positions which would now be wholly unsuited for such use, but which in some instances have been largely removed by the inroads of the sea. Dr. Gesner, the first prominent student of Acadian geology, thought that one side of the bay was rising, the other sinking; but, however this may be, it is certain that such changes, recognizable only after the lapse of years, are in progress here as elsewhere, and that in time they must produce very material difference in the depth and configuration of the bay.

One point more and we shall have the data necessary to enable us to go back from the present and to determine some of the earlier events in the history of the bay. Fortunately, in this part of the world, though familiar with the effects of water and of frost, we are never called upon to contemplate that other dire agent of geological change, which in such countries, as that of Italy, Mexico, or the East Indies, is a constant menace to the inhabitants—the agency of fire. Yet we shall presently see that this part of the world has not always been exempt from volcanic action; and in trying to decipher our past history, we must always be prepared to recognize its effects. In this there is no difficulty; for the rocks produced by volcanic eruptions or overflows are widely different in their nature and arrangement from the rocks owing their origin to the sorting action of water, and once seen can always be readily recognized.

Now, then, for our story of the history of the Bay. It is a long story, dating back, according to conservative estimates, for at least

fifty millions of years ! Obviously we can only deal with great periods at a time, and even of these give only the most general outline. The studies of various explorers are daily adding to our knowledge of the details, but to give anything like a full account, even of one single period in the history, is, and will ever be, beyond the power of man.

What was the condition of what we now call the Bay of Fundy in the first recognizable era of its formation ? Well, it was not then a bay at all. A bay requires two sides, and of those which now enclose old Fundy it is tolerably certain that one is much older than the other. At least, while we have good evidence that its northern side, forming the highlands of southern New Brunswick, was determined, and in very nearly its present site, by upheavals dating back to the most remote period of which we have any knowledge, it is quite certain that its southern side, if there was one, did not occupy its present position, and has nothing to represent it in the present province of Nova Scotia. The proof of these statements is easily found. In the case of the northern side, the ridge, now much lower than it once was, which stretches east and west from the harbor of St. John, or rather from the Suspension Bridge, and whose characters may be well studied in Rockwood Park, or better, in the Narrows of the St. John river, above Indiantown, is found to be composed of rocks evidently of aqueous origin, and therefore originally deposited as horizontal sediments,— sands, clays, and beds of lime, but now folded and crumpled in a most marvellous manner, and at the same time showing evidences of intense alteration—what were once sands being represented by hard quartzites, the clays by roofing slates, and the limebeds by marbles ; while surrounding these same ridges, and enclosing them as though they were islands, are other beds which, though also highly disturbed, are much less so than the former, and which show abundant evidences (the same as have been above explained) that they are old beach deposits. These are the rocks upon which has been built the city of St. John, and almost anywhere in its streets it is possible to find the same evidences, in the way of fossil wave marks, rill marks, sun cracks, and stranded shells, of their littoral origin as are to be found only a short distance away upon the modern coast. They indicate very clearly that land was near at the time of their origin ; and though we cannot now speak with certainty of the height or extent of that land, we can hardly doubt that the great ridge to which

I have referred, embracing the larger part of the county with much of Albert, formed a portion of it. Probably there were other similar ridges further north, such as that forming the peninsula of Kingston, and some corresponding to the present highlands of northern New Brunswick, but around and between these lay the primeval ocean.

It has been supposed by some writers that the southern, as well as the northern side of the bay, dates from the same period, and is to be recognized by the same sort of evidence; but a careful study, as based upon recent investigations, tends to show that nowhere in the province of Nova Scotia, except in Cape Breton, are there any rocks as old as those which now overlook the waters of the bay along the New Brunswick shore. Yet rocks which are believed to be the equivalents of what we have described as beach-rocks around these old ridges near St. John, do occur in Nova Scotia, being those in which gold is so extensively found along its southern side, and they afford the same evidences of shallow water origin. It would therefore seem to be probable that the land which they bordered, and from which their material was derived, lay to the eastward, and is now submerged beneath the waters of the Atlantic.

Before leaving this chapter of our history it is interesting to notice that among the deposits which constitute the hill ranges along the northern border of the bay the abundance of what are evidently volcanic materials is especially remarkable. One has only to visit some of the great limestone quarries near St. John (especially Stetson's, near Indian town, or that at Green Head,) to see in what a curious way and to what an extent what was evidently at one time melted rock has come up through the limestone strata, forming great black walls or dykes, and through the accompanying heat altering these same rocks into marbles, or filling them along the lines of contact with garnets or other crystalline minerals; while to the east of St. John, especially about Willow Grove, and in the neighborhood of Loch Lomond, the country for miles consists of what at one time must have been the outpourings of lava floods, or the accumulation of volcanic ashes. It will presently appear that this feature characterizes the Bay of Fundy trough in various epochs of its history, and is no doubt connected with the origination of the trough itself.

We must now drop the curtain to lift it again, after an interval of

great but unknown duration, upon a condition of things widely different from that which we have endeavored to describe.

So far as mere geography is concerned, the change in New Brunswick was mainly one affecting the height of the land, the old ridge referred to as forming the northern border of the bay being where it was, and still is ; but now for the first time, so far as we can clearly see, were the waters of the latter confined by a southern as well as a northern barrier, thus causing the trough to approximate more nearly to its present form and proportions. Yet its southern side was not the present north coast of Nova Scotia. For the North Mountains, which now extend from Blomidon to Digby Neck, and shut in from the waters of the bay the Annapolis Basin and Land of Evangeline, were not there ; while along the southern side of that basin, along the slopes of the South Mountains, as at Bear River, Clementsport, Torbrook and Wolfville, one can easily gather in countless numbers the shells, corals and other forms of marine life which up to this time had flourished there. But these fossiliferous strata, belonging to what are known as the Silurian and Devonian systems, and which, like all similar strata, are simply old mud and sand beds now hardened into rock, and whose position when formed must have been nearly or quite horizontal, are now sharply inclined and folded ; while breaking through them, and sending here and there into them great veins of similar material, are the granites which form the back-bone of this portion of the Nova Scotian peninsula. This back-bone, then, including what are known as the South Mountains, dates from the latter part of the Devonian age ; and the elevation of this ridge, with which the elevation of the Nerepis range in New Brunswick was contemporaneous, fixed for the time being the position of the southern border of the bay. Though somewhat wider than now, including, as above stated, the whole of the Annapolis Valley, the bay was probably shallower ; and if closed, as seems probable, at its eastern end, would have had something of the character of an extensive estuary. Moreover, into this estuary, upon the New Brunswick side, there is some reason to suppose that a stream or river of some size emptied, a stream which may mark the first beginnings of the River St. John. At least about the site of the modern Lepreau, the sandstones which there represent the Devonian age are filled with the now petrified remains of forest trees, in such numbers and so piled together as to

indicate that they might have been drifted there by the floods of some ancient stream and stranded in the sand bars about its mouth.

This latter occurrence suggests another important difference between the age of which we are speaking and that with which we commenced. In the latter such tracts as lay above the primeval waters were bare and forbidding, no vegetation, unless it may have been of mosses and lichens, clothing their rugged surfaces; and hence, for want of food, untenanted by any forms of terrestrial animal life. Now there was abundant verdure, and though the plants included none of our ordinary shade and fruit trees, but mainly ferns and conifers, they probably formed dense forests; and attached to the leaves of these, now enclosed in solid rock, may be found, not only at Lepreau, but on the Bay Shore at Carleton, the remains of the insect forms which mark the early beginnings of this interesting type of life.

The next period in our history saw a somewhat different condition of things. It was at its beginning a time of subsidence rather than of elevation. Everywhere the land stood lower than now, and much of what is now above the sea level was then below it. The borders of the bay, as already defined, were still there; but on the New Brunswick side the southern hills had so far sunken that only their higher summits still rose above the waters, while towards the head of the bay, Shepody Mountain, now having an elevation above tide-level of nearly one thousand feet, was completely submerged. So, in Nova Scotia, the waves rose high on the slopes of the Cobequids and South Mountains, reducing our sister province to an archipelago of low islands, while Prince Edward Island, the Magdalens, etc., formed a portion of the ocean's floor. It is interesting to notice that in connection with this subsidence, as in the case of those previously described, volcanic activity was a marked feature of the area, the igneous rocks being curiously intermingled with the clays, sands and limestone strata of the time, but most abundant towards its close. As in other instances, the strata are abundantly fossiliferous; but the forms are mainly those of the sea, such as corals and shells, the former being of special interest as indicating the sub-tropical temperature of our coastal waters. With the corals and shells were also fishes; and in connection with these a curious little episode of the era is indicated by the countless thousands of these removed, often from a depth of many hundreds of

feet, during the development of the old Albert mine, near the head of the bay, in Albert County. It is difficult to understand how such vast numbers of fishes, packed literally like herring in a barrel, could thus have been entombed; but the fact that, within the memory of the writer, the shore of Passamaquoddy Bay, about the mouth of the Magaguadavic River, was on one occasion so thickly strewed with dead fishes that the rocks were buried beneath them and farmers for weeks hauled them away by cartloads for manure, indicates that such catastrophes are not unknown even in modern times.

I have said that the era of which I am now speaking was at its beginning an era of subsidence. But the history of old mother earth is like that of a pendulum—the downward is always followed by an upward movement, and so the progress of time becomes recorded. How long the period of depression lasted, we know not. It may have been thousands or tens of thousands of years. We know that it was long enough to wear away and to re-distribute many hundreds of feet of rock—those which now form the Minister's Face, opposite Rothesay, and the picturesque hills in the vicinity of Sussex—to say nothing of the great limestone and plaster beds of Hillsborough and Windsor; but at last the sinking ceased, or rather the processes of subsidence and of sedimentation became more nearly balanced. Oscillations of level ensued, in connection with which there was a gradual extension of dry land, a partial or complete filling up of the old valleys; and a replacement of marine conditions by those of low hills and extensive intervening marshes. These were the marshes of the coal era, and over their surface spread the dense vegetation, which, buried from time to time by floods laden with detritus and thus subjected to exclusion of air as well as to enormous pressure, were gradually converted into beds of coal. One such great swamp covered not only all the still low tract of central New Brunswick, including the counties of Queens, Sunbury, Kent, etc., but probably the whole area now occupied by the Gulf of St. Lawrence; while across what is now the isthmus of Chignecto this was connected with another, occupying much of the Bay of Fundy trough, and possibly extending to eastern Massachusetts and Rhode Island. It was probably the St. Lawrence, then finding its way by many meandering channels to the ocean, that supplied the water necessary for the accumulation of the deposits; while the

fact that the great Joggins section upon the Nova Scotia coast shows a thickness of not less than 12,000 feet, including seventy-six seams of coal, each of which must have been successively formed at the surface, is at once not only an evidence of the fact of such accumulation, but an indication of the vast periods of time required in the process.

It would be interesting, were time and space available, to dwell at some length upon the details of the Joggins section, and the information which it affords of the conditions of the era, as regards its climate, plants and animals; but it is only possible here to say in a general way that those conditions were not greatly unlike those to be found to-day in the great Dismal Swamp of North Carolina, except that no trees higher than the conifers were yet present, and the highest animals were semi-aquatic reptiles. With their wealth of ferns, including tree-ferns, as well as the ordinary herbaceous forms, there was not wanting the element of beauty in the forests of the time, but without butterflies, birds, or any of the familiar forms of mammalian life, without any flowers more conspicuous than those of pines and yews, with the light largely shut out by the density of the vegetable growth, and with pestilential vapours arising from sluggish streams or stagnant pools, one would hardly feel tempted to penetrate very far into their gloomy recesses. But they were not intended for man's habitation, and no member of the human family was on hand to complain of their solitude. It was for the benefit of future races that their work was being done. It was then that those vast stores of solar energy were being laid up, which, in after times, set free in an infinitude of forms, was to become not only the support of the human race, but the determining factor in its development. But other scenes await us and we must hurry on.

Our next view is one of special interest in connection with the history of the Bay of Fundy, for it is essentially confined to the latter, and illustrates one of the most important phases of its growth. It represents a period immediately following that of the coal era, last described; but between the two an epoch of disturbance intervened, changing the relative level of various tracts, dislocating the disturbed strata, determining profound fractures, and leaving the coal beds in that tilted position which, more especially in Nova Scotia, has brought the deeper beds to the surface, and thus enor-

mously facilitated their removal. But such disturbances are usually followed by the escape of heat or heated materials from the earth's interior, and such escape was the predominant feature of the new red sandstone era, which now claims our attention. The "new red" sandstones are those of the Annapolis Valley; but mingled with and resting upon them are the black slag-like rocks and ashbeds of the North Mountains, the great ridge extending from Blomidon to Briar Island, and so familiar to travellers as revealed in the transverse break of Digby Gut. These are simply old lava flows, the results of fissure eruptions in the subsiding trough of the bay, and to the conditions of their origin, at one time soft and filled with the vapour of steam and sulphurous gases, are to be ascribed their vesicular structure and the wonderful variety of beautiful minerals with which they are charged.

Thus for the first time did the bay acquire its present borders. Then was determined the beautiful scenery of the Basin of Minas. Then Isle Haute first lifted its head so boldly above the waters. Then also Grand Manan, with its remarkable range of cliffs overlooking the swirling tides, first became enveloped in the fogs of which it is reputed to be the breeder.

How difficult to realize, even in imagination, the existence in this part of the world of these old volcanic fires. And they are the more interesting for the reason that with a single exception they practically close, so far as this part of America is concerned, the geological record, while between them and the era thus excepted a greater contrast could hardly be possible. For while the new red (or triassic) era was, as we have said, one in which *heat* was a predominant factor, that which remains to be described was an era not only of exceptional but also of almost inconceivable *cold*. It was the glacial era, or great geological winter, a winter so prolonged and so intense that New Brunswick, with much of North America, became reduced to the present condition of Greenland. All vegetation, except of the very lowest grades, necessarily perished. All forms of animal life, except such as by migration could reach warmer latitudes, shared the same fate. Hills and valleys alike became buried beneath hundreds, perhaps thousands, of feet of snow; and this, by its own weight, became largely converted into ice. Moreover, this ice was in motion, as is the case now with the great ice-

cap of Greenland, and in its movement pressed heavily on the supporting surface, sometimes polishing this latter in the case of hard and resisting rocks; sometimes planing, grooving, scoring or ploughing the beds beneath, as may be seen in almost any part of New Brunswick or Nova Scotia; sometimes again detaching great blocks to be imbedded in and carried by the ice, and finally dropping these as boulders, often scores of miles from their parent beds. Of course the Bay of Fundy was affected by these changes, and as the land probably stood much higher than at present, thus shallowing the bay, it is altogether probable that the ice filled it to its bottom, and that the great glacier of the mainland extended across to and covered the peninsula of Nova Scotia, its southern or Atlantic edge being perhaps not far from Sable Island.

Why there should have been such an era of excessive cold, when it began, how long it lasted, and what determined its close, are all interesting questions, upon which much has been written, but of which space forbids the discussion here. It may, however, be well to say that the disappearance of the ice, like its oncoming, was gradual; and that its final removal was in all probability coincident with the first appearance of man. It is also important to notice that the return to warmer conditions was coincident with, if not determined by, a return of the earth's surface to its former level, or rather to a point considerably below it. As the result of this depression, not only did the ice melt away, and by melting give to our rivers enormously increased breadth and volume, but the sea again invaded the land, again changing greatly the geographical outlines of the continent. Much of the interior of New Brunswick was now submerged, whales disported in Lake Champlain, the St. Lawrence at Montreal was some fifty miles wide, the isthmus of Chignecto was submerged, and no ship-railway was needed to allow of free passage from Northumberland Straits into the Bay of Fundy. The North Mountains of Nova Scotia, of course, stood much lower than now, and star-fishes and other forms of marine life freely traversed the Annapolis Valley, where the writer has gathered their remains in the vicinity of Middleton. Even at St. John, similar remains are to be found in the brick clays, out of which much of the city has been built. The maximum submergence along the New Brunswick coast was probably about two hundred feet,

and the fact that marine beds, in the form of elevated beaches, now skirt the southern hills to the height mentioned, not only proves the submergence, but gives also a measure of the re-elevation which has since occurred.

I have said that the beginnings of these latter movements or oscillations was contemporaneous with the first advent of man; and the weight of authority goes to show that that advent was at least 10,000 years ago. A recent article by Dr. Matthew, entitled, "A Forest Fire in St. John 2,000 Years Ago," is an admirable illustration of the method by which computations of this kind are made, and should stimulate students to the undertaking of similar enquiries. But if 10,000 years takes us back, in the history of the Bay of Fundy, only to the dawn of the human period, what shall we say of the eras which preceded the latter, and almost any one of which exceeded it by many hundred times?

THE FIRST MARTYR OF THE CANADIAN MISSION.

BY REV. W. O. RAYMOND, M.A.

The year 1632 saw the commencement of the Jesuit mission in Canada and the beginning of the most dramatic period in Canadian history. True, the Jesuit fathers Biard and Massé were at Port Royal at an earlier period (1611-1613), but their sojourn was too brief to produce any permanent result, and must be regarded largely as one of the passing episodes of Acadian history. Lallement and a few companions of the Order of Jesus came to Quebec in 1625, and were joined the next year by Noyrot and DeNouë, but the war with England and the capture of Quebec by Kirke obliged the party to return to France. It was not until the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye that the way was clear for the establishment on a solid basis of the Canadian mission.

It is foreign to this paper to consider the nature and objects of the Order of the Society of Jesus—much less to attempt to rehearse the heroic deeds and sacrifices of the Jesuit missionaries in the wilds of North America. Parkman and others have told the thrilling story, with which all students of Canadian history should be thor-

oughly familiar—indeed the Jesuits have been their own best annalists.¹ Few in numbers but strong in spirit, they penetrated regions heretofore unexplored, eager at all hazards to convert the savage races and to propagate the dogmas of their religious faith. They feared not the lardship of mid-winter journeys. Hunger and privation did not daunt their resolute hearts; nor did they even quail before the fierce hate of the dreaded Iroquois, by whose tortures so many of their number were doomed to perish. Doubtless Brébeuf, Garnier, and others of the gallant band had their faults like other men,—nor need our eyes be blinded by the glowing relation of their deeds by their Superior of the Order of Jesus, intended for the edification and inspiration of their sympathizing friends and patrons at home. Nevertheless, making all due and fair allowance for the circumstances under which the *Relations des Jesuites* were written, the heart must be indeed callous that can read unmoved the story of their heroic devotion to duty, as they deemed it.

The first martyr of the Canadian mission was Father Anne de Nouë. He was sixty-three years of age, and had come to Canada in 1626: An indifferent memory prevented his mastering the language of the savages; he therefore devoted himself to ministering to the French and Indians about the forts, where he was able to avail himself of the services of an interpreter. He attended the sick, and in times of scarcity fished in the river or dug roots in the woods for the subsistence of his flock. "Though sprung from a noble family of Champagne," says Parkman, "he shrunk from no toil, however humble, to which his idea of duty or his vow of obedience called him."

De Nouë fell a victim, not to the cruelty of the savages, but to cold and exposure while engaged in an act of Christian kindness and charity.

Parkman gives a touching description of his death, which, with a little abbreviation, is here quoted :

The perils which beset the missionaries did not spring from the fury of the Iroquois alone, for nature herself was armed with terror in this stern wilderness of New France. On the thirtieth of January, 1646, Father Anne de Nouë set out from Three Rivers to go to the fort built by the French at the mouth

¹ See Cleveland edition "The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents," published by the Burrows Bros.

of the Richelieu. * * * The old missionary had for companions two soldiers and a Huron Indian. They were all on snowshoes, and the soldiers dragged their baggage on small sledges. Their highway was the St. Lawrence, transformed to solid ice, and buried, like all the country, beneath two or three feet of snow, which, far and near, glared dazzling white under the clear winter sun. Before night they had walked eighteen miles, and the soldiers, unused to snowshoes, were greatly fatigued. They made their camp in the forest on the shore of the great expansion of the St. Lawrence, called the Lake of St. Peter, dug away the snow, heaped it around the spot as a barrier against the wind, made their fire on the frozen earth in the midst, and lay down to sleep. At two o'clock in the morning DeNouë awoke. The moon shone like daylight, over the vast desert of the frozen lake, with its bordering fir trees bowed to the ground with snow; and the kindly thought struck the Father, that he might ease his companions by going in advance to Fort Richelieu, and sending back men to aid them in dragging their sledges. He knew the way well. He directed them to follow the tracks of his snowshoes in the morning; and not doubting to reach the fort before night, left behind his blanket and his flint and steel. For provisions, he put a morsel of bread and five or six prunes in his pocket, told his rosary, and set forth.

Before dawn the weather changed. The air thickened, clouds hid the moon, and a snowstorm set in. The traveller was in utter darkness. He lost the points of the compass, wandered far out on the lake, and, when day appeared, could see nothing but the snow beneath his feet, and the myriads of falling flakes that encompassed him like a curtain, impervious to the sight. Still he toiled on, winding hither and thither, and at times unwittingly circling back on his own footsteps. At night he dug a hole in the snow, under the shore of an island, and lay down without fire, food or blanket. * * * * *

The Indian the next day reached Fort Richelieu, where a handful of men kept watch and ward against the Iroquois. Seated by the blazing logs he asked for DeNouë, and, to his astonishment, the soldiers of the garrison told him that he had not been seen. The captain of the post was called; all was anxiety; but nothing could be done that night.

At daybreak parties went out to search. The two soldiers were readily found; but they looked in vain for the missionary. All day they were ranging the ice, firing their guns and shouting; but to no avail, and they returned disconsolate. * * * On the next morning two Indians and a French soldier resumed the search; and, guided by the slight depressions in the snow, which had fallen on the wanderer's footprints, the quick-eyed savages traced him through all his windings, found his camp by the shore of the island, and thence followed him beyond the fort. He had passed near without discovering it—perhaps weakness had dimmed his sight—stopped to rest at a point a

league above, and thence made his way about three leagues farther. Here they found him. He had dug a circular excavation in the snow, and was kneeling in it on the earth. His head was bare, his eyes opened and turned upwards and his hands clasped on his breast. His hat and his snowshoes lay at his side. The body was leaning slightly forward, resting against the bank of snow before it, and frozen to the hardness of marble. Thus in an act of kindness and charity, died the first martyr of the Canadian mission.

THE DEATH OF DE NOUË.¹

BY W. O. RAYMOND, JR.

Around him lay the snow, the untravelled wild,
With endless rifts piled up in white array,
Swirled in a dim confusion; through the sky
Chill blinding flakes fell fast, while far and near
Swift gathering darkness half obscured the view.
On either hand the barren wilderness
Stretched far away. The ice clad pine trees tall,
Like hoary watchman, who in castle halls
All grimly guard the winding entrances,
Stood sentinel o'er all the forest waste.
No howl of wolf, no growl of ravenous bear,
Or warring shout of fiendish Iroquois
Rang through the air. All sound of life was still,
And life itself crushed in the stern embrace
Of savage winter's cold and deadening hand.
Only the icebound rill, the glassy lake,
The frozen tree, bursting with strident sound,
Mixed with the wind and formed a music drear
To echo o'er the land a dirge of death.
Did he hear these? His thoughts were far away,
Not near that circle where, in narrow space,
He knelt surrounded by the drifting snow,
Hands clasped in prayer, head bared and eyes upraised.
The wind might rage, the stormy tempest blow,
He felt them not; before him bright there shone
Angelic forms, and heavenly music played,
Grand organ pealed, and in a roseate glow
Again the sculptured arch, the nave, appeared,

¹ DeNouë was the first martyr of the Canadian Mission. See preceding article.

Where oft in wonder he was wont to bow
Before the sacred bones of Lóyola.
And higher yet in heaven's high portal stood
The martyred saints, playing on psaltery sweet,
With crowns of glory—the celestial throng
To whom his earthly vows were oft addressed.
And above all, he heard the blessed tones
Of his great Master, and the sweet "Well done,
Thou faithful servant," pierced his trembling ears,
And in the light divine he passed away
To realms reserved for those who love their Lord.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

BY JAMES HANNAY, D. C. L.

Responsible government is a term which has been heard more frequently on this side of the Atlantic, in the provinces which now form the Dominion of Canada, than in England, the place of its origin. The reason of this is, that while in England responsible government grew up imperceptibly, so that it was hardly possible to tell the time when it became fully recognized, in Canada, the words were the battle cry of a great political party. Under the old system that prevailed in England in the early days of parliamentary institutions, the king was usually his own minister, and the persons to whom he entrusted a portion of his duties were simply his servants. The king was, in theory, absolute, but in practice his powers were limited, because he could not obtain subsidies for the purpose of carrying on his government without the votes of parliament, and under the feudal system the great nobles were so powerful as to restrain in a large measure the authority of the crown. The Wars of the Roses ruined nearly all the ancient aristocracy of England; and the result of this was that Henry the Seventh, the first of the Tudors, although he came to the throne with an imperfect title, was more absolute than any previous sovereign had been for many generations. The power of the crown culminated in Henry the Eighth, whose title was perfect, and who had besides graces of person and manner in his youthful days which made him the favorite of the people. The reign of Edward the Sixth diminished the power of the crown somewhat; but his

successors, Mary and Elizabeth, although they had to bow to the will of parliament, exercised a considerable amount of power. The great struggle which was inevitable between the crown and parliament came to a head in the days of Charles the First, who lost both his throne and his life because he attempted to tax the people without the consent of the representatives whom they had elected. It was not until the days of Charles the Second that something like a cabinet began to be formed; but the men who composed it still regarded themselves as the servants of the king and not of the people. The accession of George the First to the throne strengthened the power of parliament, because that monarch had to rely on his ministers, as he was unable to transact the business of the country himself, as he did not understand the English language. In his reign and that of his successor, George the Second, the authority of the House of Commons was fully established, and the principle that no government can exist without the support of the House of Commons was recognized. George the Third, who was at heart as great a tyrant as Charles the First, was successful in increasing the power of the crown; but this was done by taking the people's money to purchase members of parliament who would support his policy. Still, throughout his reign, no government was able to exist for any length of time without a majority in the House of Commons, and although the principles of responsible government were perhaps not fully recognized in theory, they were firmly established in practice. The ministers were still called the king's ministers, but for all that they were responsible to the people.

The last attempt that was made by a British sovereign to govern the country in spite of parliament was that of William the Fourth in 1834, when he dismissed the Melbourne Ministry and called on the Duke of Wellington to form a new government. The new government lasted only 113 days, and the king was exposed to the humiliation of being compelled to recall the ministers whom he had dismissed with ignominy a few weeks before. Greville, in his Memoirs, laments this fact on the ground that it tended to make the government the ministers and servants of parliament, and not of the king; and this statement sufficiently shows that even at as late a period as sixty-six years ago, the principles of responsible government had hardly been fully recognized in England, or at least not to the extent to which

they afterwards attained. It is easy to see that the change which was brought about by the dependence of the ministers on the authority of parliament, instead of that of the king, amounted in a practical sense to a revolution, and entirely altered the balance of the constitution. The sovereign, from being the first power in the state, became in fact the last, because practically he was unable to prevent any legislation which his ministers chose to enact. If he resisted their authority they would leave him without a government, and, therefore, helpless. This kind of pressure was exercised upon George the Fourth in 1829, when he attempted to prevent Catholic emancipation, on the plea that to consent to a law emancipating the Catholics from the disabilities under which they suffered would be a breach of his coronation oath. He was forced to yield, although he did so most reluctantly, and even with tears, so that from that time until the present it may be considered as thoroughly established that the king cannot resist any legislation which is demanded by the people.

The system of government which prevailed in all the colonies of North America a century ago was the same. There was a legislature which was elected by the people, and there was a council which was nominated by the crown. Then there was the governor, who was the direct representative of the crown and who exercised its authority. The House of Assembly which was elected by the people controlled the public expenditure, as far as it related to the revenues received by the province. This gave that body a certain degree of authority, but owing to causes which are easily explained, this authority was much less than might have been supposed. The council, which was nominated by the crown, and the governor, who was appointed by the British government, were the great ruling forces at that time. The council then exercised legislative as well as executive functions, and absorbed most of the authority which was not assumed by the governor. The latter received his instructions from England as to the manner in which he should conduct the affairs of the province, and these instructions, which were very voluminous, embraced nearly every topic on which he was likely to find his judgment exercised. In a general way they gave him authority over a great many matters with which a governor of the present day has nothing to do. The governor virtually controlled the appointments to office, although these appointments were sometimes nominally made with the advice of his council.

When, however, there came to be a question between the council and the governor, the former always had to yield. The royal prerogative, as it was termed, was supposed to be pre-eminent and to override the wishes of both the council and the assembly. This condition of affairs, so unfavorable to the development of popular government, was greatly promoted by the fact that the governor had control of a large amount of public revenue, quite independent of either branch of the legislature. The casual and territorial revenues, which were the names given to the crown revenues derived from the crown lands of the province, and also the imperial duties, which were collected by officers appointed by the British government, were at the disposal of the governor without reference to the wishes of his advisers. The Imperial government also controlled the post office, and, though it was not a revenue-producing branch of the government, this fact still further emphasized the manner in which our affairs were governed from Downing Street.

THE CAPTIVITY OF JOHN GYLES, 1689-1698.

BY VICTOR HUGO PALTSITS, of the New York Public Library.

The narrative¹ of the captivity of John Gyles is the most authentic and earliest English account of any consequence relating to a residence in the province of New Brunswick during the seventeenth century. For the historian and ethnologist of those parts it is indispensable. The experiences and observations which he recounts happened to him from his twelfth to his twentieth year—a period in every man's life when the memory is "sticky" and the sense of observation very keen. Practically living the roving life of a savage; speaking their language; suffering their privations, and moreover their maltreatment—his young soul was crystallized to an appreciation of the reality of his surroundings. Although he was not far from sixty years of age when his little book saw the light of day, in 1736, he had long before recorded his recollections in the form of "minutes," and he was induced to put this

¹ *Memoirs of Odd Adventures, Strange Deliverances, &c. In the Captivity of John Gyles, Esq. . . Written by Himself. . . Boston, in N. E. Printed and Sold by S. Kneeland and T. Green. . . MDCXXXVI. Small 4to; title, 1 leaf; introduction, pp. (2); text, pp. 1-40; appendix, pp. (4).*

crude material into shape for publication "at the earnest Request" of his second wife, Mrs. Hannah Heath Gyles, whom he had married in 1721.

John Gyles was the third son of Judge Thomas Gyles, of Pemaquid, Maine. The father was a man of considerable influence and standing in the various precincts where from time to time he resided—at Merry-meeting Bay in Maine, at Southold in Long Island, and particularly at Pemaquid. Pious, energetic, and an upholder of the law, he showed himself an invaluable factor in moulding and forwarding the affairs of early New England. In 1689 he was the owner of a house at old Pemaquid, near Fort Charles, as well as of several scattered farms. In those days Pemaquid was looked upon as the "the key of all the eastern parts"—the bulwark of English civilization and Protestant Christianity. Fort Charles had been built in 1677 by instruction of Sir Edmund Andros. It was merely a redoubt, and was intended as a barrier against Indian incursion and French interference. But the garrison stationed there in 1689 was very weak and of a mutinous temper. Its commander, Lieut. James Weems, was not in sympathy with the authorities of Boston, with whom he exchanged some spicy correspondence. Whilst these unhappy conditions prevailed within, a greater danger threatened from without. A party of Abenaki and Maliseet Indians met in council at Pentagoet (now Castine, Maine,) and perfected plans for the extirpation of the English at Pemaquid. Father Pierre Thury, the Catholic missionary at Pentagoet—who is described as "a zealous laborer and a man of capacity"—was their leader and accompanied them in their undertaking. A plan of campaign was laid amidst appeals to heaven for success. All confessed, many received communion, and the Indians took care that their wives and children did likewise, in order, as they believed, "to raise purer hands to heaven while their fathers and husbands were combatting the heretics." Preparations proceeded amidst the orgies natural to Indian campaigning. Their hearts of iron burned with bloody hatred. They proceeded on their course in canoes down the coast and reached a place called New Harbor, about two miles from Fort Charles. Here they secreted their canoes, and moved stealthily along by land, unnoticed and undisturbed. From one John Starkey, who fell in with some of their spies on August 2nd, they learned that the elder Thomas Gyles had gone, with fourteen of his men, to his farm at Pemaquid

Falls, about three miles off; and that the other men of the town were "scattered abroad about their occasions." Thus credibly informed, the Indians resolved on an immediate attack; distributed themselves into two bands—the one going to the Falls, the other to the town close by. The attack was made at noonday, when the garrison and inhabitants were off their guard, and while there was no scout abroad. Few escaped; and of the entire Gyles family, only one, Samuel, a boy nine years of age, got within the fort. Lieut. Weems made a show of resistance, but capitulated when most of his men were killed and he himself had been badly wounded in the face by an explosion. All this time the other branch of the attacking party was causing havoc at the Falls, where they killed several in the fields, especially the elder Thomas Gyles, and made captives of several others—young John Gyles among them.

On August 4th the Indians set fire to the houses and fort; "which," says Gyles, "made a terrible Blast, and was a melancholy Sight to us poor Captives, who were sad Spectators."

The captives, to the number of about fifty, were carried to Penobscot Fort. Some of them continued there during their captivity, but others were distributed among the various tribes of the attacking party. Among the latter was the lad John Gyles, who had been captured by a Maliseet Indian of the St. John river. He was taken overland to Fort Meductic¹ (now Lower Woodstock), and lived with these Indians about six years, enduring untold suffering and fatigue. He was then sold to Louis d'Amours, Sieur de Chauffour, who resided at the mouth of the Jemseg, from whom he received his release in June, 1698; sailed from the mouth of the St. John for Boston, and arrived there on the nineteenth of the month, after an absence of eight years, ten months, and seventeen days. His subsequent services to the Bay government, within the confines of Maine and Acadia, as Indian interpreter, captain of several garrisons, and otherwise, during nearly half a century, are a matter of conspicuous record. The following selections from the printed narrative of Gyles are given to show the spirit and character of the work.

¹ For a charming and painstaking account of this fort, as well as Gyles' residence there, see "*The Old Meductic Fort*," by Rev. W. O. Raymond, M. A., in *Collections of New Brunswick Hist. Society*, vol. 1. (1896).

HIS CAPTURE AT PEMAQUID FALLS.

“But to our great Surprize, about Thirty or Forty Indians discharged a Volley of Shot at us, from behind a rising Ground near our Barn. The Yelling of the Indians, the Whistling of their Shot, and the Voice of my Father, whom I heard cry out, What now! What now! so terrified me; tho’ he seem’d to be handling a Gun, that I endeavored to make my Escape. My Brother ran one way and I another; and looking over my Shoulder, I saw a Stout Fellow, painted, pursuing me with a Gun; and a Cutlass glittering in his Hand, which I expected every Moment in my Brains: I presently fell down, and the Indian took me by the Left Hand, offered me no abuse, but seized my Arms, lift me up, and pointed to the Place where the People were at Work about the Hay; and lead me that way.”

HIS ARRIVAL AT FORT MEDUCTIC.

“After some Miles travel we came in sight of a large Corn-Field, and soon after of the Fort, to my great Surprize: for two or three Squaws met us, took off my Pack, and led me to a large Hutt or Wigwam, where Thirty or Forty Indians were dancing and yelling round five or six poor Captives, who had been taken some Months before from Quochecho, at the time when Major Waldein was most barbarously butchered by them. I was whirl’d in among them, and we look’d on each other with a sorrowful Countenance: and presently one of them was seiz’d by each Hand & Foot, by four Indians, who swung him up and let his Back with Force fall on the hard Ground, ’till they had danced (as they call it) round the whole Wigwam, which was thirty or Forty Feet in length. But when they torture a Boy, they take him up between two. This is one of their Customs of torturing Captives. Another is to take a Person by the middle with his Head downwards, and jolt him round ’till one would think his Bowels would shake out of his Mouth. Sometimes they will take a Captive by the Hair of the Head and stoop him forward, and strike him on the Back & Shoulder, ’till the Blood gush out of his Mouth and Nose. Sometimes an old shrivel’d Squaw will take up a Shovel of hot Embers and throw them into a Captive’s Bosom; and if he cry out, the other Indians will laugh and Shout, and say, What a brave Action our old Grandmother has done! Sometimes they torture them with Whips, &c.”

COMEDY MIXED WITH TRAGEDY.

“They often had terrible apprehension of the Incursion of the Mohawks. One very hot Season a great Number gathered together at the Village; and being a very droughty People, they kept James and my self Night and Day fetching Water from a Cold Spring, that ran out of a rocky Hill about three Quarters of a Mile from the Fort. In going thither, we cross’d a large

Interval-Corn-Field, and then a Descent to a lower Interval before we ascended the Hill to the Spring. James being almost dead as well as I, with this continual Fatigue, contriv'd to fright the Indians: he told me of it, but conjur'd me to secrecy, yet said he knew that I could keep Counsel. The next dark Night James going for Water, set his kettle on the descent to the lowest Interval: and ran back to the Fort, puffing & blowing, as in the utmost Surprize; and told his Master that he saw something near the Spring, that look'd like Mohawks: [which he said were only Stumps—aside] his Master being a most courageous Warrior, went with James to make discovery, and when they came to the brow of the Hill, James pointed to the Stumps, and withal touch'd his Kettle with his Toe, which gave it motion down Hill, and at every turn of the Kettle the Bail clattered; upon which James and his Master could see a Mohawk in every Stump on motion, and turned Tail to, and he was the best Man that could run fastest. This alarm'd all the Indians in the Village. They, tho' about thirty or forty in number, pack'd off Bag and Baggage, some up the River and others down: and did not return under fifteen Days, and the heat of the Weather being finely [finally] over, our hard Service abated for this Season. I never heard that the Indians understood the Occasion of the Fright, but James and I had many a private Laugh about it."

SAVED BY A GIRL FROM DROWNING.

"Fishing for Salmon at the Fall of about fifteen Feet of Water, there being a deep Hole at the foot of the Fall; the Indians went into the Water to wash themselves, and asked me to go in with them. I told them that I could not Swim. They bid me strip [which was done] and dive across the Deepest place, and if I fell short of the other side they said they would help me. But instead of diving across the narrowest, I was Crawling on the bottom into the deepest Place: but not seeing me rise, and knowing whereabouts I was by the bubbling of the Water, a young girl dove into the Water, and seizing me by the Hair of my Head drew me out: otherwise I had perished in the Water."

COMMENTS.

The Canadian Engineer, Toronto: The "Educational Review" is now publishing a valuable series of leaflets dealing with special features and epochs of Canadian history. Such writers as Sir John Bourinot, Prof. W. F. Ganong and Col. Cruikshank are contributors, and these leaflets will be a most useful means of educating people on many more or less obscure points of Canadian history.

Manitoba Free Press: * * * Contain articles as valuable as they are interesting on incidents in the early records of our country.

Canadian Journal of Fabrics: This means of presenting in a cheap and popular form phases of Canadian history not familiar to the ordinary reader cannot be too highly commended, and we trust Mr. Hay will be well encouraged in his good work.

Kingston (Ont.) Whig: Valuable material by foremost historians.

Quebec Mercury: No student of history should fail to secure these writings.

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lect works on Canada. They contain articles that cannot be obtained anywhere else.

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Edmundton (N. W. T.) Bulletin: The articles are interesting and of great value from an educational point of view.

St. John Sun: Not only useful for the purpose designed, but contains historical studies of great general value.