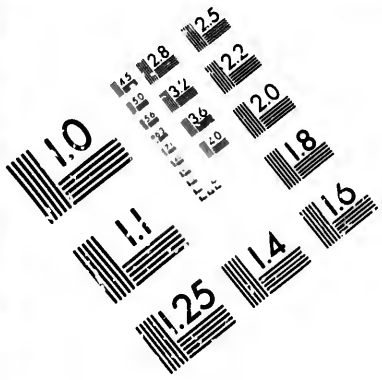

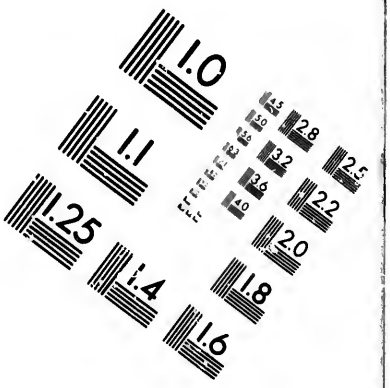

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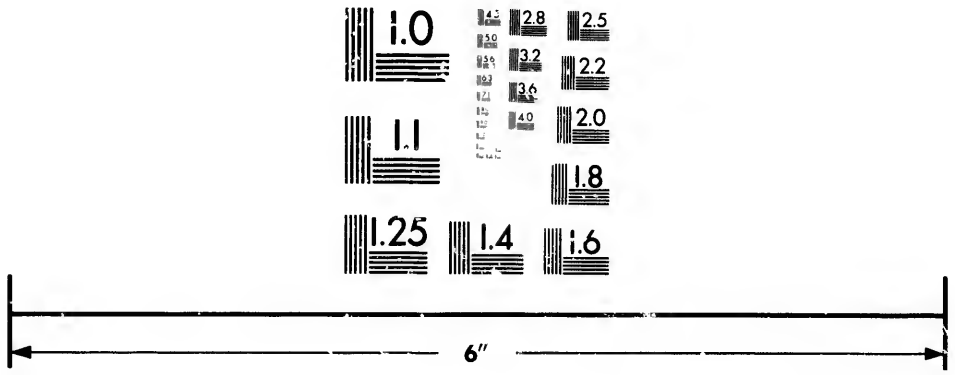

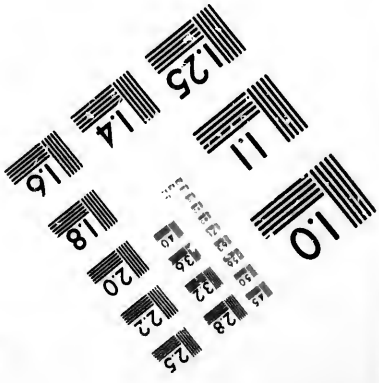

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CHRONICLES OF CANADA,

OR A

CONCISE HISTORY OF THE LEADING EVENTS

IN THE OLD PROVINCES OF THE

NEW DOMINION.

BY

H. BEAUMONT SMALL, S.C.L.,

AUTHOR OF "PRODUCTS AND MANUFACTURES," "CANADIAN HAND BOOK,"
"ANIMALS OF NORTH AMERICA," &c., &c.

OTTAWA:
G. E. DESBARATS, PRINTER & PUBLISHER.

1868

DEDICATED

BY PERMISSION TO

SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD, K.C.B.,

FIRST PREMIER OF THE DOMINION.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

It is natural for every man of ordinary curiosity and discernment, to desire to know something of the past and present state of the country he may have adopted for his home. The material which constitutes the "Chronicles of Canada," has been carefully sorted from an infinite variety of old Colonial Books, and public records. In obtaining this information, many hours have been sometimes spent in seeking for that which a few minutes would suffice to put into writing. Desirous of looking more particularly into the history of my adopted country, the researches I had occasion to make for this purpose were attended with much interest and gratification to me. But in committing the result to writing,—even on the limited scale which the work allows—I found more difficulty than I at first expected. The minor points of the history were in different accounts so discordant, that it was difficult to decide which one was correct. The main facts however are well attested, and of these I have endeavoured to embody as many as my range would allow in the following pages. I would take this opportunity of returning thanks to all those who have rendered me assistance in my undertaking, and especially to Mr. Todd, the Librarian of

Parliament, to whose kindness I am indebted for many favours.

The Historical Department is perhaps much less diffuse than it might have been; but there is so much of party politics mixed up with much of our history, that without entering upon the troubled sea of politics, it was impossible to be much more minute than I have been.

H. BEAUMONT SMALL.

Ottawa, 1st Nov. 1868.

SYNOPSIS OF HISTORY

OF

CANADA AND ACADIA.

CHRONICLES OF CANADA,

OR A

CONCISE HISTORY OF THE LEADING EVENTS

IN THE OLD PROVINCES OF THE

NEW DOMINION.

ORIGIN OF THE WORD "CANADA."

Some suppose the origin of this name to be from the Indian word of the Iroquois language *Ka-na-ta*, signifying a village or collection of huts, a word used by Brant in his translation of the Gospel of St. Matthew to signify a village. Another supposition is that when the Spaniards visited this country previous to the French, in search of gold and silver, and finding none, they often repeated the word *Aca nada* (there is nothing,) or *Il Capa di nada* (the Cape with nothing—they were in search of—in it.) After their departure the French arrived, and the Indians who wanted none of their company, and supposing they were Spaniards, on the same errand, were anxious to inform them that their labour was lost by tarrying in the country, and so incessantly repeated to them this word. The French, supposing this continually recurring word was the name of the country, gave it the name Canada.

ORIGIN OF THE WORD "ACADIA."

The aboriginal Micmacs of Nova Scotia, being of a practical turn of mind, were in the habit of bestowing on places the names of the useful articles found in them, offering to such terms the word *A-ca-die*, denoting the local abundance of the particular objects to which the names referred. The early French settlers supposed this common termination to be the name of the country, and applied it as the general designation of the region now comprising the Lower Provinces of British America, as distinguished from Canada.

The country from which these people emigrated, and the time of their departure are unknown. The Indians have no history of their own if we except their oral traditions. The probability is they originally came from Asia, crossing Behring's straits, and with each succeeding influx migrating further south, till the difference of food and climate in the southern regions, created after many generations a dissimilarity between them, that gives the idea of different races. In religion they were all Pagans, yet all holding to the idea of a Great Spirit whom they called *Ma-neh-to*. Each tribe was distinguished by some kind of heraldic symbol, representing some animal peculiar to the country. Hostilities between the tribes were common, arising frequently out of one party encroaching upon the hunting grounds of the other. If peace was desired they produced the 'calumet' or pipe out of which each chief smoked, blowing the smoke all round, inviting the surrounding elements to sanction the act; a reddened hatchet was buried, symbolical of the oblivion of past hostility, and an exchange of presents followed.

The tribe inhabiting the margins of the great lakes were the *Hurons*, variously called *Ouendats*, *Yendats*, and *Wyandots:* adjoining them were the *Algonquins;* a tribe of whom occupied Montreal island. On the river Saguenay and its lakes were the *Montagnais*, *Bersiamites*, and *Hedgehogs;* on the Ottawa the *Ouataouais* or *Ottawas:* on the St. Lawrence the *Sokakis*, a mongrel race. The most powerful branch of the Indian family adjoining the waters of the St. Lawrence were the *Agonnousionni* confederation, better known as the *Iroquois* or *Five* (now Six) *nations*. The tribes of the *Five nations* were known by the English as *Mohawks*, *Oneidas*, *Onondagas*, *Cayugas*, *Senecas;* the French called them respectively *Agniers*, *Onneoyuths*, *Onontanes*, *Aniegues*, and *Tsonnonthouens*. They were once very powerful, and figured conspicuously in all the wars of America. On the margin of Lake Superior were the *Nipissings* and *Miamis*, small tribes. The *Souriquois* or *Micmas*, a tribe of the Algonquin family, resided in the Lower Provinces. There were three other tribes, residents around the head waters of the River St. John, New Brunswick, the *Abenequais*, the *Etchemins*, and the *Milicetes*. The *Monguash* tribe inhabited Nova Scotia. During the early history of Canada, several southern tribes emigrated northward, and either exterminated or drove some of the northern tribes further north, and occupied their places.

Many of the tribes are now extinct, or united with others. The last of the native tribe of Newfoundland, disappeared about 35 years ago. There are several tribes of Indians, occupying the

country lying between Canada and the shores of the Pacific Ocean, known as the *Sioux* or *Dacotahs*, embracing seven allied bands. There are also in the interior part of the continent the *Salteaux*, *Crees*, *Nistoneaux* and *Chippewas*. Another tribe of the Indian family, the *Esquimaux*, occupy the Arctic regions and the coast of Labrador. In some parts of the country Indian graves are the only memorials of their being. Each of the provinces have set apart large tracts of land for their use, and other means are used to assist them in their growing wants; but they are fast losing the ancient traditions of their races,—a fatal symptom in aboriginal life, of expiring vitality; they have also lost their native spirit of independence; the harmless and comparative few that now wander among the settled communities of the North American Provinces, are hanging in hopeless dependence upon the "pale faces" whose customs, laws, and language are foreign to them, and but few of them become elevated in the moral, social, and intellectual scale. Another century will probably see the last of them, and their traces will only be left in the rude stone hatchets and Indian pottery which the ploughshare of civilization from time to time turns up.

HISTORY OF CANADA.

In giving a synopsis of the history of the Dominion, the events that have taken place in the different Provinces are so unconnected, that it is necessary to divide it in its earlier stages into two headings, the History of Canada, and the History of Acadia. We commence with the former.

The earliest account we have of any part of Canada is in 1497, when England commissioned Sebastian Cabot and others to extend the discoveries of Columbus in America; in the following year he arrived on the east coast of Labrador. In the next year, he discovered Newfoundland, which he named St. Johns, having landed there on St. John's day, and other sections of North America. To the mainland he gave the name of Prima-Vista. Three years later Cortereal, a Portuguese, visited the same coast, but not being heard from, he was succeeded by his brother Michael, who sailed in search of him, but no accounts of either ever reached Europe, although the king of Portugal fitted out an expedition to search for them. In an old map published in 1508, the Labrador Coast is called *Terra Cortereälis*, and the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence was long known by the name of the gulf of the Two Brothers. 1497 1501

In 1523, Giovanni Verrazzani, a Florentine navigator of great skill and celebrity, sailed, by the command of Francis 1st. of France, along the coast of America as far as Newfoundland. Of his fate nothing definite is known, though there is a tradition that the River St. Lawrence was the scene of his death, and that he and his crew were massacred and devoured by the natives. 1523

In 1534, Jacques Cartier, under the auspices of France, explored the North-East Coast carefully, passed through the Straits of Belle-isle, traversed the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and arrived in the Bay of Chaleur, so called by him, in July. He thence proceeded to Gaspé Bay, where he erected a cross, 30 feet in height, with a shield, bearing the three fleur-de-lis of France, thus taking possession in the name of Francis 1st. Coasting along the shores of 1534

the Gulf, he met with boisterous weather which determined him from the lateness of the season, after holding a council with his officers, to return to France. In the following year, he obtained a new commission, and revisited America, sailing from St. Malo, in Brittany, with three vessels called the Hermina, Little Hermina, and the Hermerillion, ascending the great river of Canada which he named the St. Lawrence, from the circumstance of his having commenced his exploration of it on the festival of that Saint. He visited the Indian villages of Stadacona (now Quebec) and Hochelaga, under the shade of a mountain to which he gave the name of Mont-Royal, time having now changed it to Montreal. He establised the most friendly terms with the natives, and in the ensuing spring, returned to France, taking two of the native chiefs and eight of their men with him to exhibit before the French Court.

1541 In 1541, Sieur de Roberval was appointed Viceroy by Francis 1st. to establish a permanent settlement in Canada ; being however unable to set out at the appointed time, Cartier took charge of the expedition from Rochelle, revisiting the St. Lawrence with five vessels, laden with emigrants and supplies. He endeavoured to plant a settlement at Stadacona, erecting a fort at Cape Rouge, which he called Charlesbourg. Leaving the Viscount Beaupré in command of it, he himself set out to visit the rapids above Hochelaga, but finding it impossible to pass them in his boats, he returned for the winter. Jealousy with the natives soon engendered hostility, and he and his colonists were obliged to re-embark for France. Putting into Newfoundland on his passage, he met Roberval, with settlers, stores, and provisions, who on their arrival took up their quarters at the station Cartier had abandoned. About 200 colonists of both sexes arrived with him, but nearly one fourth of them died in the winter of 1542-3. Roberval in the spring, after leaving thirty men in the Fort, returned to France, and for several years the European wars caused Canada

1549 to be lost sight of. In 1549, Roberval with his brother Achille and a number of emigrants again embarked for America, but being never heard of, were supposed to have perished at sea.

1576 In 1576, Martin Frobisher was sent out by Queen Elizabeth on a voyage of discovery with a view of finding a north-west passage, and in 1578, a second voyage was made by him in search of gold, for which he had mistaken iron pyrites met with in his previous expedition ; both voyages resulted in no material discoveries.

1583 In 1583, Sir Humphrey Gilbert visited Newfoundland, and took formal possession of it in the name of England.

1598 In 1598, France again turned her attention to Canada, and the Marquis de la Roche, a nobleman of Brittany, undertook to found another settlement in the New World, though from the disfavour it met with, he was compelled to draw his emigrants from the

prisons of Paris. Little is known of his voyage, except that he landed and left 40 of his men on Sable Island, off the east coast of Nova Scotia, and returned to Europe. Seven years afterwards only twelve of them were found alive by a vessel sent to enquire after them, and they were carried back to France where they received a pardon for the crimes that had condemned them to a prison.

It was at last however to private entreprise that France was indebted for a permanent settlement in Canada. The merchants of Dieppe, St. Malo, Rouen and Rochelle established posts for the prosecution of the fur trade, Tadousac being the headquarters; and in 1599, Chauvin of Rouen and Pontgravé of St. Malo, 1599
undertook, for a monopoly of the fur trade, to settle 500 persons in Canada. Chauvin made two successful voyages, exchanging the merest trifles for the most valuable furs, but in the course of his last voyage he died. The settlements he founded on the St. Lawrence were however permanently established.

In 1603, DeChaste was the next person we find engaged in 1603
these enterprises. He organized a company at Rouen to carry on the fur trade, and engaged as his lieutenant in his operations, Samuel Champlain. After reaching the new colony, accompanied by Pontgravé, Champlain set out in a light boat for the purpose of exploring the St. Lawrence, and like Cartier proceeded as far as the rapids of Sault St. Louis above Hochelaga; thinking that the river above the rapids pointed out the way to China, he gave the spot the name of Lachine. Being unable to stem the current, he returned to France. Here he found DeChaste dead, upon which he proceeded to Paris, and laid before the King a chart and description of the region he had surveyed. This attracted considerable attention, and the enterprise was next taken up by Sieur de Monts, a special favourite of Henry IV. of France. Obtaining the entire monopoly of the Fur trade, he sailed for this country, and landed in Nova Scotia, trafficking for some months with the natives, and building a fort on an island near the mouth of the St. John River on the coast of New Brunswick, where he wintered. In the following spring he founded the settlement of Port Royal on the Bay of Fundy, giving all that section, the name of Acadia. In the same year he returned to France, and in 1607, on the representation of Champlain, he 1607
turned his attention from Nova Scotia to the fertile banks of the St. Lawrence, despatching two vessels for the purpose of establishing a settlement there. The command of these vessels was given to Champlain, who in June, 1608, arrived at Tadousac, Pontgravé following him with additional emigrants. Leaving the latter at Tadousac, he proceeded up the river as far as the Island of Orleans, near which place on a promontory called by

the natives *Quebio*, he founded on the 3rd July the present City of Quebec. His judgment in the choice of this site, has never been called in question. The only established settlement besides this in the New World at this time, was one founded by the English at Jamestown in Virginia, the year previous. Champlain was invested with legislative, executive, and judicial powers. Finding the tribe of the Algonquins at war with the Five Nations, he and the colonists rashly joined the former, a circumstance which involved the French in wars that lasted nearly a century. Receiving the news that DeMonts' commission had
1610 been revoked. Champlain returned to France, but in 1610 with considerable reinforcements and fresh supplies he again visited the St. Lawrence, where he found the war between the natives so violent that it was difficult to plant settlements, or penetrate the country; consequently in a few months he returned to France. In 1611, we find him again in Canada, when proceeding up the river in search of a site for a new settlement, he fixed upon what is now Montreal. Between this period and 1616 he made three trips between France and Canada, during which time also he visited Lakes Champlain, and Nipissing, ascended the Ottawa river nearly to its head waters, and crossed over to Lake Huron and the Georgian Bay.

About this time the ecclesiastical authorities in France endowed a number of institutions in Canada. The island of Montreal was granted to religious orders who erected numerous con-
1621 vents upon it. In 1621, May 24th, *the first child of European Parents was born at Quebec;* it was the son of Abraham Martin and Margaret L'Anglois, and was christened Eustache. In 1622 the Indian tribes began to estimate the mastering force of civilization, and offered terms of peace. The intestine wars which existed between the Catholics and Huguenots in France, gave rise to the proscription of Protestants in the French colonies of America. To make matters worse, war broke out between England and France, and an English fleet of six ships commanded by Kerkt ascended the St. Lawrence in front of Quebec, which place capitulated to him in 1629. Peace had however been proclaimed between the contending powers. England held possession of Canada nearly three years, but so little value did she
1632 attach to the colony that in 1632 she renounced all claim to New France, which included Canada, Hudson's Bay, Labrador, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and a large part of the American States. A treaty was signed to this effect on the 19th March, at St. Germain en Laye, and Champlain re-appointed governor, had the happiness of returning to Quebec with a body of soldiers and emigrants. His principal object was to colonize the country and christianize the savages, amongst whom he sent a number of Jesuit

missionaries. In 1635 the first Jesuit college was founded in 1635
Quebec, and the Ursuline Nunnery established through the instrumentality of the Duchess D'Aiguillon. In the same year Champlain died. He had crossed the Atlantic Ocean fully a score of times, and had spent thirty years of untiring efforts in diplomacy and christianizing influences in order to give permamence and stability to French power in "New France." In 1637 a company of French merchants was formed under the name of "the Hundred Associates" under the direction of Cardinal Richelieu.

On the 17th June, 1642, the spot destined for the future city of 1642
Montreal was consecrated by the superior of the Jesuits, the "Queen of the Angels" was supplicated to take it under her protection, and it was named in her honour "*La Ville Marie.*" The European population of Canada at this time did not exceed 200 souls, and their situation was very critical from the attitude assumed by the Indians. Owing to the weakness of the French,—the wars in Europe preventing the French government from sending out sufficient forces—the colonists could not go far from their forts, without protective arms. In 1644 the first wheat was sown in the Colony. In 1646 the Five Nations prosecuted the war against the French and such of their Indian allies as had joined them, in the most relentless manner. In 1648 they destroyed the 1648
village of St. Joseph (Sillery). Other villages and even the missionaries shared the same fate. All the hostile tribes were equally cruel, but in a closing combat the Hurons were almost exterminated. The Iroquois now completely lorded it over Canada, and the French were virtually blockaded in the forts of Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal. During the year 1651, and three succeeding years, all business was suspended, and despair filled every European mind. The Company of the Hundred Associates also ceased to exist. An Apostolic vicarate was instituted in 1657, and the Catholic clergy passed from the hands of the Jesuits into those of the secular priesthood in 1659.

In 1663 the colony was visited by a most remarkable succes- 1663
sion of earthquakes which commenced on the 6th of February, and continued for a year and a half, spreading universal alarm. A large part of Canada was now divided into seigniories, and appropriated to military officers, merchants, and religious corporations. The country was divided into three districts, Montreal, Three-Rivers and Quebec, and a Governor located in each, the Governor General remaining in Quebec. In the Governor, Bishop, and head military officers were centred all power.

In 1665 the Marquis de Tracy arrived in Canada, bringing 1665
with him the Carignan regiment, at the head of which, together with a number of militia, he marched 700 miles into the country

of the Iroquois, who were thoroughly overawed, and in 1666 a peace was made with all the tribes which lasted eighteen years.

1670 In 1670 the English and Dutch merchants of New York began to trade extensively in furs, through the Five Nations, which gave rise to fresh difficulties. In 1671 a fort was built by Frontenac the Governor, at Cataraqui (now Kingston) as a protection against the Indians. In 1674 Canada became an Episcopal see named the Bishopric of Quebec. Between this period and 1682, exploring parties, of which Father Marquette was the founder, penetrated the West, sailing down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. To Canada therefore is due the honour of founding the first settlements in what are now the southern and western States. About this time the English were determined to share in the Fur trade, and drew their alliance with the Five Nations closer. A large number of the Huguenots of France, had emigrated to America, where they became implacable enemies to France. In

1687 1685 six hundred regular troops arrived from France, and in 1687 eight hundred more arrived, with which combined forces the French entered the Iroquois country scattering them for a time; but on the breaking out of war between England and France in 1689 the Iroquois destroyed Montreal, murdering the inhabitants and burning 200 of them alive. The French had now to contend with the Five Nations, and the Anglo-Americans, who were becoming strong from the numerous European population continually arriving. France being at war with Britain, Spain, Holland, Savoy, and the German Empire, was unable to do much for her Canadian possession. While Canada only numbered 11,000 souls, the Anglo-American colonies had more than doubled that number. The state of affairs in Canada was now desperate. A fort which had been built at Niagara had been razed; that at Cataraqui had been blown up and abandoned by the French, and two ships that had been built for the purpose of navigating Lake Erie were burnt, to prevent their falling into the hands of the Iroquois. War, famine, and disease seemed as if combined for the utter destruction of the Colony.

1690 In 1690 Sir Wm. Phipps appeared before Quebec with a squadron of 35 sail, but after a heavy loss of men amounting to about 1000, the fleet departed without doing much injury, though the Canadians suffered much from want. The English and French nations were now so much engaged in the wars of Europe that they neglected to send aid to their American Colonies. While the Anglo-Americans were busy reforming their government, the French colonists continued to fortify Quebec and other forts. Desultory fighting however continued on both sides with varied success. Peace was at length concluded between Holland,

France, Spain, and England, and the French proclaimed a peace with all the savage tribes on their borders, August 4th, 1701.

Scarcely however had this been done, before it was broken by their civilized neighbours. The accession of Philip of Anjou to the throne of Spain, commenced hostilities, which caused the French colonists to be left to their own resources, while England conceived the bold design of uniting within her territory the whole of North America. A growing disaffection existed between the Anglo-Americans and the Canadians, which only wanted a plea to open hostilities. The former were using every means to alienate the Iroquois from their alliance with the French, while the Anglo-Americans were slaughtered in large numbers by the Indian allies of the French. In return for these acts, the Bostonians commenced the subjugation of Acadia. In 1711, a com- 1711
bined land and sea expedition against Canada took place, but met with so many disasters on the way, that it never reached Quebec. A fleet of 88 ships and transports, and an army of 4000 infantry were despatched from Boston, under Sir Hoveden Walker, but in one day during a storm, eight of the transports were driven ashore, when 884 men perished at Seven Islands; one frigate of 36 guns was lost, and the attempt on Quebec was abandoned. General Nicholson, who had been sent with an army, by land, to co-operate with the fleet, returned to New York, without offering battle. The rejoicings at Quebec were naturally great at so signal a deliverance, and the Church of Notre Dame des Victoires, of that city, receiving its name from the occasion, attests the pious gratitude of its inhabitants.

The restoration of peace in Europe by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713
took place in 1713, by which treaty Hudson's Bay Territory, Newfoundland and Acadia, were ceded to Britain; France retaining Canada and Cape Breton, and some islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. This gave the colony an interval of rest lasting about ten years, during which, her trade and resources were materially increased. The boundaries of Acadia, not having been properly defined, difficulties soon arose, and the Indians committed ravages on the settlers. Four out of the Five Nations joined the English Colonists, and both the English and French fortified strategic places on the lake frontier of Canada and other parts. In 1721, mails were first conveyed between Quebec and Montreal. In 1745, war again broke out between England and France, which 1745
led to the reduction of Cape Breton, by a naval and military force, assisted by the provincial troops of the New England colonies. In 1746-7, the Canadians attempted the reconquest of Nova Scotia, in which they failed, and the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, suspended further hostilities. The boundaries of Acadia, however, remained in the same unsettled state, and after five years of

1754 fruitless negotiation, war again became the arbiter. In 1754, a strong fleet with troops, was despatched from France to reinforce Quebec; an English fleet of eleven men of war, under Admiral Boscawen pursued it, but succeeded in capturing only two frigates, with eight companies of soldiers on board, on the banks of Newfoundland. They, however, took about 300 French merchantmen, with 6,000 sailors on board. A series of battles were fought on the lake frontier, in which both parties suffered severely. In 1756, the Marquis de Montcalm arrived in Canada with 1,400 men, and a large supply of provisions. He strengthened all the French forts, Quebec, Montreal, Frontenac, Niagara, Duquesne and Carillon, the English fortifying Oswego and Fort Edward, on the west of the Lakes. Montcalm gained a series of successes terminating in the reduction of the two latter forts, the glory of which, however, was stained by the massacre of nearly 2,000 English prisoners by the Indian allies of the French. This monstrous deed raised the indignation of the English, and led to those mighty preparations which finally destroyed the power of France in America. Although the English lost heavily up to 1758, the fifth year of the war, still forts Frontenac and Duquesne surrendered to them. As a whole in military glory, the French were superior to them. Vaudreuil and Montcalm,
1759 being at variance, tended to disorganize their plans. In 1759, a mighty effort was made by England, which sent out 20 ships of the line, 10 frigates, 18 smaller vessels of war, and several transports with 18,000 men, under command of General Wolfe, Generals Moncton, Townsend and Murray, accompanying the expedition. General Amherst was appointed to take the land route from New York, and join Wolfe in the St. Lawrence. The English burnt a large part of Quebec, but were unable to destroy the fortifications. They demolished, however, nearly all the villages and settlements for upwards of 300 miles along the banks of the St. Lawrence, and erected batteries at Point Levi and other places near Quebec. Wolfe disembarked 900 troops, with a view of storming the works, but they were repulsed with the loss of 500 killed and wounded. General Murray landed 1,200 men, with a view of joining General Amherst near Lake Champlain, but was twice repulsed by Bourgainville, and returned without effecting the desired junction. The French destroyed their own forts at Carillon and Frederic, sunk their ships in the lakes, and retired to Niagara, where a British force of 6,000 strong arriving under Johnson, they capitulated. The English were now driving the French before them, and the Five Nations, who had been in alliance with the former, joined the British. At this juncture, on the 13th September, 1759, Wolfe made his attack on Quebec, by assailing it in the rear on the Plains of Abraham, and after an

obstinate fight, in which 1,500 French were killed, and 250 taken prisoner, while 50 British were killed, and 598 wounded, Wolfe and Montcalm both fell, and the garrison capitulated on the 18th September. *Thus Canada was permanently secured to England*, after having been in the possession of France, with one short exception, 225 years. General Murray succeeded to the command of the English forces, and General DeLevi to that of the French. The English fleet left for Europe, capturing at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, a French frigate, and 16 or 17 other vessels, the principal part of which had been taken from the English. During the winter, the French made several unsuccessful attacks on Quebec. In the spring following, DeLevi marched towards the city, for the purpose of regaining it, and a battle was fought on the 27th April, a second time on the Plains of Abraham, in which, after a furious contest, the English were beaten, and forced to retire within their fortifications. The French prepared for a siege, and both parties were so evenly balanced, that it was uncertain, without one party was reinforced, which, England or France, would hold Quebec, till on the 15th May, a fleet with troops on board, under Admiral Swanton, arrived just in time to save the city, and compelled De Levi to retire with precipitation to Montreal. The French nation was bankrupt, and the Canadians without sufficient food, money or war materials, were not in a position to prolong the war. Murray with 1,700 men invested Montreal, which capitulated on the 8th September, 1760. De 1760
Vaudreuil, the Governor and other officials, with about 3,000 of the French troops, embarked for France, while from 60,000 to 70,000 colonists remained in the country, taking the oath of allegiance to Britain, under the stipulation of the free exercise of the Catholic faith, and the preservation of the property belonging to the religious communities. A definite treaty of peace was signed at Paris, 10th May, 1763, by which France ceded to Britain all 1763
her North American possessions, except the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, which she still holds. The loss of Canada was viewed in France with indifference ; Voltaire gave his friends a banquet in commemoration of the event, and congratulated His Majesty, that since he got rid of the 1500 "arpents of snow," he had now a chance of sleeping in peace ; while Choiseul urged the signing of the French treaty, by saying to Louis XV that Canada would prove to the English "*un embarras.*" Thus the red cross of St. George came to wave over the battlements on which the lily-spangled banner of France had so long floated. The English continued the former territorial divisions of Canada, over each of which, three in number, a Governor was appointed. In consequence of some dissatisfaction among the French Canadians, the whole country was kept under martial law for four years; to this

the French objected as tyrannical, and many of them returned to France. All appointments to office were made from among the British residents, all the office holders were Protestants, a denomination which only numbered a population of about 500 souls, while the French Catholics numbered 70,000. These procedures tended to alienate the French people, and create a deep seated hatred in their minds against English rule. In 1763, Montreal suffered from a dreadful fire, when 108 houses were destroyed. In 1764, *The first newspaper was published in Quebec*, called the Quebec Gazette; it was printed half in English and half in French, and numbered at first only 150 subscribers. In 1767, Montreal again suffered from another disastrous fire, in which 90 houses, 2 churches, and a large charity school were destroyed. Trade with England was now encouraged, and the capabilities of the country were more extensively explored, and universal prosperity began to dawn on the colony. A severe shock had been sustained by the conduct of Intendant Bigot, the financier of the French king, who had issued a paper currrency, as payment for the expenses of the civil and military establishments, previous to the conquest, which passed freely. Suddenly, the French monarch refused to pay the bill of exchange passed by Bigot; an act which involved in ruin, not only all who possessed the bills, but all who possessed any paper money. This amounted to the sum of £4,000,000 sterling. The only compensation received for this, was four per cent on the original value. After the Pope's Bull of 1773, expelling the Jesuits from France and other countries, the English appropriated the Jesuit estates in Canada, to other uses. In 1774, the English law which had at first been introduced, was changed for the "Coutume de Paris," the ancient system to which the Canadians had been so long accustomed. The French language was also directed to be used in the law courts, and the Quebec Act was passed, which defined the boundaries of the Province, setting aside the provisions of the Royal proclamation of 1763, and appointing a governing council of not more than 23 nor less than 17 persons.

The momentous period when the English colonists of America threw off their allegiance to the Mother Country, rather than submit to the Stamp Act, was now at hand. The French Canadians though pressingly invited to assist, refused, beginning to realize the blessings they enjoyed under British Government. The Catholic Bishop of Canada addressed a cyclical letter to his people exhorting them to be true to British rule, and repel the invaders. The Quebec Act, giving great offence to the New Englanders, was made a pretext for their making an effort to obtain the keys of the Lakes and the St. Lawrence,—Montreal and Que-
1775 bec. In 1775 they entered Canada in two directions,—General

Montgomery having repulsed Carleton at Longueuil, took possession of Montreal on the 19th November, and Arnold arriving opposite to Quebec in November, laid siege to it, having been joined by Montgomery from Montreal. In the month of May 1776, reinforcements arrived from Britain, and the Canadians were enabled to drive the Americans from the Province. France in retaliation upon England for the loss of Canada, offered to assist the rebels, who had declared their independence 4th July; in consequence of this England acknowledged them as a power, September 3rd 1783. A large number of disaffected Canadians removed to the west of the Great Lakes, while on the other hand about 25,000 loyalists left the old Colonies, and settled in Canada and Acadia. In 1787, William IV, commanding the Pegasus, visited Canada, landing at Quebec on the 4th of August, and Montreal on the 18th September.

Until 1791, Canada was governed as one Province, under the 1791
name of Quebec, but Lord Dorchester having assumed the government, brought forward a plan of government better suited to existing circumstances, and intended to resemble the form of the British Constitution. By this act *the Colony was divided into the two Provinces* of Upper and Lower Canada, and a Legislature was established in each. In pursuance of this act the first Provincial Parliament of Lower Canada met at Quebec on the 17th of December, 1792, in which the French were largely in the majority. Foremost on the French side were M. Papineau and Bedard, men of uncommon oratorical powers. All the grievances of the French Canadians were brought freely before the people, and the British Parliament. In 1793 the French party insisted on the Jesuit estates being restored for educational purposes; this the Crown refused. The seignorial lands also gave rise to much angry discussion. In 1803 a decision of the Chief Justice at 1803
Montreal declared slavery inconsistent with the laws of the country, and several slaves received their freedom. In 1804 disputes arose between the Governor, who acted under Imperial instructions, and the House of Assembly. The two partisan papers *The Mercury* and *Le Canadien* added animation to the discussions. The people now demanded the independence of the judges who held seats in the Council; in 1810 the resolution of the House, expelling the Judges, the pledge of the House to pay the civil list, and the expulsion of Judge Sewell by vote led to the dissolution of Parliament. The Editors of the papers were imprisoned for treason, but subsequently released. The Catholic clergy and the mass of the people remained loyal, but the diversity of ideas, habits, and prejudices, prevented harmony between the two races. In 1812 the American Congress declared war against Great Bri- 1812
tain on the 18th June, and determined to invade Canada. The

French Canadians were determined to resist any encroachments upon their soil. The militia was embodied and the Canadian Parliament voted £60,000 in aid of the defences of the country. Government paper bearing interest was substituted for money to prevent the specie from going to the United States. The Canadians lost sight for a time of their own internal troubles, and put forth all their energies to repel the invaders. The Indians now a different race from those who figured in the early wars, came from their forest homes to arm in defence of the country. The same feeling was manifested in Upper Canada, the government of which was intrusted to General Brock. In July he captured the fort at Detroit, with General Hull, and about 2000 men who were sent prisoners to Montreal. In October the Americans under Van Renselaer landed a force on Queenston Heights, but were met by Brock when a battle ensued in which he fell valiantly fighting; but reinforcements arriving, the Americans were driven across the lines with the loss of 1000 men. In the early part of the winter, an attack was made on Ogdensburgh by Captain McDonnell, who crossed the St. Lawrence on the ice, drove out the garrison and obtained possession of 11 pieces of cannon, and a quantity of stores. The Canadian Assembly ordered the issue of £500,000 in army bills in aid of the defence of the colony. On the 27th April 1813, the Americans landed and took possession of York (Toronto,) then the capital of Upper Canada. Fort George also was attacked, and the English finding themselves too weak, blew up the fort and retired with a loss of 400 men to Queenston, blowing up several forts on the way to prevent their falling into the enemy's hands. On the 23rd June, two American armed vessels were captured at Isle aux Noix in Lake Champlain by the British, but on the 10th September Commodore Perry captured the whole British naval force on Lake Erie. The enemy now meditated a combined attack on Montreal. On the 21st October, General Hampton entered Lower Canada by way of Lake Champlain with an army of from 6000 to 7000 men. On the 26th he came to Colonel DeSalaberry's position on the Chateauguay River, where he met with a noble resistance from the small detachment that formed the advance of the British army. It was entirely composed of natives of Lower Canada, only numbering 400 men. In the meantime General Wilkinson with 9000 men descended the St. Lawrence, but a battle fought at Chrysler's farm in which 800 men under Colonel Morrison repulsed 3000 of the Americans under General Boyd, caused him to give up his intention of attacking Montreal. *Thus a few militia companies caused the retreat from Canada of* 15000 *men who had assembled for its conquest.* In the spring of 1814, the Americans, 3000 strong, entered Lower Canada and attacked Lacolle mill which was

defended by Major Hancock with 180 men who vigorously repulsed them, and drove them back to the United States. General Scott crossed the Lakes into Upper Canada and took Fort Erie by surprise in July. A series of battles ensued, those of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane being the most severe, both parties losing heavily, and in about equal numbers. Late in the season reinforcements from England arrived, and an attack was made on Plattsburgh with a force of 10,000 men in September, when victory declared itself for the Americans, and the British had to retreat to Canada with a loss of 235 men. In the same month reinforcements having been despatched to the Niagara frontier, the Americans retreated before the British and finally evacuated Canada.

In the meantime the cessation of hostilities in Europe enabled Britain to send ships and reinforcements. Washington was burnt, and other places destroyed. Peace however was happily proclaimed at Ghent in the Kingdom of the Low Countries, February 17th 1815. Sir John Sherbrooke was appointed Governor in 1816, 1815
and his administration gave general satisfaction. He was succeeded by the Duke of Richmond, who in 1819, died from hydrophobia induced by the bite of a tame fox. In 1825, Lord Dalhousie dissolved the House of Assembly, and when a new one was formed, refused to acknowledge Mr. Papineau as its president. The consequence was all operations in regard to the revenue of the Province were at an end, and no session was held in the winter of 1827. Public meetings were held, and numerous addresses were sent to Britain; delegates were also sent there asking for reform, and a "redress of grievances generally." In reply several enactments were made by His Majesty's ministers to secure to the French Canadians the peaceful enjoyment of their religion, laws and privileges. Sir James Kempt succeeded Lord Dalhousie, who formally accepted Mr. Papineau as speaker, and a satisfactory understanding was arrived at between the Legislature and Executive Government. The representation of Lower Canadians increased from 50 to 84 members. He was succeeded by Lord Aylmer, and in 1827, matters approached a crisis. The House passed bills which the Council refused to sanction. The Assembly impeached the Governor before the Parliament,—the Council passed counter addresses denouncing the sentiments of the House. In 1832 and 1834, the Province was visited by that 1832
malignant pestilence the Asiatic cholera, the mortality from which was so great that it was calculated that out of a population of only half a million, a greater number of persons were carried off in six months, than in Britain where the population was 16,000,000. During this year political excitement in Montreal ran so high, that during an election the military were called out and 3 persons

killed. The discontent and opposition of the leaders of Lower Canada to the British Government grew more intense. Royal Commissioners were appointed by Britain to investigate the state of matters in Canada, but they failed to remove the difficulties or
1837 reconcile parties. From 1832 to 1837, the Assembly refused to grant supplies; affairs were thus brought to a crisis; public meetings were held in every parish, at which inflammatory speeches were made, the tricolor flag, the emblem of revolution, was hoisted, the cap of liberty was raised, allegiance was discarded, and a determination evinced by the people to take the matter into their own hands. Matters now assumed a more grave character than even the leaders of the rebellion anticipated. The Catholic clergy remonstrated against the people being led to do acts of violence. The Governments of both Canadas armed all loyalists. Open rebellion ensued at several places, on the arrest of some of the leaders. At St. Denis the loyalists were repulsed; at St. Charles the insurgents were routed with 100 killed, 372 wounded, 30 taken prisoners, and every house burnt but one. In various other places numerous armed bands were routed, and on the 5th December the district of Montreal was placed under martial law. At St. Eustache on the 14th December upwards of 1000 insurgents were in arms, but were routed with the loss of about 250, many of whom were burnt or suffocated in the church in which they took refuge. Sixty houses were burnt at the same time. The next day the insurgents laid down their arms unconditionally, stating that their leaders had deserted them, and were dismissed to their homes and occupations. A part of Upper Canada was during this time disturbed by armed bands under Mackenzie, but they were soon scattered. Many of those in arms in both Provinces belonged to the United States; the government of that country however to prevent invasion, sent General Scott with a corps to enforce neutrality on the western side of the lines. Thus ended the rebellion of 1837, without the insurgents having gained a single point. In 1838 Lord Durham arrived. He dismissed the council, and formed a new one, composed of 13 members from each Province. Having however injudiciously banished to the Bermudas several individuals of distinction, who had been engaged in the insurrection, for which he was much blamed in England, he resigned his office, and was succeeded by Sir John Colborne. Another insurrection was unsuccessfully attempted in the fall of the year, and a smart engagement took place at Prescott, where a body of Americans had landed, known as the "Battle of the Windmill," where 18 of the British were killed, and 156 of the enemy taken prisoners. After a few slighter skirmishes, tranquillity ensued. The real foundation of all these troubles arose out of the two

conflicting nationalities, different in customs and language. The English were endeavouring to anglicize the French; the latter were always legislating with a view to the perpetuation of their language, customs, and laws of their fatherland.

As a remedy for these evils it was proposed to unite the two provinces. To this the western province agreed, while the Lower Province sent 40,000 signatures to the Imperial Parliament opposing it. The special council of the Lower Province however agreed to the Union, the Bill passed the British Parliament, and Sir Chas. Paulette Thompson was nominated to the Office of Governor General of the two Provinces in 1839, the Union coming into operation in 1840. 1840

Everything went on smoothly till the arrival of Lord Elgin in 1848, when changes in the policy of the Imperial Government with regard to free trade threw the mercantile affairs of the Province into great confusion, and wide-spread bankruptcy. During this state of depression the ministry introduced a bill for paying the losses sustained during the outbreaks of 1837-8. The measure was resisted with such animosity, that it led to the destruction of the Parliament House in Montreal, 1849. In consequence of this the Assembly voted an address, recommending the removal of the seat of Government from Montreal to be fixed for 4 years at Quebec, and 4 at Toronto alternately. Quiet was again resumed.

In 1851 Canada achieved a high position at the great International Exhibition in London, carrying off some of the highest prizes for grain. In the winter of 1852-3, contracts were entered into under Provincial guarantee for constructing the Grand Trunk Railway from Quebec and Portland to Detroit, including in its course the stupendous work across the St. Lawrence known as the Victoria Tubular Bridge. 1851

In 1856 in consequence of the great drain on British troops from the mutiny in India, Canada raised a splendid body of men called the 100th Regiment, and presented them to England. In 1858 by an imperial decree, *Ottawa was made the capital for both Provinces.* 1858

In 1860 in compliance with an address requesting the Queen to visit Canada, and inaugurate the stupendous Bridge over the St. Lawrence, Her Majesty sent the Prince of Wales as her representative who embarked from England on the 9th July. Landing at Gaspé on the 14th August; Quebec 18th; Three Rivers 23rd and Montreal 24th of the same month. After performing the ceremony of the last finishing stroke on the Victoria Bridge, he proceeded up the Ottawa, and thence to the West. His whole passage through Canada was a complete ovation. He afterwards passed into the neighbouring republic, which he traversed under the title of Baron Renfrew. In 1865 the seat of Government was 1865

finally removed to Ottawa. A conference had been held in Quebec in the year previous, with a view of uniting in a Confederate union the Provinces of British North America, to which scheme Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Upper and Lower Canada agreed. In 1866 delegates were sent to England to form a constitution, and in 1867 a Bill for the confederation of the Provinces was introduced into the Imperial Parliament, which received the Royal assent on the 28th March, the name chosen for the whole country being the DOMINION OF CANADA. The work of legislation being accomplished, Her Majesty was graciously pleased to issue her proclamation, declaring that the Dominion of Canada should commence existence on the 1st day
1867 of July 1867.

HISTORY OF ACADIA.

From the scanty records we possess, it is not easy to give a correct narrative of the events which transpired in ancient Acadia. Like Canada, it was first colonized by the French, but unlike Canada it frequently changed masters. At every turn in the eventful history of European movements, Acadia became either English or French. Its actual boundaries were continually a matter of dispute between England and France, the latter limiting Acadia to Nova Scotia, while the former claimed all the Lower Provinces, except Newfoundland, as being within its boundaries.

The first accounts of any part of Acadia have been alluded to in the history of Canada, where the brothers Cabot in 1498, dis- 1498
covered Newfoundland, and named it Baccalleos, the Basque idiom for cod-fish; in 1502, the Portuguese commenced fishing on its coasts, and in 1517 the French, Spanish and Portuguese, had so far made their discoveries in the new world useful, that they had established a successful fishery at Newfoundland, in which 57 vessels were engaged. In 1524, Verrazani explored the coast of North America, as far as Newfoundland. In 1534, Jacques Cartier arrived in the Bay of Chaleurs, and in 1540 the English first participated in the Newfoundland fishery. Although England claimed the island on the ground of having been its discoverer, she did not take formal possession till 1583, when Sir Humphrey 1583
Gilbert entered its harbour with four vessels, and raised his standard on its rocky shores in England's name. He found the principal harbours occupied by foreign merchantmen, who disputed his right to possession. He, however, convened the British merchants at the harbour of St. Johns, and read his commission, authorizing him to organize a government. Sir Humphrey was lost in a storm as he was on his return to England, and during the succeeding 40 years several attempts were made by the English to colonize Newfoundland with but little success. The French

men of war made it their rendez-vous to the annoyance of the
1603 English settlers. In 1603, France invested De Monts with vice-regal powers, and sent him to colonize Acadia, granting him a monopoly of the fur traffic in all parts of North America lying between Cape Race up to the 50th degree of latitude. He arrived with four ships at Rossignol (now Liverpool) so called from being the head quarters of a fur trader of that name, whose goods De Monts confiscated, and after examining the country he traversed the Bay of Fundy, which he named "La Baie Française." Champlain, his Lieutenant, discovered the St. Croix river, and the St. John—the Ougundy of the Indians. After traversing the coast line of the Bay of Fundy, De Monts sent a part of his fleet under the command of Champlain to the St. Lawrence, while he himself continued to explore the countries bordering the Bay. Remaining over winter on an island at the mouth of the St. Croix, where thirty-six of his men died from scurvy, he removed to Port Royal (now Annapolis), where he left part of his men to found a settlement, and returned to Europe for supplies. The settlers under Pontvincourt and Lescarbot, the latter a man of a philosophical turn of mind, made considerable progress, and erected a grist mill, the first built in the Lower Provinces. In 1605, De Monts' commission having been revoked in consequence of complaints made against him by persons concerned in the fisheries, he returned to France, and the colonists at Port Royal were in consequence left in a destitute state. Pontvincourt returned to France, and again embarked for Port Royal with more emigrants and supplies. Settlements were also made at LaHave and other places. In 1610, a Bristol merchant named Guy, founded a colony in Newfoundland, at Conception Bay. In 1615, the British Admiralty sent out Capt. Whitbourne to establish order and introduce some of the forms of English law; a few years later Lord Baltimore founded a settlement on the south-east side of the island.

England having claimed Acadia on the ground of discovery, sent a fleet to destroy the French settlements. The colonists were driven to great extremities, some returning to France, some finding their way to Canada, and others taking refuge with the Indians. After destroying the settlements England abandoned
1620 the country. In 1620, Pontvincourt arrived again from France with a number of skilled artisans. The colonists of Virginia now claimed the country by right of original discovery. Capt. Argall of that colony appeared suddenly before St. Sauveur, and carried the place by storm. The Government of Virginia then resolved to expel the French from every point South of the 45th parallel of North Latitude, including the central region of Acadia, and Argall was commissioned to put the resolution in force. Port Royal was destroyed, and Pontvincourt returned to France. The

Virginians then abandoned Acadia, and it was not till 1621 that England began to colonize it. In that year all Acadia was granted to Sir Wm. Alexander, who *first named it Nova Scotia*, or New Scotland. In the year previous Mr. Richard was nominated British Governor of Newfoundland and Acadia. In 1623, Sir Wm. Alexander (afterwards Earl Stirling) attempted to carry out a more enlarged system of colonization in the latter; but finding the French in possession, he left the country and returned to Britain. The English, however, built several forts and formed some settlements on the Island of Cape Breton. The French in turn destroyed the English settlements. We next read of Sir Wm. Alexander selling a part of his possessions on the River St. John, to Claud de la Tour, who while in the service of France was made a prisoner by the English. He afterwards joined the English navy, married one of the Queen's maids of honour, and was created a baronet of Nova Scotia. Embarking for Acadia, he found his son who was in the service of France in command of a fort, which he refused to abandon; his father rashly attempted its assault, but after two days, he was repulsed by his son and finally abandoned the place. In 1626, the French formed a settlement at Placentia Bay in Newfoundland.

By the treaty of St. Germain in 1632, England ceded Acadia to 1632
France, who divided it into three parts, placing a governor over each. Latour the younger was appointed as governor over one of them, and received a grant of all the lands which his father had obtained from Sir William Alexander. Disputes, however, arose between the governors, with respect to the boundaries of their territories, and the fur trade, which ultimately resulted in intestine wars. The French routed the English from their fort at Pemaquid; Charnisey, one of the governors of Acadia, attacked Latour at St. John, but the latter receiving aid from Massachusetts, strengthened his fort, and drove Charnisey from his borders. Here occurred an episode in the history of Acadia worthy of record. During La Tour's absence, Charnisey attempted to take his fort by surprise, but Madame La Tour, acting a heroic part, defended it so well that the besiegers had to retire with the loss of 35 of their number. This occurred again twice; but a traitor in the garrison having shown Charnisey an unguarded passage he entered the fort and compelled the heroine, with a halter round her neck, to witness the execution of all her soldiers. She shortly afterwards died of a decline. In 1633, the English formed a government in Newfoundland under Lord Falkland, and in 1634, the French commenced to pay a tribute to England of 5 per cent of the produce rather than relinquish the fisheries. In 1654, another settlement was made in that island by Sir David Kerkt, and as many as fifteen different settlements containing about 400 families now

existed there. England in this year retook all the forts, and destroyed the principal settlements in Acadia. For some time after it remained in an unappropriated state. Between war, national indifference, and individual greediness, Acadia made but slow progress.

1656 In 1656 Cromwell granted a large part of it, to Sir Thomas Temple, William Crown, and La Tour, conjointly and severally, who carried on an extensive trade in fish and fur. In 1660 the island of St. Jean (now Prince Edward Island) was granted by the French to Captain Sueve Doublet, who held it for 40 years.

1667 By the treaty of Breda in 1667 Acadia was again restored to France, but little was done in the way of colonization or reconstructing its forts. The country was left to the ravages of pirates. In 1685 its population was only about 900. In 1690 Sir William Phipps with a 40 gun frigate and two armed corvettes took Port Royal and other forts, and then returned to England, taking with him Manneval the French governor. Shortly after, two piratical ships arrived on the coast, burnt the forts, and killed many of the inhabitants. In 1692 Plaisance, the chief French factory in Newfoundland, was attacked and partially destroyed by an English squadron under Admiral Williams. By the treaty of Ryswick,

1696 1696, Acadia was again ceded to France, whence another governor M. de Villebon was sent out. In this year the town of St. John and all the other settlements in Newfoundland with the exception of Bonavista and Carbonnière were destroyed by a French fleet. In 1701, bitter feeling having been engendered between the Anglo-Americans and French colonists by the barbarities of the Indian allies of the latter, hostilities commenced, the New England States sending a large armament, and a land force of 550 men under Colonel Church to subdue the Acadians. This force was repulsed at Port Royal, Beaubasin and other places, and after destroying a few of the minor places, the expedition returned to Boston. France now appointed a governor and organized a government at Plaisance in Newfoundland. In 1704, the French Governor M. de Subercase took all the forts except Carbonnière. In 1707 another expedition with 2,000 men appeared before Port Royal. The besiegers attempted to assault the place, but were obliged to re-embark in great haste and with considerable loss. The English then sent a squadron under Sir John Leake to Newfoundland, who dispersed the French and took 29

1710 of their vessels as prizes. In 1710 another expedition of 50 vessels with 3,500 men from New England invested Port Royal; the governor Subercase sustained a bombardment for twenty days, when he capitulated. The garrison, 155 soldiers, were allowed to march out with all the honors of war. The name of the place was now changed to Annapolis. A garrison of 450 was left in

possession. The position of the Acadians who were strongly attached to France, the land of their fathers, was truly lamentable; the country continually passed from one power to the other, each in turn claiming allegiance, and on failing to comply, they were made liable to all the wonted penalties of rebellion. Finally by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, Acadia along with Newfoundland 1713
was restored to England, *which thus obtained the principal keys to Canada.* After the capitulation of Port Royal, General Nicholson was appointed Governor of Nova Scotia. France now began to fortify Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, which they renamed, calling it L'isle Royale, naming the settlement in honour of the French king. Hither many of the French repaired from Nova Scotia. In 1719 a company was formed for the purpose of clearing the interior of Prince Edward Island, and establishing fisheries on the coast, but in consequence of misunderstandings between the partners, the project fell to the ground. In 1720 the fortifications of Louisburg were completed at a cost of £1,500,000 stg. The town was about one mile long with a population of 4,000, and sent annually about 25 vessels laden with *fish, lumber and coal to the West Indies.* In this year the Indians who had been stimulated to acts of cruelty by the French, plundered some mercantile establishments at Canso, and in 1723 captured 17 vessels, taking a number of prisoners whom they treated with great barbarity. In retaliation the English destroyed the chief Indian fort, at Kennebec, putting to death a large number of the savages. The straits of Canso were called by the French " Passage de Fronsac." War was again declared by France against England. The French fleet at Louisburg captured several English vessels, and the Governor M. Duquesnel destroyed the English forts and settlements at Canso. In 1728 the English reorganized a government in Newfoundland, appointing Captain Osborne governor, courts were established, and efforts were made to conciliate the savages who had hitherto harassed the settlers. In
1745 the New England colonies sent 4,000 militiamen under 1745
Col. Pepperel against Acadia; Admiral Warren also arrived from England with a few ships of war, who captured a French ship of 64 guns, having on board 560 soldiers and a large quantity of supplies. After having been five times repulsed with a loss of 189 men Louisburg was compelled to surrender. In order to retrieve these losses and save Canada which was now threatened, France fitted out a powerful naval force with 3,000 troops under D'Anville, but when on its way near the coast of France a tempest arose which scattered the vessels insomuch, that only a small number arrived on the coast of Acadia, and those so disabled that they returned to France without firing a shot. To aid this fleet 600 Canadians had been sent from Quebec; 400 of them were

sent to destroy Port Royal, but after a slight skirmish they abandoned the enterprise and retired to Beaubasin. France despatched another fleet of 38 sail, which on its passage was met by an English fleet, and in a hotly contested engagement defeated with great loss.

1748 In 1748 peace was again proclaimed and by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, Cape Breton again restored to France. The French under De la Corne erected a fort at Beaubasin (now Cumberland,) and another at Bay Verte afterwards called Moncton. Many of the French from Nova Scotia entered these forts in consequence of their disaffection for the English, who threatened to dispatriate them for disloyalty. In 1749, there arrived at Chebucto, which now changed its name in honour of its patron, to Halifax, 3670 colonists. The Government of Acadia was vested in the Honorable Edward Cornwallis. Troubles again arose with regard to its boundaries, the French contending that it was bounded by the isthmus ; they established forts in New Brunswick, and after a short siege two of them capitulated. The French then left Nova Scotia in large numbers for the Bay of Chaleurs. On the 10th of

1755 September 1755 the Acadians were all summoned to their respective villages to hear the king's proclamation regarding their expatriation, and the confiscation of their property by the English. They were sent in vessels to other countries, the principal part of them being scattered along the coast between Boston and Carolina. However justifiable this act may have appeared to its perpetrators of a century ago, to us of the present age it seems harsh and cruel in the extreme. After this, war was again declared between England and France. The latter had fortified Louisburg which in 1756 had 1,100 troops within its walls. The English captured a French frigate with 600 troops on board, and Lord Lowden arrived off Louisburg with 90 vessels and 6,000 men in June, 1757 ; this force was joined by Admiral Holbourn's fleet with 5,000 British soldiers. In the meantime a French fleet of 17 ships of the line and 3 frigates arrived at Louisburg under Admiral de la Motte. The English finding the fort strongly garrisoned, retired, but receiving additional forces again appeared before Louisburg ; a violent storm however arose which dismasted 11 of their vessels, drove one ashore, and disabled the rest. Thus ended two formidable attempts to destroy Louisburg.

On the 2nd June, 1758, Admiral Boscawen appeared before the fort with 24 ships of the line, 18 frigates and a number of transports, having on board a large siege train and 14,000 troops under General Amherst. The French ignorant of the power England was putting forth, had withdrawn part of their forces to reinforce Canada. The chief strength of the place lay in the difficulty of the enemy's disembarking to attack it, and in the facility with

which the entrance to the harbour could be barred. The French force including sailors was about 7,000; the English at least three times that number. The latter attempted a landing in three divisions, one under general Wolfe, the others under Lawrence and Whitmore. After much trouble and loss of life Wolfe at the head of 3,000 men got possession of some of the fortifications. Some heights were gained whence the English artillery played upon the town with great effect, the fleet assisting with their guns. A French 74 gun ship was fired by an English shell, and two others consumed near it, two more being captured. The defence of the place was spirited, but finding the odds so heavily against them, with the garrison reduced to less than 1,000 men, the French capitulated July 2nd. The English demolished the stronghold to prevent it again falling into the enemy's hands, and thus this fort which had withstood several sieges, was blotted out. In 1761 a treaty of peace was concluded with the Indians, and instead of Louis of France, George III of England was acknowledged as the great father of the tribe. In 1762 a French fleet 1762
arrived off Newfoundland, and took possession of St. Johns and other places, but were shortly after dispossessed by Lord Colville. Quebec had now fallen, and in 1763, by the treaty of Paris, Canada and the Lower Provinces, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Cape Breton and Prince Edward Island, were placed under one government. The coast of Labrador was annexed to Newfoundland. This island had suffered much during the continued outbreaks. Its population was now about 13,000. Captain Cooke had during the last few years been making surveys of the coast upon which the present maps are founded. In 1770 Prince Edward Island obtained a separate government. During the hostilities between the Mother Country and the old colonies Acadia again became the scene of conflict. The mass of the people remained loyal, though the rebels induced some of the Indians to join them, who burnt several forts and destroyed some of the settlements. In 1779 the savages assembled in large 1779
numbers on the River St. John with a view of murdering the inhabitants, but were conciliated by presents. A similar attempt on the Miramichi was frustrated by the opportune arrival of a sloop of war. *These were the last attempts at an Indian outbreak.* In 1783,—the termination of the war,—the population of Nova Scotia was about 14,000, being 5,000 less than it was before the deportation of the Acadians, *which act was now seriously regretted.* About 20,000 loyalists came from the old colonies and settled. At the close of the American war, the French and Americans were admitted to a participation in the fisheries of Newfoundland. France was allowed the privilege of fishing and drying fish on the shore from Cape St. John along the western coast to Cape Ray;

the Americans retained the right of fishing, but the process of drying and curing had to be carried on in the unsettled creeks and harbours of Nova Scotia, Magdalen islands and Labrador.

1784 Nova Scotia was divided in 1784, and New Brunswick and Cape Breton were each erected into a separate Province, and from this period the events of each form a separate division.

NOVA SCOTIA.

In 1785 a monthly line of packets was established between England and Halifax. In 1787 Nova Scotia was erected into an Episcopal diocese. In 1788 the House of Assembly impeached the Judges of the Supreme Court for improper administration of justice. In this year the Duke of Kent, father of Queen Victoria, made Halifax his residence for several years. This event with that of the protracted war with France which broke out in 1793, and the American war of 1812, when Halifax became the rendezvous of English fleet, gave to the city a naval appearance, and materially aided its progress. In 1802 a Royal charter was granted to Kings College, Windsor. During the American war of 1812, Nova Scotia organized her militia and appropriated a large part of her revenue to assist in defending the country. In 1819 Cape Breton was reannexed to this Province. In 1828 a large part of the coal mines of the Province were granted to the Duke of York by Royal Charter for 60 years. In 1839 angry discussions arose in the legislature as to the constitution of the Executive Council, which resulted in the establishment of responsible government in 1848. In 1866 she accepted the terms of Confederation and was admitted under the Union Act into the Dominion of Canada, 1st July, 1867.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

In 1784 the present limits of New Brunswick were divided from Nova Scotia and erected into a separate Province by a special constitutional charter, the administration over which was confined to Colonel Carleton. In 1785 the first general election took place, and in January 1786 the first legislative assembly was held at St. John. Fredericton formerly called St. Anne's was constituted its political capital. In 1803 Governor Carleton was removed to England having governed the Province for nearly 20 years, during which period it increased rapidly in population and importance. In 1825 a great fire originated near Miramichi, and spread over one third of the Province, resulting in the loss of many lives and great destruction of property, valued at £204,323. The legislature of Lower Canada voted £2,500 for the relief of the sufferers, and contributions to the extent of £35,383 were received from Great

Britain, United States and neighboring colonies. In 1839 disputes arose between New Brunswick and the State of Maine as to their common boundary, when the latter made preparations to invade the Province. New Brunswick appropriated its whole revenue, and Nova Scotia £100,000 and 8,000 men in defence of the Province. Through the exertions of Sir John Harvey, Governor of New Brunswick, actual hostilities were avoided. The boundary matter was finally adjusted in 1842. In 1866 this Province was admitted into the Union under the Confederation Act, and became part of the Dominion of Canada, 1st July, 1867.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

In 1764 the British Government ordered a survey of the island, dividing it into 67 townships, or lots of 20,000 acres each, except lot 66 containing 6,000 acres which was reserved for the Crown. All the others were granted to about 100 individuals, officers of the army and navy, members of Parliament, merchants, &c., who had any claim upon the Crown. A town lot and royalty were reserved in each county; each township was to furnish a glebe lot of 100 acres for a clergyman, and 30 acres for a schoolmaster. The grantees were to settle on each lot a resident for every 200 acres, from the date of grant. This allotment has been productive of serious evils to the colony. An absentee ownership was thus established, the conditions of residence have been fulfilled in very few instances and the whole system has produced many evils. In 1773 the first House of Assembly met, consisting of 18 members. 1773
At the beginning of the present century the name of the Island was changed to Prince Edward instead of the Island of St. Jean, in honour of the Duke of Kent. In 1803 about 800 emigrants arrived from Scotland. In 1839 the Executive and Legislative Councils were separated. In 1851 responsible government was granted on condition that the colony would pay the salaries of its public officers. In 1866 the Legislature of Prince Edward Island repudiated the action of its delegates at the Quebec conference on the subject of Confederation, and determined on keeping aloof from the scheme. Hon. Colonel Gray, the late Premier of the island, resigned his position in the Cabinet, on account of this opposition.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

In 1796 a French fleet of nine sail of the line, and some frigates, destroyed the town at the Bay of Bulls. In 1808 Labrador, which had been annexed to Canada was reannexed to Newfoundland, and in 1811 courts were held there. In 1816 a large part of St. Johns was destroyed by fire. In 1817, 200 houses were burned,

and in 1832, 97 buildings were consumed. These conflagrations caused much suffering. In 1846, it again suffered severely, St.
1854 Johns being almost totally destroyed. In 1854 a charter was granted by the colonial government to the "New York, Newfoundland and London Telegraph Co.," for the purpose of establishing telegraphic communication between Europe and America. The land wires were subsequently completed between St. Johns and the cable terminus, and the Atlantic Telegraph Co. was established in 1856 to extend the existing line to Europe. This was accomplished in 1866, the actual length of the cable being 1866 miles. The House of Assembly abstained from pronouncing any decision on the proposal for a Union of the Colonies under Confederation, in the same year.

SIEGES AND BATTLE-FIELDS.

SIEGES AND BATTLE-FIELDS.

Sieges of Quebec	1629	
" "	1690	
" "	1759	*
" "	1760	*
" "	1775	
Sieges of Louisburg	1745	
" "	1757	
" "	1758	
Battle of Queenston	1812	
" Beech Woods	1813	
" Lake Erie	1813	
" Chateauguay	1813	
" Chippawa	1814	
" Lundy's Lane	1814	
" Lake Champlain	1814	
Siege of Fort Erie	1814	
Capture of Fort Niagara	1814	

* Including the Battles of the Plains of Abraham and St. Foye.

SIEGES OF QUEBEC.

Quebec has been five times assaulted. First in 1629 when in the infancy of the colony, it fell into the hands of the English. Secondly in 1690, when it successfully resisted the attack of Sir Wm. Phipps. Thirdly in 1759, when after the battle of the Plains of Abraham it was once more won for England by Wolfe. Fourthly in 1760, when it was unsuccessfully beseiged by De Levi. And lastly in 1775, when after it had sustained an unsuccessful siege and blockade of 6 months, Gen. Arnold was obliged to abandon his camp in despair.

Siege of 1629. After the declaration of war between England and France in 1628, Charles I gave to Sir David Kerkt, a French refugee, a commission to conquer Canada. In July of that year, Kerkt having previously taken Tadousac, sent his two brothers with a fleet which appeared unexpectedly before Quebec and demanded its surrender, but receiving a spirited refusal from Champlain, they did not attack the town, but contented themselves with cutting off its supplies. From the difficulty experienced even at the present day, of conveying intelligence between Quebec and the lower parts of the River, the fleet literally brought the first intelligence of its own approach. At last, reduced to five oz. of bread per day for each man, and seeing no prospect of aid from Europe, Champlain capitulated. Sir David Kerkt then took possession in the name of the British Crown and installed himself as Governor, July 29, 1629.

1690. During the revolution in England which drove James II. from the throne, the French having espoused the Stuart cause, hostilities began between the colonists of the two nations. In 1690, at an expense of £15,000 a twofold expedition by land and by water, was undertaken by the English Colonists. The fleet destined to attack Quebec, sailed from Boston under the command of Sir Wm. Phipps, an American by birth, and reached Tadousac before De Frontenac was aware of their approach. On the 16th

October, the fleet appeared below Quebec, and Phipps in the name of William and Mary summoned the garrison to surrender. The young officer by whom this summons was conveyed on shore, was received by De Frontenac and his full staff in the castle of St. Louis, and received from the Governor a most spirited refusal, with a declaration that they acknowledged no king of England save James II. The envoy asked for an answer in writing to which De Frontenac replied; "I am going to answer your master by the cannons mouth." No sooner had he returned to Phipps' vessel, than the fort opened fire on the fleet. A sharp action followed, in which the flag was shot away from Phipps' ship, and fell a prize to the Canadians, a party of whom, regardless of the fire from the ships, swam out into the river and rescued it from the stream. This flag hung for years in the church of the Recollets, till the building was destroyed by fire during the siege of 1760.

On the 18th 1500 English troops landed near the River St. Charles, but not without sustaining great loss from the constant fire kept up by the French from amongst the rocks and bushes. Four of the largest vessels were anchored opposite the town, which bombarded the city more to the alarm than injury of the inhabitants, but the fire from the batteries was directed with such effect as to compel them to move up the river beyond Cape Diamond. A sharp skirmish took place on the 19th and on the 20th an action was fought, in which the French made a gallant stand, and compelled the English to retreat to Beauport, leaving their cannons and ammunition. Finding themselves completely worsted, they two days afterwards reembarked and returned to Boston. To add to their mishap they lost, through ignorance of the channel, eight vessels in descending the river. To celebrate this victory a medal was struck in France.

1759. In this year was opened the memorable campaign which ended in the surrender of Canada to Britain. The daring and chivalric Marquis de Montcalm being in command of the French troops, and General Wolfe in command of the English. Wolfe first attempted a landing at Montmorency, where some French troops lay intrenched. Here he suffered so sharp a repulse that he despatched word to England, that he despaired of reducing Quebec that season. Afterwards he made the bold attempt to land just above the town. In this he fully succeeded, landed and scaled the heights on the night of September 12th, and on the morning of the 13th was fought the battle of the Plains, which decided the fate of Canada, and terminated the lives of both Montcalm and Wolfe. On the 18th. the city capitulated and General Murray assumed the command.

1760. In April of this year General Levis who succeeded Montcalm, marched against Quebec, and after a furious contest of

two hours, defeated General Murray, close to the city, who overpowered by numbers was obliged to return to the city with the loss of 1000 men, and laid siege to it, but succor arriving to the British in the shape of troops under Admiral Swanton, his efforts proved abortive, and he was compelled to retire with precipitation to Montreal.

1775. The invasion of Canada by the troops of the American Congress, during the war of independence rendered this year remarkable in the annals of the Province. Quebec was again a point of contest between the contending parties, being attacked by the Federal forces under Generals Arnold and Montgomery. Their plan though bravely carried out, was rashly designed, and resulted in the defeat of the Americans and the death of Montgomery.

THE SIEGE OF 1629.

In the year 1628, Sir David Kertk, accompanied by Wm. de Caen, a traitor to his country, penetrated as far as Tadousac with a powerful squadron, and thence summoned the Governor of Quebec to an immediate surrender, admonishing him that as famine reigned in Quebec, and no supplies could reach by sea, the entry to the St. Lawrence being blockaded by the English fleet, it would be impossible for him to hold out any longer. Champlain who had founded the colony, had at that time the command of Quebec. Relying perhaps as much on a bold front as on the strength of the defences or the prowess of the garrison, he saved the settlement from Kertk's irresistible force by the spirited reply of himself and his companions. In order to disguise the nakedness of the land, he ostentatiously feasted those whom Kertk had sent to deliver his missive, although the inhabitants then had no resources whatever, and lived upon seven ounces of bread daily, served out from the Government stores. When the messengers returned to Kertk with these tidings, that officer mistrusting the reports he had previously heard of the state of Quebec, returned to the Gulf. Here meeting with vessels under Roquemont, laden with provisions for the relief of Quebec, he chased and easily captured them. This increased the sufferings of the garrison during the ensuing winter, the returns of the small patches of land under tillage having proved very scanty. Had Kerkt acted at once after destroying Roquemont's fleet, he might have obtained his object, for at that time there were not more than 50lbs. of powder in the garrison. It is recorded that so great was the privation of the inhabitants of Quebec during the winter, no sooner had the snow disappeared from the ground, than numbers of those whom want had not quite prostrated, went forth to

the contiguous wilderness to search for roots to keep life in their bodies. In the midst of this distress, Champlain set an example of patience, assuring his people, that doubtless supplies would soon arrive from France. Spring however came and went, and the first months of summer were being entered upon without relief. Every wood for leagues round the city having been ransacked for petty edibles, the sufferers had become utterly despondent, when all were roused into glad expectation on hearing that three inward bound vessels were near and had been signalled. Their joy however was short lived. They proved to be English ships of war commanded by Lewis and Thomas Kerkt, sent on by the Admiral their brother, who had remained at Tadousac.

They sent under the protection of a white flag the following summons :—

"July 19th 1629.

" Sir,—Our brother having last year informed you that sooner or later he would take Quebec, he desires us to offer you his friendship and respects, as we also do on our part ; and knowing the wretched state of your garrison, we order you to surrender the fort and settlement of Quebec into our hands, offering you terms that you will consider reasonable, and which shall be granted on your surrender."

To this Champlain replied as follows :

" Gentlemen,—It is true that owing to the want of succour and assistance from France, our distress is very great, and that we are incapable of resistance ; I therefore desire that you will not fire on the town, nor land your troops until the articles of capitulation can be drawn up."

Articles of Capitulation proposed by Champlain.

" That Messieurs Kertk shall produce the King of England's Commission, by virtue of which they summon the place to surrender, as an evidence that war had been declared between France and England.

" That they should also produce authority by which they were empowered by their brother David Kerkt, admiral of the fleet ;

" That a vessel should be furnished for transporting to France all the French, without excepting two Indian women ;

" That the soldiers should march out with their arms and baggage ;

" That the vessel to be provided to carry the garrison to France shall be well victualled, to be paid for in peltries ;

" That no violence or insult shall be offered to any person ;

" That the vessel to be provided shall be ready for departure three days after their arrival at Tadousac, and that they shall be transported."

ANSWER OF THE KERKTS.

" That they had not the commission from the King of England, but that their brother had it at Tadousac; that they were empowered by their brother to treat with Champlain;

" That a vessel would be provided, and if not sufficiently large, they would be put on board the ships of the French fleet, and from thence sent to France;

" That the Indian women could not be given up, for reasons to be explained when they met;

" That the officers and soldiers should march out with their arms, baggage and other effects."

From the terms of capitulation proposed by Champlain, we may judge that France had, at that time, possessed very little permanent footing in the Country, and by stipulating for the removal of "*all* the French," he seems to have considered the province was virtually lost to France, and the fact of a single vessel only being asked for to transport them, reduces the number to a small compass, With Quebec, fell of course, the whole of Canada into the power of England.

SIEGE OF 1690.

Canada again in 1632 being restored to France, a dubious tranquillity existed till 1690, when Quebec, for the second time, under command of the gallant Count de Frontenac, made a vigorous and honorable defence against the forces of Sir Wm. Phipps, Governor of Massachusetts.

For some years previously, the French had vigorously availed themselves of their geographical position, to harass the colonies in New England and New York. Their possession of Acadia enabled France to command and cripple the commerce and fisheries of the Eastern colonies, which roused to a sense of their dangers, made great exertions to deliver themselves from their restless neighbours.—Having, in 1690, taken Port Royal in Acadia, they attempted the capture of Quebec, the centre of the French power in America. The immediate cause of this attempt was the invasion of New York by marauding parties who laid waste the country with fire and sword, and murdered in cold blood, the unresisting inhabitants of Schenectady. Provoked with these savage attacks, and with the terrors of further cruelties and encroachments, the English Colonists of America, resolved to carry the war into

Canada. Having requested in vain, from the Mother Country, a supply of ships and ammunition, they resolved to bear the burden of the invasion, and free themselves, if possible, from further dangers. By means of commissioners assembled at New York, they despatched a force by land, under General Winthrop, which was completely unsuccessful, and a naval squadron under the command of Governor Phipps, which appeared before Quebec, on the 16th October. Frontenac who had led the troops to repel the land attack, having ordered the Governors of Montreal and Three Rivers to follow him with all their disposable forces of regulars and militia, hastened to strengthen the defences of the city, consisting of rude embankments of timber and earth a few days before the arrival of the hostile squadron, and seems to have infused into his soldiers, his own heroic confidence of success. On the arrival of the fleet at Beauport, Sir Wm. Phipps concluded to send a summons on shore, of which, the following copy shows his haughty style :

"To Count de Frontenac, Lieut. General and Governor for the French King at Canada, or in his absence, to his deputy, or him or them in chief command.

"The war between the two crowns of England and France, does not only sufficiently warrant, but the destruction made by the French and Indians, under your command and encouragement, upon the persons and estates of their Majesties' subjects of New England, without provocation on their part, hath put them under the necessity of this expedition for their security and satisfaction, and although the cruelties and barbarities used against them by the French and Indians, might upon the present occasions, prompt to a severe revenge, yet being desirous to avoid all inhumanity and unchristian-like actions, and to prevent the shedding of blood as much as may be, I, Wm. Phipps, Knight, do hereby and in the name and in behalf of their most excellent Majesties, William and Mary, King and Queen of England, Scotland, France and Ireland, defenders of the Faith, and by order of their Majesties' said Government of the Massachusetts colony, in New England, demand a surrender of your forts and castles, and the things and other stores, unembezzled, with a seasonable delivery of all captives, together with a surrender of all your persons and estates to my disposal.

"Upon the doing whereof, you may expect mercy from me, as a christian, according to what shall be found for their Majesties' service and the subjects security, and am resolved by the help of God, in whom I trust, by force of arms, to revenge all wrongs and injuries offered, and bring you under subjection to the Crown of England; and when too late, make you wish you had accepted the favour tendered.

"Your answer positive in an hour—returned with your own trumpet, with the return of mine, is required—upon the peril that will ensue."

Frontenac was a man of great pride, who resided in the castle of St. Louis, amidst all the splendour with which he could possibly surround himself. Being resolved to astonish the English officer who was sent on shore with the summons under flag of truce, he caused him to be met by a French Major, who placed a bandage over his eyes, and conducted him by a very circuitous route to the castle. Every delusion was practised to make him believe that he was in the midst of a numerous garrison. On arriving at the castle the bandage was removed and he found himself in the presence of the Governor General, the Intendant, the Bishop and a large staff of French officers in full uniform, who were clustered together in the middle of the hall. With the greatest self-possession the young officer presented the summons to surrender, to which Frontenac gave the well-known haughty reply, on being asked for an answer in writing—"I am going to answer your master by cannons mouth; he shall be taught this is not the manner in which a person of my rank ought to be summoned." The bandage being replaced the officer was conducted with the same mysteries to his boat, and was no sooner on board the Admiral's vessel than the batteries began to play upon the fleet. During the engagement that ensued two captains, Paul Le Moyne de Maricourt, and De Lorimier, took charge of the batteries and pointed the cannon so accurately as hardly ever to miss. It was the former of these who shot down the flag of the admiral, which as soon as it fell was picked up by some of the forces who, one tradition affirms swam out, and another says went out in a canoe to pick it up, and "brought it ashore under the very beard of the English." This flag which was afterwards suspended to the ceiling of Quebec Cathedral as a trophy, remained there till that edifice was consumed in the siege of 1759.

On the 18th Phipps attempted to capture Quebec on the land side, by an attack on the River St. Charles, in which he sustained great loss from the constant fire kept up by the French from amongst the rocks and bushes. Four of his largest vessels then anchored opposite the town and commenced a furious bombardment, but the fire from the batteries was directed with such effect as to compel them to move up the river beyond Cape Diamond. A sharp skirmish took place on the 19th, and on the 20th an action was fought in which the French made a gallant stand and compelled the English to retreat to Beauport, leaving their cannon and ammunition behind. The following extract is from the journal of one of the besieged: "The danger was so evident that the bravest officers regarded the capture of Quebec as inevitable.

In spite of all our fears we prepared different places for the reception of the wounded, because the combat had commenced with an air to make us believe our hospital would not be capable of containing those who might have need of our assistance; but God spared the blood of the French,—there were few killed and fewer wounded. Quebec was badly fortified for a siege; it contained very few arms, and no provisions, and the troops that had come from Montreal had consumed the little food that there was in the city. The nuns restricted themselves to a daily morsel of bread, and the loaves which they furnished to the soldiers were impatiently devoured in the shape of dough—terror and distress reigned in the city, for everything diminished excepting hunger. The fruits and vegetables of our gardens were pillaged by the soldiers, they warmed themselves at our expense and burned our wood. Everything appeared sweet to us, provided we could be preserved from falling into the hands of those whom we considered as the enemies of God, as well as of ourselves."

On the 22nd, perceiving the impractibility of attacking a city almost impregnable by nature, and swarming with zealous defenders, the expedition re-embarked and returned to Boston. All the English narratives of the siege ascribed the defeat to Sir William's procrastinating disposition, but Charlevoix asserts he was delayed by head winds and bad pilots. Had the English forces arrived three days sooner, they could not have failed to achieve an easy and almost bloodless conquest; but during that period, time for defence was afforded, and M. de Calliere, Governor of Montreal, reinforced the garrison with his men, rendering the besieged numerically superior to the besiegers. But even in this apparently untoward circumstance Phipps might have discerned the gleams of certain victory, for the increased consumption of supplies, originally scanty, would soon have enlisted on his side the powerful aid of famine. To add to his misfortune, seven or eight of his vessels were lost in the Gulf through the ignorance of the pilot in this retreat.

SIEGE OF 1759.

France having engaged in war with England in 1754, being now fully aware of the importance of Canada, sent out a chosen body of troops under the command of the gallant and experienced Montcalm, who obtained a series of successes over the British, culminating in the massacre of nearly 2000 English prisoners by the Indian allies of the French. This completely roused the indignation of the English, and led to those mighty preparations which finally overthrew the power of France in America. In 1759 the invasion of Canada by sea and land was decided on by

the British, the force destined to proceed by sea to Quebec being under the command of General Wolfe, and that by land under General Amherst, who proceeding by way of Lake Champlain and the Richelieu, was to reach the St. Lawrence and join the other army before Quebec. Wolfe's army amounting to about 8000 men, was conveyed to the vicinity of Quebec by a fleet of vessels of war and transports, under the command of Admiral Saunders, and landed in two divisions on the Island of Orleans on the 27th June. The army consisted of eight regiments, two battalions of Royal Americans, three companies of Rangers, Artillery, and a brigade of Engineers. The fleet that conveyed them consisted of twenty-two ships of the line, and as many frigates and armed vessels, one of the ships being commanded by Jervis, afterwards Earl St. Vincent, and another by Cook, celebrated afterwards for circumnavigating the globe.

Montcalm in the meanwhile had made vigorous preparations for defending Quebec. He had entrenched the western bank of the Montmorency, and had thrown up redoubts between that river and the St. Charles. The stronghold on the promontory of Cape Diamond bristled with cannon; above the city, steep banks rendered landing almost impossible. Of regular troops he only possessed six wasted battalions, but the Canadian Militia gave him the superiority in numbers, and for nine miles or more above the city, as far as Cap Rouge, every landing place was intrenched and protected.

The French during a furious storm of wind sent down fire ships among the English shipping, but these being towed by some British boats which rowed out to them were steered clear of the fleet, and so did no harm. On the 29th June, Wolfe who retained possession of the river ordered Monckton to Point Levi, where he constructed batteries of cannon and mortars, whence he bombarded the town furiously. By the discharge of red hot balls and shells fifty houses were set on fire in one night, the lower town was demolished, and the upper one seriously injured. The citadel however was beyond their reach, and every avenue from the river to the cliff was too strongly intrenched for an assault. No real progress however resulted from Wolfe's movements, and being eager for anything that would relieve him from what might be looked upon at home as inactivity, he reconnoitered the Montmorency, saw that the eastern bank was higher than the opposite one occupied by Montcalm, landed and encamped, but found no way of crossing the rapids and eddies of that river. Three miles higher up was a ford, but the opposite shore was steep and carefully intrenched. Finding any attempts useless in this quarter he re-embarked his men, and in company with Admiral Saunders personally examined the shore above the city. Proceeding in a boat up to the

St. Charles River he beheld everywhere a natural fastness vigilantly defended, intrenchments, cannon, boats and floating batteries guarding every access. On the 20th July, the French sent down another raft of fire ships, which however the British fleet avoided, as they had done before. Wolfe then returned to Montmorency, determined on an engagement there at all hazards. Immediately below the Falls of that river there is a ford at low water, which it was planned should be crossed by two brigades at the proper time of the tide, while Monckton's regiments should cross from Point Levi at slack tide. Some of the boats however from thence grounded on a ledge of rocks, and while they were being got off, the enemy kept up an incessant fire of shot and shell. Nevertheless an attack was begun, several of the regiments which first got ashore, dashed up to the intrenchments and were repulsed in such disorder that they could not again form into line. A storm was approaching, night near, and the tide rapidly rising when Wolfe considered it expedient to retreat after losing 400 men. This took place on the 31st July. Finding nothing could be done he secured the posts in the Island of Orleans and opposite Quebec, and marched with the army on the fifth and sixth of September from Point Levi, embarking in transports that had passed the city for that purpose. Admiral Holmes with a few ships ascended the river to keep in check Bourgainville, whom Montcalm had sent up to prevent the British effecting a landing. Reconnoitering intently, he discovered the cove which now bears his name, where the bending promontories almost form a ' in with precipitous hills, winding up which he discovered a p ר which two men could hardly pass abreast, with a few tents at its summit, whose numbers could not accommodate more than 100 men. A landing at this point was instantly resolved upon. Captain Cook was sent to sound and plant buoys off Beauport, as if an attack were intended there, while the troops were kept afloat far above the town.

On the 13th September, one hour after midnight, Wolfe with Monckton and Murray, and about half the forces, set off in boats, and without sails or oars, glided with the tide, followed by the ships, having previously issued a "General Order" from on board H. M.'s ship Sutherland, giving an idea of his plan of attack and of his arrangements to secure the landing place after a landing had been effected. In three quarters of an hour the ships followed, and though the night had become dark, aided by the rapid ebb tide, they reached the cove, just in time to cover the landing. The troops leaped on shore. The light infantry, who found themselves borne by the current a little below the intrenched path, clambered up the steep hill, staying themselves by the roots and boughs of the maple, spruce and ash trees that

covered the precipitous declivity, and after a little firing, dispersed the guard at the top commanded by Captain de Vergor, when the rest ascended, without molestation, the pathway already alluded to. Only one light six pounder gun was brought up the precipice by some English sailors; a battery of other guns on the left was abandoned. When Townshend's division disembarked, the English had already gained one of the roads to Quebec, and advancing in front of the forest, Wolfe stood at day-break, with his invincible battalions on the Plains of Abraham. Montcalm was amazed beyond measure when the news first reached him. He imagined that only a detachment had landed, done some mischief, and retreated.

Bourgainville's upward movement, while the English troops were going downward, had not occurred to him. He was unwilling to believe in the possibility of a landing having been effected, for as far as a pitched battle was concerned, it was his weak side. He might have taken shelter behind the walls of Quebec, and it might have been found impossible even for Wolfe to have carried the works. It is besides doubtful that any benefit would have accrued to the English from such a landing so late in the year, had Montcalm done nothing but abandon his intrenchments on the Montmorency and St. Charles, and have concentrated his whole strength in Quebec; but Montcalm did not do so. He at once prepared to attack Wolfe, and hoped to be enabled to drive him into the river again before midday. It was with this latter view that he hastily crossed the valley of the St. Charles, and before ten in the forenoon, the two armies, one being composed of less than 5,000 men, stood opposite each other. The English were all regulars; the French partly regulars, partly colonial corps, partly burghers of Quebec, and partly Indians. For nearly an hour the two armies canonaded each other, Montcalm having the advantage of position, his army being posted in a crescent shape from what is now the St. Charles road. The French had three field pieces, and the English only one. Montcalm sent messages for De Vaudreuil and Bourgainville to come up; but without waiting for their arrival, he at last led the French army impetuously to the attack. The French, broken by their precipitation and by the unevenness of the ground, fired irregularly by platoons, while the English, especially the 43rd and 47th where Monckton stood, received the shock with calmness; and after having, at Wolfe's command, reserved their fire till the enemy was within forty yards, their line began a regular, rapid, and exact discharge of musketry. Montcalm rushed from point to point, cheering by his example, and encouraging by his presence his men, many of whom, unaccustomed to military discipline, could with difficulty be kept together. He was wounded, and his second in com-

mand, DeSezzenergues, an associate in glory at Ticonderoga, had been killed. The Canadians at length, under a hot fire, in the open field, began to waver, which Wolfe perceiving, he placed himself at the head of the 28th and the Louisbourg grenadiers, gave the word to charge, and the French fled before the British bayonet in wild disorder. Colonel Guy Carleton was injured; Wolfe's Adjutant General Barre had lost an eye; Wolfe himself had been wounded in the wrist, and as he pushed forward with the grenadiers, received a second wound from a musket ball in the groin; he, however, still pressed on, and just as the enemy were about to give way and the fortune of the day was decided, a third ball struck him in the breast and inflicted a mortal wound. His principal care was that he should not be seen to fall. "Support me," said he to an officer near him, "let not my brave soldiers see me fall." The charge still continued, when the officer on whose shoulder he leaned exclaimed: "They run." "Who runs," asked the dying hero with some emotion. The officer replied: "The enemy, sir, they give way every where." What? said he, "do they run already? Pray, one of you go to Colonel Burton and tell him to march Webb's regiment with all speed down to St. Charles River, to cut off the retreat of the fugitives from the bridge. Now God be praised, I die happy," and immediately expired. Monckton had been shot through the lungs, and Wolfe being dead the command of the English army devolved upon Townshend, brave but not sagacious, and who when De Bourgainville appeared in view, declined a contest with a fresh enemy. Montcalm who would have turned such an incident to account, was no more. In attempting to rally a body of fugitive Canadians, in a copse near St. John's Gate, he was mortally wounded. Assured by his surgeon that he would survive for twelve hours, he called a council of war, and showed that within that time, all the French troops near at hand might be concentrated, and the attack renewed before the English were intrenched; and when DeRamsay who commanded the garrison asked his advice about defending the city, he simply replied: "To your keeping I commend the honor of France. As for me I must pass the night with God, and prepare myself for death." Before he died he paid the victorious army this magnanimous compliment: "Since it was my misfortune to be discomfited and mortally wounded, it is a great consolation to me to be vanquished by so brave and generous an enemy. If I could survive this wound, I would engage to beat three times the number of such forces as I commanded this morning, with a third of British troops."

The day of battle had scarcely passed, when DeVaudreuil who had no capacity for war, wrote to DeRamsay at Quebec, not to wait for an assault, but as soon as his provisions were exhausted,

to hoist the white flag of surrender. On the 17th September, De Ramsay capitulated on terms honourable to the French, who were not made prisoners, but conveyed home to their own country. General Murray then assumed command.

The capture of Quebec may be said to have decided the fate of the French dominion in Canada. When Quebec fell, America rang with exultation, the hills glared with bonfires; legislatures, the pulpits, the press echoed the general joy, provinces and families gave thanks to God. England too which had shared the despondency of Wolfe, triumphed at his victory and wept for his death. Admiral Saunders, with all the fleet except two ships, sailed for England on the 18th of October, Quebec being left to the care of General Murray with about 3,000 men.

SIEGE OF 1760.

During the winter of 1759–60 Quebec was held by a handful of British troops, 3,000 miles from the mother country, and completely cut off from all prospect of aid or succour throughout the winter months. Reinforcements from England were out of the question, until the spring of 1760 burst the icy bonds of the St. Lawrence. Reinforcements from the then friendly provinces of Boston and New York were equally impossible, because of the dense forests, and the other impassable natural barriers which extended south of the St. Lawrence from the Gulf to the great lakes. The French were still in considerable strength throughout Canada, and their hearts were with King Louis and French connexion. All the other posts throughout Canada with the exception of Quebec were held by French garrisons, Canadian militia, and Indian auxiliaries.

In the month of April the French army which had been collected in the neighbourhood of Montreal under the command of Chevalier de Levi, marched towards Quebec for the purpose of attacking and regaining it. He arrived on the 28th April with an army of 10,000 men within three miles of the ancient city, when Murray determined to make a sortie with all his troops, intending, if an occasion presented itself, either to give battle, or else to fortify himself, should De Levis' force appear to be too considerable to resist in open field. Meanwhile De Levis who had ridden out with his staff officers to reconnoitre the position of the British, no sooner perceived this forward movement than he sent orders to his army to quicken its march towards the Plains of Abraham. Murray seeing only the French van resolved to attack it before the soldiers could take breath after their march; but he had to deal with an adversary of mark, and cool temperament withal. A most spirited contest ensued, and the fire was

heavy on both sides. The offensive movement intended by Murray by the road of Ste. Foy failed, and the check he thus sustained enabled the French to attack him in their turn. De Levi by a brilliant manœuvre took in flank the whole of Murray's army, while Colonel Poulardier attacked and transpierced the whole mass and put them to flight. De Levi profiting by their disorder, charged the British right wing, and completely routed it. Thus the whole French force advanced in pursuit of the beaten foe; but an ill delivered order entrusted to an officer gave them time to reach the city before their flight could be intercepted, leaving in their victors hands their whole artillery, ammunition, and the intrenching tools they had brought with them, besides a portion of the wounded. Their loss was considerable, nearly 4,000 corpses strewing the ground on both sides. The battle lasted, according to General Murray, one hour and three quarters. He acknowledged in his despatch to Pitt losing one-third of his men, and the French 2,500. Had the French been less fatigued than they were, and assailed the city without allowing the British time to recover themselves, it would probably again have fallen under the domination of its former masters, for such was the confusion, says Knox, that the British neglected to reman the ramparts, the sentinels were absent from their posts when the fugitives entered the lower town, and even the city gates stood open for some time. But De Levis' triumph did not last long. On the evening of the battle he broke ground within 600 yards of the walls, and next day commenced to bombard the town, but without producing much effect. If General Murray was guilty of any rashness in leaving his fortified position to attack the enemy, he amply atoned for it by the vigor with which he placed Quebec in a state of defence, and held out till relief arrived. On the night of the 15th May, news was received of the approach of the English squadron under Admiral Swanton from Halifax, and De Levi abandoned the siege with great precipitation, leaving his whole battering train, camp and camp furniture, intrenching tools, &c., behind him. He was pursued and several prisoners taken. The brave garrison pent up amid a hostile population, and worn down by service and sickness, welcomed the succour with that grateful joy which might be expected from men in their position.

SIEGE OF 1775.

The invasion of Canada by the troops of the American congress rendered the year 1775 remarkable in the annals of the Province. Canada supposed to be perfectly secure, had been left almost destitute of regular troops, nearly all of whom had been removed to

Boston. After the capitulation of St. Johns and Montreal, General Carleton, conceiving it of the utmost importance to reach Quebec, the only place capable of defence, passed through the American force stationed at Sorel, during the night in a canoe, with muffled paddles guided by Captain Bouchette of the Royal Navy, and arrived in Quebec on the 19th September, to the great joy of the garrison and loyal inhabitants, who placed every confidence in his well-known courage and ability. And fortunate for Quebec and Canada generally was it that he arrived at Quebec when he did; for an expedition of a singular and daring character had been successfully prosecuted against that fortress from the New England States, by a route which was little known and generally considered impracticable. This expedition was headed by Colonel Arnold, who with two regiments amounting to about 1,100 men left Boston in September, and penetrating the wilderness by means of the Rivers Kennebec and Chaudière, reached Pointe Levi on the 9th November after the greatest privations and hardships. Fortunately the small craft and canoes had been removed to the Quebec side of the river by order of the Commander of the garrison previous to his arrival. Securing however 34 bark canoes from different points, he succeeded on the night of the 13th in landing 500 men at Wolfe's cove without discovery, though the *Lizard* and *Hunter*, ships of war, were watching his movements. Without a moment's delay Arnold and his gallant 500 clambered up the precipice where Wolfe 16 years before had conducted his army to the field of victory. Arnold in the morning paraded his troops upon the plains and challenged the Lieutenant Governor Cramahe to surrender or come out and fight him at once; the reply was repeated discharges of cannon through the embrasures in the walls, and the request to come in if he would. The garrison of Quebec had no idea at first of Arnold's numbers but they were no sooner ascertained, than a sortie was determined upon, and 150 men whom he had left at Pointe Levi having crossed over to join Arnold, he wisely resolved upon retreating to Pointe aux Trembles, whence he despatched a messenger to General Montgomery. The latter made all haste to join Arnold, and leaving a small garrison at Montreal he embarked about 300 men, several mortars, and Captain Lamb's company of artillery on board some vessels, and sailed down the river to Pointe aux Trembles. Arnold meanwhile placed guards on all the roads leading to Quebec, in order to prevent the garrison obtaining supplies from the country.

The command now devolved on General Montgomery, and the two detachments marched immediately to the heights of Abraham, where they arrived on the 4th December. The garrison of Quebec amounted to 1,800 men, all full of zeal in the cause of their

king and country, and well supplied with provisions for eight months. They were under the immediate command of Colonel Allan Maclean, of the 84th Regiment, composed principally of the gallant Fraser Highlanders, who had settled in Canada. The siege or rather the blockade was maintained during the whole month of December. The Americans were established in every house near the walls, more particularly in the suburb of St. Roch. During this period the inhabitants of the city bore arms, and cheerfully performed the duties of soldiers. General Montgomery despairing to reduce the place by a regular siege, resolved on a night attack, in the hope of either taking the garrison by storm, or of finding it unprepared in some point. In this design he was encouraged by Arnold, whose local knowledge of Quebec was accurate, he having acquired it in frequent visits for the purpose of buying Canadian horses. This plan however soon became known to the garrison, and General Carleton made every preparation to prevent surprise, and to defeat the assault of the enemy. At last, early in the morning of the 31st December, and during a violent snow storm, Montgomery at the head of the New York troops, advanced to the attack of the Lower Town from its western extremity, along a road between the base of Cape Diamond and the river. Arnold at the same time advanced from the General Hospital, by way of St. Charles street. The two parties were to meet at the lower end of Mountain street, and when united, were to force the Prescott Gate. Two feint attacks in the meantime on the side towards the west, were to distract the attention of the garrison.

When Montgomery at the head of 700 men had advanced a short distance, he came to a narrow defile, with a precipice towards the river on one side, and the scarped rock above him on the other. This place is known by the name of Près-de-ville. Here all further approach to the Lower Town was intercepted, and commanded by a battery of three pounders. This fort was in the charge of a Captain of Canadian Militia. At day-break some of the guard being at the look-out, discovered through the imperfect light, a body of troops in full march from Wolfe's Cove upon the post, and the enemy was allowed to approach unmolested within a small distance. They halted at about fifty yards from the barrier, and as the guard remained perfectly still, it was probably concluded they were not on the alert. To ascertain this, an officer was sent to approach quite near the barrier. After listening a moment or two, he returned to the body, who instantly dashed forward at a double quick. This the guard expected; the artillerymen stood by with lighted matches, and the word being given at the critical moment by Captain Barnsfarm, the fire of the guns and musketry was directed with deadly precision

against the advancing column. The consequence was a precipitate retreat—the enemy were scattered in every direction. The enemy having retired, thirteen bodies were found in the snow. It was not at the time ascertained that the American general had been killed, but some hours afterwards, general Carleton having sent for a field officer of Arnold's division who had previously been taken prisoner, he pointed out Montgomery's body, at the same time pronouncing a glowing eulogium on his bravery and worth. The bodies of two of his aides-de-camp were also recognized among the slain. The defeat of Montgomery's force was complete, and colonel Campbell, his second in command, immediately relinquished the undertaking, and led back his men with the utmost precipitation.

In the meantime the attack by Arnold on the north-eastern side of the Lower Town was made with desperate resolution. Arnold led his men by files along the River St. Charles, till he came to the Sault-au-Matelot, where there was a barrier with two guns mounted. He himself took the command of the forlorn hope, and was leading the attack upon the barrier when he received a musket wound in the knee which disabled him, and he was carried back to the General Hospital. His troops however persevered, made themselves masters of the barrier and pressed on through the narrow street to the attack on the second battery extending from the rock to the river. Here they met with a determined resistance which it was impossible to overcome, General Carleton having ordered a sortie from Palace gate under Captain Laws in order to take them in the rear; their rear guard having already surrendered, the division of Arnold demanded quarter and were brought prisoners to the Upper Town. The contest continued for two hours, and the bravery of the assailants was indisputable.

By the death of Montgomery the command devolved upon Arnold, who had received the rank of Brigadier General. The siege now resumed its former character of blockade, without any event of importance until the month of March, when the Americans received reinforcements that increased their numbers to nearly 2,000 men. In the beginning of April Arnold left to take command at Montreal then in the hands of the Americans, and was relieved by General Wooster. The blockading army which had all the winter remained at three miles distance from the city, now approached nearer the ramparts, and re-opened their fire upon the fortifications, with no better success than before. On the night of the 3rd May, they made an unsuccessful attempt to destroy the ships of war and vessels laid up in the Cul-de-Sac, by sending in a fire ship, with the intention of profiting by the confusion, and of making another attack upon the works by

escalade. A council of war was held by General Thomas who had succeeded Wooster on the 5th May, when as it was known that strong reinforcements were on the way to the garrison from England, it was determined to raise the siege at once and retire upon Montreal. In the course of the next forenoon they broke up their camp, and commenced a precipitate retreat. The same day three men of war with troops and supplies arrived in the harbour to the relief of General Carleton, who forthwith made a sortie and harassed the rear of the retreating enemy, but so rapid was their flight, that a few shots only were exchanged, when they abandoned their stores, artillery, scaling ladders, &c., leaving also their sick, of whom they had a great number, to the care of the British.

Thus ended the last siege and blockade of Quebec.

SIEGES OF LOUISBOURG.

The treaty of Utrecht tore from the hands of France the two portals of Canada, Newfoundland and Acadia,—thus laying that colony bare on its seaboard sides, and enabling any foreign power to hinder succours from reaching the province, and cut off Quebec entirely from access to the sea. It became necessary therefore that a new bulwark should be formed; and as there still remained in French hands Cape Breton, the flag of France was unfurled on the shores of this insular possession hitherto unregarded, and the construction of fortifications was begun on a site in Cape Breton, afterwards known to fame as Louisbourg. The island was renamed l'Isle Royale, by which appellation it was known as long as French domination lasted in North America, and the seat of government fixed at English-Haven renamed "Louisbourg," in honour of the king. The town was built on a tongue of land jutting into the sea, and was fully a mile long. As the great object was to make the place a maritime arsenal, a series of fortifications, intended to be impregnable, were commenced in 1720. Before they were finished, more than thirty millions livres or £1,500,000 sterling were expended upon them. They comprised a stone rampart nearly 40 feet high, with embrasures for 148 guns, had several bastions, and strong outworks, and on the land side was a fossé fully eighty feet broad.

SIEGE OF 1745.

In a few months after the declaration of war between France and Britain, the American waters swarmed with French privateers. Several were equipped at Louisbourg, and took a number of prizes, before any vessels of war could arrive from Britain to protect their colonial shipping. Louisbourg became such a hornets nest in regard to New England, that it was resolved if possible to destroy it. For this purpose an expedition sailed from

Boston, and arrived at Canso, on the 5th April 1745. Colonel Pepperel, the commander of the expedition, having sent some shallops to ascertain whether the coast was clear of ice, and the report being favorable, disembarked at Chapeau Rouge, on the 27th. The garrison under M. Duchambois, consisting of 600 regulars, was taken completely by surprise, through the promptitude of the invaders. Sir Peter Warren arrived at this time from England with a few ships, and more were to follow. His seamen assisted during fourteen days in dragging a siege train of ordnance, through marshy ground, to the rear of Louisbourg, which they thought was too strongly defended on the seaward side to be confronted by the fleet. Meanwhile the garrison, ill paid, and badly treated, were in a state of revolt, but their military honour being appealed to, they prepared to defend the place. On the night of the 13th May, some buildings filled with naval stores having been fired by Captain Vaughan, son of the Lieutenant Governor of New Hampshire, who had landed with 400 men, caused the occupants of a fort in the vicinity, who thought them the van of a large attacking corps, to vacate it and take refuge in the town, leaving a battery to fall in his hands.

At this juncture Admiral Warren captured a French vessel with 560 soldiers and supplies for the garrison on board, as she was about to land. The vessel was La Vigilante, a ship of 64 guns. Had this assistance reached its destination, it is very doubtful if Pepperel could have captured this, the strongest fortress in America, and which was deemed impregnable.

The besiegers with 400 men, then next tried to carry a battery on the Island of St. John, which protected the entry of the harbour, but were driven off leaving 60 dead and 116 of their wounded in the hands of the French. But as all hope of succour was gone by the blockade of the harbour, and its defenders were as discouraged as they were malcontent before, Duchambois capitulated, and was allowed to march out with the honours of war. According to the terms agreed on, the garrison and about 2,000 people, the entire population of Louisbourg, were embarked in British transports, and landed at Brest in France.

In the following year a large force consisting of seven ships of the line, three frigates, two fire-ships, &c., with 400 soldiers left Rochefort with the plan of retaking and dismantling Louisbourg, but a furious tempest dispersed the fleet, some vessels having to run for shelter to the Antilles, others driven back to France, some lost on Sable Island, the rest contrived to reach Chibouctou, the rendez-vous agreed on, where an epidemic broke out among them, carrying off the marines and soldiers by hundreds. Out of 2,400 men, 1,100 died, and out of 200 sick sent to Europe in hope of recovery, but *one* survived the passage.

By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, Acadia was again restored to France, and British hostages were sent to Versailles to give personal security for the restitution of Louisbourg.

SIEGE OF 1757.

War having been declared again between France and England, Louisbourg, the sentinel of the St. Lawrence, was the first place it was determined by the British to attack ; and a conference of the governors of the northern colonies of America having been held at Boston, to concert a plan of campaigning, the following events took place. Lord Louden set sail from New York, with 6,000 regulars, embarked in 90 ships, bound for Louisbourg. On reaching Halifax, July 9, his convoy was joined by Admiral Holbourn's fleet, on board of which were 5,000 more soldiers, all veterans. While still in port news came that Admiral Dubois de la Motte had arrived at Louisbourg from Brest ; that he had now 17 ships of the line and 3 frigates under his orders ; and that the town had a garrison of 6,000 French regulars, 3,000 militiamen and 1,200 savages. Hearing this, Louden held a council of war, at which it was unanimously agreed, that the attempt to take Louisbourg had no chance of being successful, and ought to be abandoned. In consequence the troops were sent back to New York ; while Holbourn, with 15 ships, 4 frigates, and a fire ship, stood toward Louisbourg to reconnoitre. Nearing the place, he was recognized ; and the French Admiral was preparing to meet him, when he turned helm and sailed back to Halifax. He returned towards Louisbourg in September, leaving there four ships more than before. La Motte now the weaker party, declined battle, in turn, pursuant to orders he had received, not to risk against odds a finer fleet than France had been able to equip any time since the year 1703. Shortly thereafter, a fearful tempest assailed the British fleet, and brought it to the brink of perdition. The *Tilbury*, a 60 gun ship, was cast ashore and half of her crew drowned ; 11 vessels were dismasted, and obliged to throw their ordnance into the sea. The other ships reached sundry ports of Britain in a dismantled state.

SIEGE OF 1758.

During the spring of this year, the British determined at all hazards to subdue Canada, and to wipe out their past disgraces by crushing at one blow the various strongholds. Their first blow fell upon Louisbourg. Admiral Boscawen sailed thither from Halifax, May 28, with 24 ships of the line, 18 frigates, and many transports, having troops on board, and a large siege train. June

2, the expedition reached Louisbourg, the garrison of which consisted of 2,100 regulars and 600 militiamen, with 5 men of war and 5 frigates, moored in the harbour, to aid in defending the place against a combined force of 30,000 British soldiers and sailors. M. Drucourt, who had succeeded to the Comte de Raymond as governor, resolved to make a stout defence, and not give in, even should no relief come, so long as the works were at all tenable by the small number of their defenders. The fortifications indeed had become everywhere ruinous for want of reparation. The revetments and most of the curtains had entirely crumbled away, and there was but one casemate and a magazine that were bomb-proof. The chief strength of the place lay in the difficulty of an enemy's disembarking to attack it, and in the facility with which the harbour entry could be barred against him. What remained of the original works of defence, was so dilapidated that it could not long withstand a siege ; the governor consequently prepared rather to oppose the enemy's disembarkation, than await his approach behind such ruins. He therefore fortified the coast, running along Cormorant cove a solid parapet, pierced for cannon of heavy calibre, in front of which he formed a breastwork of felled trees, presenting to a casual observer the appearence of unbroken natural verdure. A series of interchained barges was ranged from Cape Noir to Cape Blanc, with batteries erected on them, commanding all points where a landing was practicable.

On the 8th of June, 1758, the British appeared off Cormorant cove, ignorant of the preparations that had been made there. To perplex the French they prolonged their line of vessels so as to threaten the whole seaboard ; but suddenly most of the attacking corps landed at the cove, while General Wolfe with 100 men, scaled a rock at a point a little beyond, which had been thought inaccessible, and kept possession of it, despite all attempts to dislodge him. The governor leaving 300 men in the garrison, was present with 2,000 soldiers and some savages at the works. The British ignorant of the trap laid for them, began to disembark and Louisbourg would have been saved, had not French impetuosity caused their well-laid scheme to miscarry. Hardly had the vanguard landed, than a brisk fire of musketry opened on them, causing them to retrace their steps. This had to be done by way of the rock where Wolfe had posted a detachment, as the ships had to withdraw from the range of the batteries. This rock was closely contested, till the British troops, braving at once the sea, and the firing from the French batteries, succeeded in seeing a point where they could disembark. The French being fairly outflanked, one of their batteries was soon carried. At that instant it was rumoured that General Whitemore had disembarked at Cape Blanc, and was about to pass between the 2,000 French soldiers at the

cove and the town; into which the latter were forthwith recalled by the governor, leaving 200 men killed and captured. The fall of Louisbourg thus became only a question of time.

June 12th, General Wolfe with 300 men garrisoned the Pharo battery, the Royal battery, and other deserted works, commanding the port, town fortifications, and an island facing the place. The besiegers favored by the broken ground, advanced their lines to within 600 yards of the town walls; heavy cannonading was carried on by both sides, and the besieged fearing that the British fleet would enter the harbour, sank four vessels at the narrowest part of its entry. A constant fire was kept up from the ramparts, and the governor's wife, Madame de Drucourt immortalised herself by her heroism during the siege. The walls gradually crumbled under the enemy's projectiles, yet the breaches were repaired constantly as far as possible. July 21, a shell set fire to a 74 gun ship in the harbour; its powder magazine blew up, and the fire spread to two more vessels which were also consumed. Only two French men of war remained afloat, and they finally were captured by the enemy who entered the harbour during a dark night, cut out one, and burnt the other. This last blow determined the French to give in. It showed that the port was quite assailable and all but defenceless seaward, while it was a scene of wreck within. The land works also were become untenable, for every battery on the ramparts was disorganized; scarcely a dozen cannon remained undismounted, breaches existed in the walls, which the weakened garrison could no longer repair, a third of its number being killed or wounded. As an assault was hourly expected, the townspeople begged the governor to capitulate, which he at length reluctantly did July 26th, 1758. Thus did Louisbourg, or rather its ruins, with the whole island of Cape Breton, pass into British hands. The Governor and his garrison, reduced to 500 soldiers and sailors, remained prisoners of war, while the townspeople were to be transported bodily to France. The fall of Louisbourg and the loss of Cape Breton left Canada without a seaward defence, and cleared a free passage to Quebec for the enemy to enter in.

At this conquest which cost the besiegers only 400 men killed and wounded, Great Britain and her American colonies greatly rejoiced. Thanksgivings were celebrated in all the churches of England, and trophies of the victory sent to London. The stronghold was entirely demolished to prevent it again falling into the hands of the French.

AN INCIDENT IN NEW BRUNSWICK HISTORY.

On ascending the Restigouche from Dalhousie, whether by land or water, the traveller will be everywhere impressed with the

manifold charms of its scenery; and among the more prominent objects of interest which will engage attention, at the respective distances of 8, 12 and 14 miles above the town, will be the several points, named Aninnipk, Le Garde, and Battery Point. Upon all these, as may be gathered from the older inhabitants of the region, there once stood warlike fortifications, but so long ago that their remains are almost obliterated by the dense growth of forest trees. The story which they recall is this:—When, in the autumn of 1760, the French were driven from Acadia, or Nova Scotia, the ships in which they sailed were hotly pursued by the British; and, instead of making their "desired haven," which was the River St. Lawrence, they accidentally entered the Bay of Chaleurs. The British pursued them as far as the Restigouche; but as winter was nigh at hand, the pursuers abandoned the chase, and went to England, while the pursued ascended the river, and built themselves cabins upon the shore as well as the three fortifications above mentioned. Early in the following spring the British fleet, commanded by Captain John Byron, returned from England, sailed up the Restigouche, and with one blow totally destroyed the habitations, batteries, and vessels of the unfortunate French. Seven skeletons of the destroyed vessels, which numbered some 22 in all, may be seen in the bed of the Restigouche at the present day, and other memorials of this "great victory," in the shape of French cannon and swords, pistols, cutlasses, military buttons, spurs, gun barrels, bayonets, iron pans, and spoons, may be seen in the possession of the older inhabitants; but the most curious articles recently discovered are a bottle of molasses, a small cask of wine, and a number of iron balls, found incased in the trunks of certain trees growing on the banks of the river. As the tide of fortune was decidedly against France at the time in question—for with her defeat on the Restigouche terminated her dominion in Acadia and Canada—and as England unquestionably had the advantage in the affair, the result was not to be wondered at; the victory was rendered even more complete by the heroism of a British sailor. His name has not come down to us, but the deed he performed was this:—He was a prisoner on board of a French ship, and while yet the British fleet were at the mouth of the Restigouche meditating a plan of attack, he made his escape at night, and with the assistance of a plank, swam a distance of 16 miles, and having boarded one of the ships of his country, marked out the exact positition of the enemy, and the victory immediately followed.

BATTLE-FIELDS.

BATTLE OF QUEENSTON HEIGHTS.

The American Government had a force of 6,300 men assembled on the Niagara frontier; of this force 3,170 were at Lewiston under the command of General Van Rensselaer. To oppose this force Major General Brock had part of the 41st and 49th Regiments, a few companies of militia, and about 200 Indians,—in all 1,500 men; but so dispersed in different posts at and between Fort Erie and Fort George, that only a small number was available at any one point.

On the morning of the 11th October, 1812, the American forces were concentrated at Lewiston, with a view of making an attack upon Queenston, but through the neglect or delay of the officer entrusted with preparing and leading the boats necessary, to the place of embarkation, the attack miscarried. Before daylight on the morning of the 13th a large division of Rensselaer's army numbering between 1,300 and 1,400, embarked under cover of a battery of two eighteen, and two six pound cannon. This movement being soon discovered, a brisk fire was opened upon them from the British shore by the troops, and from three batteries. The Americans commenced a cannonade to sweep the shore but with little effect. The first division effected their landing unobserved under the heights a little above Queenston, and mounting the ascent, attacked and carried an eighteen pounder and dislodged the light company of the 49th regiment. The enemy were in the meantime pushing over in boats, and notwithstanding the current and eddies, here rapid and numerous, and a tremendous discharge of artillery which shattered many of their boats, persevered with dauntless resolution, and effected a landing at the lower end of the village of Queenston, making an attack upon a position, which was defended with the most determined bravery by the two flank companies of the 49th regiment commanded by captains

Dennis and Williams aided by such of the York volunteer militia forces and Indians as could be collected in the vicinity, with a determination verging upon desperation. The carnage became terrible. The attempts of the enemy to effect a further passage was for some time successfully resisted, and several boats were either disabled or sunk by the fire from the one-gun battery on the heights and that from the masked battery, about a mile below. Several boats were, by the fire from this last battery so annoyed, that falling before the landing place, they were compelled to drop down the river with the current, and recross to the American side. The British however being overwhelmed by numbers were compelled to retire some distance into a hollow. No resistance could then be offered to the crossing from Lewiston, except by the battery from Vromont's Point, half a mile below, from which a steady and harassing fire was kept up, which did considerable execution.

General Brock, who was at Niagara, a short distance below, had for several days expected this invasion, and on the preceding evening he called his staff together, and gave to each the necessary instructions. Agreeable to his usual custom he rose before day-light, and hearing the cannonade awoke Major Glegg, and called for his horse "Alfred," which had been presented to him by Sir Jas. Craig. He then galloped eagerly from Fort George to the scene of action where he arrived in the grey of the morning with his provincial aide-de-camp Lieut. Col. McDonnell, passing up the hill in front of the light company, under a heavy fire of artillery and musketry from the American shore. On reaching the eighteen pounder battery at the top of the hill, they dismounted and took a view of passing events, which at that moment appeared highly favourable. But in a few minutes a firing was heard which proceeded from a strong detachment of American regulars under Captain Wool, who had succeeded in gaining the brow of the heights in rear of the battery, by a fisherman's path up the rocks, which being reported as impassable, was not guarded. General Brock and his aide-de-camp had not even time to remount, but were obliged to retire precipitately with the twelve men stationed in the battery, which was quickly occupied by the enemy. Captain Wool having sent forward about 150 regulars, and a detachment of 100 men, grenadiers of the 49th, personally directed and rallied by General Brock, advanced to meet them, and a charge was ordered which was promptly executed. As the Americans however gave way, the General's expectations were not realized. Captain Wool sent a reinforcement to his regulars, notwithstanding which, the whole was driven to the edge of the bank. Here occurred one of the turning points of the engagement; some of the American officers had hoisted a white flag with an intention to surrender, when Capt. Wool tore it off and reanimated

his dispirited troops who again opened a heavy musketry fire, during which General Brock conspicuous from his height, his cross, and the enthusiasm with which he had urged on his little band was singled out by some marksmen and received a bullet in his right breast, which almost immediately terminated his existence. He had but that instant said "Push on the York Volun-" teers" and he lived only long enough to request that his fall might not be noticed, or prevent the advance of his brave troops, adding a wish which could not be distinctly understood that some token of remembrance should be transmitted to his sister. He died unmarried, and had just attained his 43rd year. The lifeless corpse was immediately conveyed into a house close by, where it remained until the afternoon unperceived by the enemy.

In the meantime the light company supported by a party of the Yorkers attempted to dislodge the enemy from the heights. They formed and advanced to the charge, exposed to a smart fire, but finding the enemy posted behind trees so that a charge could have little effect, they desisted, and separating posted themselves in like manner, and kept up a sharp fire for some time. Lieut. Col. McDonnell who had joined them while forming for the charge, and was encouraging the men, received a ball in his back, as his horse which had been wounded was wheeling. He survived his wound but 20 hours in the most excruciating pain, yet his thoughts and words were constantly occupied with lamentations for his deceased commander. The charge that he was leading when he fell, compelled the enemy to spike the 18 pounder in the battery. The Americans having now effected their landing with an overwhelming force, the British were obliged to give way and suspend the fight until the arrival of reinforcements, leaving the enemy in possession of the heights.

About two o'clock in the afternoon General Sheaffe, who had now assumed the command, arrived from Fort George with a reinforcement of 300 men of the 41st Regiment, two companies of militia, and two hundred and fifty Indians. Reinforcements having also arrived from Chippewa, the general collected his whole force, amounting to upwards of 800 men, and leaving two field pieces with about thirty men under Lieut. Holcroft of the Royal Artillery, in front of Queenston, as a check to prevent the enemy from occupying the village, proceeded by a circuitous route to gain the rear of the heights upon which the enemy were posted. The Indians being more alert than the troops, first surmounted the hill and commenced the attack, but were repulsed and fell back upon the main body who formed with celerity and upon the word advanced to the charge, under Lieut. McIntyre, under a heavy shower of musketry. The British set up a shout, accompanied with the warwhoop of the Indians, and after a volley

advanced at the double, resorting to the bayonet, and drove in the American right. The main body now advanced under cover of the fire from the two field pieces and after a short conflict, maintained on both sides with a courage truly heroic, forced the Americans over the first ridge of the heights to the road leading from Queenston to the Falls. The British regulars and militia, charged in rapid succession until they succeeded in turning the left flank of the enemy's column, which rested on the summit of the hill. The Americans gave way and fled in all directions, some concealing themselves in the bushes; others who attempted to escape into the woods were driven back by the Indians; many cut off in their return to the main body, terrified by the sight of these exasperated warriors, precipitated themselves wildly over the cliffs, and endeavoured to cling to the bushes which grew upon them; some losing their hold were dashed frightfully on the rocks beneath and killed by the fall, while others who reached the river were drowned in their attempts to swim accross it. A terrible slaughter ensued by the Indians, until a white flag was observed ascending the hill with offers of an unconditional surrender, which were accepted. Brigadier General Wadsworth, thereupon surrendered himself and all his officers consisting of two lieutenant-colonels, five majors, a number of captains and subalterns, together with 900 men, one field piece and a stand of colours. This occurred between three and four o'clock in the afternoon.

Before the arrival of Sheaffe with his reinforcements, Van Rensselaer finding his ammunition failing, and his troops almost exhausted with fatigue, had returned to the American shore to urge across reinforcements from the embodied militia; but they, despite every menace, unanimously refused, asserting the right of the militia to refuse crossing the boundary of their country. They had seen the wounded recrossing, they had seen the Indians; and they had seen the "green tigers," as they called the 49th from their green facings, and were-panic struck. In this dilemma Rensselaer wrote a note to Wadsworth, informing him of the situation and leaving the course to be pursued to his own judgment, assuring him that if he thought best to retire he would send as many boats as he could command and cover his retreat. The spirited advance of the British however, had in the meantime decided the fate of the day.

The loss of the British is said to have been from 16 to 20 killed and between 50 and 60 wounded—while that on the side of the enemy was 90 killed and about 100 wounded. The British however sustained an irreparable loss in the fall of Gen. Brock and Lieut. Col. McDonnell, Provincial Aid-de-camp and Attorney general of Upper Canada. Gen. Brock had previously commanded a detachment of the 49th in the expedition to Copenhagen with

Lord Nelson. The remains of this gallant officer were during the funeral service honoured with a discharge of minute guns from the American as well as British batteries, and with those of his Aid-de-camp were interred in the same grave at Fort George on the 16th October.

BATTLE OF BEECH WOODS.

In July 1813, after an attack made by Harvey, one of Gen. Vincent's officers, in which he fell suddenly on the American camp at Stoney Creek, driving out its occupants, and taking a number of prisoners, amongst whom were Generals Chandler and Winder, General Vincent's force quietly advanced to Grimsby (Forty mile creek), where they were met by a reinforcement of Cauhgnawaga Indians. From this place Capt. Fitzgibbon, was permitted to organize a scouting party of the 49th, the Glengaries, and the militia to watch the movements of the enemy. At the same time Col. Bœstler of the U. S. army, sallied forth from Fort George, Niagara, with a force of 500 picked men in guest of Fitzgibbon's scouting party. Led by some traitor, he pursued his course directly to the rendez-vous of Fitzgibbon, and his men in the "Beech Woods;" arriving in an open field near these woods he commenced to prepare for action, though without gaining sight of the British. The latter opened a deadly fire from their ambuscade, which told severely on the enemy without their being able to make any defence. At this juncture, Fitzgibbon, deprecating such a warfare ordered the firing to cease, and with a flag of truce in his hand rushed from the ambuscade, saying to Colonel Bœstler, he would not be accountable for the carnage that would ensue, if he did not surrender. The Americans thinking they were surrounded by a superior force, surrendered at discretion. Thus a force of 500 picked Americans were captured by a little over 100 British troops, and sent as prisoners of war to Toronto.

NAVAL BATTLE ON LAKE ERIE.

Sept. 10th 1813, the hostile fleets of England and the United States on Lake Erie met near the head of the Lake, and a sanguinary battle ensued. The flotilla bearing the red cross of England consisted of six vessels, carrying 64 guns, under command of the veteran Captain Barclay, who had been despatched to attack or blockade Commodore Perry. The latter with nine vessels carrying 54 guns was lying in the harbour of Erie (Presqu'ile) from which place he could not get out owing to the shallowness of the water. Taking advantage however of a temporary absence of the British, Perry contrived to surmount this difficulty, and ascending the lake got between the British land force, and the vessels that were

acting as their store ships. He had now to encounter Capt. Barclay sent to the rescue, the engagement taking place between Sandusky and Malden. At first the wind was very light, and Perry advancing unsupported, his ship being exposed to a heavy and disabling fire from the long guns of one or more of the British vessels, she was crippled before others of the American flotilla could come up, and he was obliged to abandon her. A breeze however, springing up, favourable to the Americans, the latter out-manœuvred their adversaries, contrived to overpower the British vessels in succession, and captured them all. The result of that important conflict, which gave the Americans absolute mastery of Lake Erie, was made known to the world in the following laconic despatch: "We have met the enemy and they are ours."

BATTLE OF CHATEAUGUAY.

The battle of Chateauguay, some times called the Canadian Thermopylæ, is remarkable for having enabled, from the victory achieved there, the British forces to resume the offensive in Upper Canada.

On the 21st October, 1813, General Hampton entered Lower Canada from Lake Champlain with an army of from 6,000 to 7,000 men, and drove in the outposts of the British on the Piper road, thirty miles above the church at Chateauguay. Col. DeSalaberry, a member of an old and distinguished Canadian family, who had served with the British army in various parts of the world, but had returned to his country in its hour of peril, commanding the Voltigeurs, a corps which he had raised, proceeded forthwith to discover General Hampton's whereabouts, and obstructed the road he was most likely to take, by cutting down numerous trees. After several skirmishes the Americans not daring to hazard a general action in the woods, retired to a place called Four Corners. DeSalaberry made an incursion into his camp at the head of 200 Voltigeurs and 150 Indian warriors, throwing the enemy into disorder without any loss on his own side. Hampton being repulsed on the Odelltown route, which he had taken, resolved to effect a junction with Wilkinson, his chief General, by taking the route leading to Chateauguay, which the latter was approaching, believing the road to be open; but access thereto was everywhere prevented by a blockade of field works. DeSalaberry then ascended the left bank of the river Chateauguay, to reach the extremity of a wood where he knew there was an excellent position in a swamp intercepted by deep rivulets. On four of these he established lines of defence in succession. The fourth was about half a mile in the rear, and commanded a ford on the right shore, which was a very important point of defence, with a

view to the protection of the left bank. The whole of the day was taken up with fortifying this position, so as to force the enemy to cross a large space of settled country. Sir George Prevost was on the third line, at Caughnawaga, with troops and militia from the Montreal district DeSalaberry next destroyed all the bridges within four miles, and a formidable obstruction was formed on the road to the extent of a mile in advance of the first line of defence, which extended to the edge of the river. The four lines of defence were thus completely sheltered even from the fire of artillery. To this fortified position is mainly due the victory which succeeded. On the 24th, the American General having made a large opening on the road through the woods and swamps, within five miles of the Canadian encampment, advanced at the head of 7,000 infantry and 400 horses, with twelve pieces of artillery, sending during the night Col. Purdy to take possession of the ford, but this officer lost his way in the woods. The next day Hampton made an advance in person with 3,500 men towards the abattis, leaving in reserve the remainder of his troops. DeSalaberry advanced to the front, placing himself in the centre of the first line of defence, leaving the second in charge of Lieut. Col. McDonell, the same who had taken Ogdensburgh. At the head of Hampton's column of infantry was an officer conspicuous for his tallness, who hailed the Canadians in French: "Brave Canadians, surrender yourselves; we wish you no harm." The only reply was the discharge of a musket levelled at him, followed by his fall. Firing then commenced smartly on both sides, but badly directed by the Americans, and then changing tactics, Hampton endeavored to force the Canadian defences by vigorous charges with the sword and bayonet. They fired better afterwards; but believing that the Canadians were advancing in large numbers, their ardour began to weaken. Purdy's column arrived at the ford during the engagement but was repulsed and thrown into disorder by DeSalaberry, who had directed his attention to that particular spot. The American commander seeing his plan disconcerted by the defeat of that division, ordered a retreat, which he effected with considerable loss. The combat lasted four hours in all. DeSalaberry slept on the field of battle, and on the following morning at day-break was joined by his brother Capt. DeRouville with his company of Voltigeurs. On the 28th he sent Capt. DuCharme to reconnoitre, who ascertained that the enemy had abandoned their camp and had returned to Plattsburg. Wilkinson who was at Cornwall hearing of the defeat of his colleague, retired to Salmon river and fortified himself. Great Britain commemorated the victory by causing a gold medal to be struck; DeSalaberry had the order of the Bath conferred upon him, and the Voltigeurs were presented with colours. It is related of a

Captain Langtin, of the Beauharnois Militia who were engaged, that he knelt down with his men at the beginning of the action, said a short prayer in his own good way, and told them that "now they had done their duty to their God, he expected they would also do their duty to their King." Thus did the fortunate resistance of a few militia companies caused the retreat from our country of an army over 15,000 strong, and rendered abortive the best concerted plan as yet formed by the strategists of the United States, for the conquest of Canada.

BATTLE OF CHIPPAWA.

The campaign of 1814 was opened on the Niagara frontier by Genl. Brown of the American army, who crossed from Black Rock to Fort Erie July 3rd, with two divisions of his army, computed at not less than 5,000 men. After driving in a picket of the garrison of Fort Erie, which was in a defenceless state both from the nature of the fortifications and smallness of its garrison, under Major Buck of the King's Own, it was at once surrendered. They next day marched to attack the intrenched camp of Genl. Riall at Chippawa, a short distance above the Falls of Niagara. The following is the substance of Genl. Riall's despatch to Genl. Drummond, detailing the battle: As soon as the landing of the enemy became known, orders were given for an immediate advance of five companies of the Royal Scots, under Genl. Gordon, to reinforce the garrison of that place, whence Col. Pearson had moved forward with the 100th regiment, some militia and Indians. On the 5th dispositions were made for an attack at 4 o'clock in the afternoon. The Indian warriors were posted on the right flank, in the woods; the troops moved in three columns, the King's regiment being in advance. The enemy had taken up his position, with his right resting on some buildings and orchards, close on the Niagara river, and strongly supported by his artillery; his left towards the woods, having a considerable number of riflemen and Indians in front of it. The enemy's riflemen and Indians at first checked their advance, but the light troops being brought to their support, they succeeded after a short contest, in destroying them in handsome style. The King's regiment was immediately moved up to the right, when the Royal Scots and 100th were directed to charge the enemy, and they advanced in the most gallant manner under a destructive fire, from which they suffered so severely, that they were obliged to be withdrawn, finding their further efforts against the superior numbers of the enemy would be unavailing. Col. Gordon and most of the officers of the 100th were wounded. A retreat was then ordered upon Chippawa, which was conducted with great order and regularity, not a single

prisoner, except the wounded, falling into the hands of the enemy. The British forces then retired to Fort George, and Genl. Brown crossed the Chippawa and advanced to Queenston, where he remained without striking a blow, from the 8th to the 23rd July, unless an occasional demonstration before Fort George, and the unprovoked conflagration of the village of St. David's. General Riall on learning that Genl. Brown had retreated across the Chippawa, immediately pushed forward his forces to Lundy's Lane, having been reinforced by the 103rd regiment. In the battle of Chippawa the British forces did not number more than 1,500 in regular troops, exclusive of the militia and Indians, of which latter there were not above 300. The British loss in killed and wounded was 515, that of the Americans 312.

BATTLE OF LUNDY'S LANE.

On the afternoon of the 25th July 1814, while the American army was on their march from Fort George to Fort Erie, ascending the west bank of the Niagara River, their rear-guard under the immediate command of General. Scott, was attacked by the advance guard of the British army under General Riall. This brought on a general conflict of the most obstinate and deadly character, the British having been reinforced with 800 men under General Drummond who took the chief command. As soon as attacked, General Scott advanced with his division amounting to about 3,000 men, to the open ground facing the heights occupied by the main British army, where were planted several heavy cannon, from which a fire was kept up to the latest moment, the artillerymen being bayoneted at the side of their pieces. Between eight and nine o'clock in the evening, on the arrival of reinforcements to both armies, the battle became general and raged for several hours, with alternate success on both sides, each army evincing the most determined bravery and resistance. "Nothing could be more terrible" says a reporter of the action, "nor yet more solemn, than that nocturnal combat. The desperate charges made by the troops were followed by a death-like silence, broken only by the groans of the dying and the monotonous noise of the great cataract." Colonel Miller (American) was ordered to advance and seize the artillery of the British, which he did at the point of the bayonet. General Riall who had been dangerously wounded, got among the enemy's cavalry in the darkness and disorder, when trying to get into the rear of his own army and was taken prisoner. Possession of the battlefield was contested till midnight, when 1,700 men being either killed or wounded, the conflicting armies, amounting altogether to about 6,000 strong, ceased the deadly conflict, and for a time the field was left unoccupied

except by the dead and wounded, the Americans retreating to their camp beyond the River Chippawa. The loss of men on both sides was considerable and almost equal; about 1,500 in all, killed and wounded. General Drummond received a severe wound in the neck, and Generals Brown and Scott on the American side were both severely wounded. Several hundreds of Americans were taken prisoners, although the British numbered but 2,800 in all. The Upper Canada militia manifested the most signal bravery. The chief command of the American army after the battle devolved upon General Ripley, who having made good his retreat, intrenched his men around Fort Erie. As soon as the British discovered that the Americans had reached their camp, they returned and occupied their former position. Thus ended one of the most bloody conflicts that occurred during that war; and while each party boasted a victory, altogether too dearly bought, neither was disposed to renew the conflict.

BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

In July and August 1814, a draft of four thousand men of Wellington's army arrived in Quebec from England. In a few days after landing, the greater part of them were transported to the Lake Champlain frontier. The command of the British flotilla on Lake Champlain was given to Captain Downie, and to complete its crews, many of the sailors were taken from the ships of war lying at Quebec. The close of the war in Europe having disengaged much of the military force there maintained by Britain, the Americans were fain to change situations, adopting the defensive for the offensive, and General Izard (American) having set out for Fort Erie, leaving only 1,500 men at Plattsburgh, this became an invitation to the British to hasten the attack on that place. For this purpose General Prevost crossed the frontier at Odelltown, took possession of Champlain village, and occupied an intrenched camp, previously quitted by the enemy on the River Chazy. Hence he marched in two columns upon Plattsburgh, sweeping everything before him. Col. Bayard had been sent on with infantry, and drove the Americans out of the north part of Plattsburgh, just as they were about to occupy some heights on the River Saranac crowned with batteries, redoubts and other field works. The British artillery being brought up, Commodore Macdonough in command of the American flotilla, which was anchored in front of the place, had to leave port, to keep his flag ship out of gun range of the British, and take to the open lake. The British flotilla, which following the movements of Prevost had now come up under command of Captain Downie, was tempted to attack the enemy's vessels, in sight of the army on

shore. Unfortunately, the Captain's own frigate got too near the land, and thus was exposed to the fire, not only of an American ship, but to that of two American batteries besides. At the very outset, Downie and several of his officers were killed, and the ship grounded, two untoward circumstances by which the Americans profited. Captain Pring, then took the command of the flotilla, but was obliged, after a combat of two hours, to strike his flag, as did all the other Captains theirs in succession, their vessels being overmatched. Of the whole flotilla only seven gun shallops escaped. As soon as the Americans on shore, who meanwhile had been too feebly assailed, and thus enabled to hold their own, perceived that the British had been beaten on the lake, they were naturally emboldened to make a stouter defence, and Sir George Prevost, after dismantling his batteries, commanded an immediate retreat, in which the whole of his artillery, stores, baggage and military chest were captured and left behind. His land force was too weak to maintain a foothold, should it be gained, and the lake flottilla got up too hastily to co-operate, was unequal to what its crews had to cope with.

SIEGE OF FORT ERIE.

General Drummond after the battle of Lundy's Lane followed up the enemy, and invested Fort Erie where they were entrenched. First, he cannonaded the works, and having ascertained on the 14th August, that the stone buildings were much injured, and the outside of the parapets and embrasures much shattered, he determined to assault the place by a heavy column, directed to the intrenchment on the side of Snake Hill, and by two columns to advance from the battery to assault the fort and intrenchments on the other side, or that nearest to the lake. Colonel Fischer who headed the first column advanced two hours before daylight, and got possession of the batteries opposed to him. Immediately after, the two other columns advanced to the attack, and after a sharp struggle succeeded in penetrating through the embrasures of a semi-bastion, into the fort itself, which was in the centre of the American intrenched camp, and capturing the guns, which they had actually turned against the enemy, who had taken refuge in the stone building, and were playing the guns therein against those of the bastion already mentioned, when some ammunition which had been placed under the platform, caught fire from the firing of the guns in the rear, and a most tremendous explosion followed, by which almost all the troops that had entered the place were dreadfully mangled, scattering friends and foes equally alike. A panic instantly communicated to the troops, who could not be persuaded that the explosion was accidental, and the enemy at the

same time pushing forward and commencing a heavy fire of musketry, the fort was abandoned, and the British forces retreated towards the battery. The assault of course failed, and caused a loss of 900 killed and wounded on the side of the British; while the Americans had not over eighty casualties in all. Colonels Scott and Drummond were killed, and every officer of the two last columns were either killed or wounded by the enemy's fire, or by the explosion. The failure of these most important attacks was occasioned by circumstances which may be considered as almost justifying the momentary panic they produced, and which introduced a degree of confusion in the extreme darkness of the night, that the utmost efforts of the officers were inefficient in removing. The result of the attack was more disastrous in its consequences to the British, than had been the attack on Toronto to the Americans. After this disaster, Drummond converted the siege into a blockade. On the 17th September, the Americans made a sortie, upon hearing of the victory gained by their flotilla on Lake Champlain. Taking advantage of a storm then raging, they fell on the British suddenly, destroyed their advance works, and took prisoners some hundreds of them; but the tide having turned, the assailants were thrust back, losing about an equal number of men. Shortly afterwards illness breaking out in the British camp, and reinforcements for the beleaguered from Plattsburg having arrived, General Drummond drew off his forces and returned to Chippawa.

CAPTURE OF FORT NIAGARA.

This fort, commanding the entrance to the Niagara river, and serving as a depôt to the American army, was of great importance to them during the war. It was very strongly built, including three stone towers at the west, south-west and south angles, in addition to a long stone barrack on the north face—the whole having flat roofs mounted with cannon. It was accordingly determined in December, 1814, to attempt its capture, and the attempt was made on the night of the 19th of that month, the force destined for the purpose being composed of the 100th regiment, the flank companies of the 41st, and some artillerymen under the command of Colonel Murray.

Bateaux having been secretly conveyed overland from Burlington to a point about four miles up the British side of the river, the troops silently left their cantonments about ten o'clock at night, concealed their march under cover of the adjacent wood, embarked without noise, and landed undiscovered on the opposite side, whence they descended cautiously upon the fort. Youngston, a small hamlet about two miles from the fort, served as an outpost

to it, where lay a detachment of the garrison which it was necessary to surprise without alarming the fort. For this purpose a chosen body was sent in advance, who when arrived there, crept up stealthily to a window and peeped in. They saw a party of officers at cards, and as one of them asked "What are trumps?" "Bayonets are trumps!" replied one of the British, breaking in the window, and entering with his comrades, while the remainder of the detachment surrounded the house, rushed in, and bayoneted the whole of of its inmates, that none might escape to alarm the fort. Not a shot was fired on either side, for the American sentries fancying themselves secure from attack, had retired from their posts into the building, to shelter themselves from the cold, and thus had no time for resistance. Resuming their march, the assailants drew near the fort; not a word was spoken, and the muskets were carried squarely that the bayonets might not clash. The "forlorn hope" was commanded by Lieutenant Dawson, and led by Sergeant Spearman. It halted about twenty-five yards from the gate over which the sergeant, a tall stalwart man, strode, and strange to say found the wicket open. The sentry hearing some one approach, issued from his box, and asked "Who comes there?" Spearman imitating the nasal twang of the Americans, replied, "I guess, Mr., I come from Youngston," quietly introducing at the same time his shoulder through the half-opened wicket. The sentry, perceiving by his accoutrements that he was an enemy ran inwards exclaiming "the Brit"—but before he could complete his sentence, Spearman's bayonet was in his side. The "forlorn hope" immediately followed, and the whole attacking force entered. Had the assailants been discreetly silent, they might have effected the capture without loss to themselves or the enemy; but their blood being up, they uttered a terrific yell, which roused the sleeping garrison and occasioned some resistance. A cannon turned inwards, was fired by the Americans from the roof of the south-western tower. To prevent a repetition of this, Lieutenant Nolan, of the 100th, rushed into the tower, regardless of what foes he might find. Next morning his body was found, pierced by a bayonet wound and a musket ball. Some of his men had seen him plunge into the darkness and followed him; and though too late to save him, took possession of the tower, slaying its defenders to a man. This resistance exasperated the British who rushed wildly about, bayonetting every American they met, and the carnage would have amounted to extermination, had not the British officers exerted themselves in the cause of mercy. In half an hour the fort was fully captured; all was quiet, and the panting victors sought to drown their excitement in sleep. Thus fell Fort Niagara, with such unexpected facility, as gave rise to a report that treason had contributed to its capture, it

being currently asserted that its commander, Captain Leonard, had betrayed it, by giving to the British General on that part of the frontier the necessary information and instructions. Certain it is, that Leonard, on the night of the assault, had left the fort and slept at his farm, about four miles distant, and that next morning, he rode into the fort in apparent ignorance of its capture—an ignorance not easily reconcilable with the firing, especially of the cannon, on the preceding night. The British lost in the assault Lieutenant Nolan and five men killed, and two officers and three men wounded, while the Americans lost sixty-five men and two officers killed, and twelve men wounded. In the fort were found several pieces of ordnance, of which twenty-seven were mounted on the works, besides small arms, ammunition, clothing and commissariat stores in abundance.

GOVERNORS:
FRENCH AND ENGLISH.

FRENCH GOVERNORS.

JACQUES CARTIER, the discoverer of Canada, of right in every sense, heads the list of the French Governors in Canada. On his second voyage, in braving the rigors of a Canadian winter, and shutting himself up for six months, without means of escape, among the aborigines whose amicable feelings towards the French he had every reason to distrust, he gave a signal example of the intrepidity of the mariners of his time. By his ascent of the river St. Lawrence in which he reached Sault St. Louis (now Lachine) he became the harbinger of successive French explorations, such as those of the shores of Hudson's Bay, of the Mississippi valley, and onward to the higher slopes of the Rocky Mountains. On his return to France in 1536, he found his native land distracted with religious dissensions, and his presence and his projects unheeded and disregarded. In the year 1540, however, attention was again turned to colonizing Canada, and Cartier was entrusted with the command of vessels to convey colonists thither. *Jean François de la Rocque*, Sieur de Roberval, received the right and title to govern in the king's name all the countries newly discovered. Delays and disputes arising, Cartier set out without him, wintering in the country; the colonists on landing, clearing spots of land for cultivation at what is now Quebec. In the spring following, the savages having manifested a very hostile spirit, he re-embarked his colonists and set out for France, just about the very time when Roberval was leaving there with three ships and about 200 colonists. The two governors met, some accounts state near Newfoundland, others at a short distance from Quebec; but the only fact we know for certain is that Roberval reached his destination in safety; that he sent home two of his ships to inform the king of his arrival, and to request that provisions might be sent him next year. We know also that 50 of his men perished during the winter of 1542-3, and that he started in June following with 70

men upon an expedition into the interior, hoping to be more fortunate than Cartier, and reach that country which the savages spoke of as abounding in provisions and precious metals. This exploratory voyage, was less encouraging than that of Cartier, and all we learn is that before the expedition returned to Quebec, one of his vessels sank, and eight of his men were drowned. Instead of succor arriving from France, Cartier was sent out to recal Roberval and bring him back to France, where his presence was needed. All whom Roberval took out with him, were, it seems, conducted back to France at the same time by Cartier. War having broken out, Canada was lost to the view of the rulers of France, but when the treaty of Cressy was signed, Roberval who had done the state great service in the battle-field, recalled the Royal attention to his enterprise, and in 1549, he organized another expedition to Canada, which however he was destined never to reach, as he perished on the passage with all his followers, including a brother as distinguished as himself. This catastrophe caused the French projects of colonization here to be suspended for a time. For nearly fifty years France was convulsed with war, and paid no attention to their Canadian possessions. But in 1598, private traders having established a traffic in peltries requested protection from the king, and

The Marquis de la Roche, of Brittany, obtained a royal confirmation of the charge of Lieutenant General or Viceroy of Canada, Acadia, and the lands adjoining. He was authorized to impress in every port of France, all ships, with every master, mariner and sailor in them, he might think needful for his expeditions. And not only so, but having gained a footing in America, he was empowered to levy troops, to make war or peace, and to build towns, within the limit of his vice-royalty; to promulgate laws and to execute them; to concede lands in feudal form and with feudal privileges; lastly to regulate the colonial trade at discretion. He brought out a considerable number of settlers, but was obliged to draw them chiefly from the prisons of Paris. Fearing their desertion, he landed 40 of them on Sable Island, at the entrance of the gulf of St. Lawrence. He then passed on to Acadia, and returning thence was driven by a tempest back to France, where he had scarcely set foot, when he was taken prisoner, and for five years was unable to apprise the king of the particulars of his voyage. He had embarked his entire fortune in the enterprise, and lost all of it that remained in succeeding misfortunes which awaited him through its means. He had set his heart upon realizing a noble project, and it had signally failed. The chagrin which consumed his mind was yet stronger than his regret at the dilapidation of his finances, and both work-

ing together consigned him to an early grave. He was censured by some of his contemporaries for imputed faults, but he could not rightly be blamed for the failure of plans which he had no fair opportunity of carrying out; while in our day his memory must be held in respect for his enthusiasm.

Chauvin, of Rouen, next in 1599 obtained a royal grant in his own favour of all the powers and privileges conceded to LaRoche. He had been taken into partnership with Sieur de Pontgravé of St. Malo, who held a monopoly of the fur trade both in Canada and Acadia. Armed with the royal authority he sailed for Canada, and landed a dozen men at Tadousac, but in such forlorn plight that they would have died of hunger during the winter, had they not been succoured by the natives. He made two successful voyages to the same place, but in the course of a third voyage he was taken ill and died. But little is known of his administration, except that personal motives of traffic seem to have actuated his movements. His mantle fell on the shoulders of

Commander de Chastes, Governor of Dieppe, who was now invested (1603) with all the privileges granted to Chauvin. Trading interests were a secondary consideration with him, till Pontgravé showed him how needful the profits attending a monopolising traffic would be found to defray the cost attending the work of colonization, and persuaded the Commander to join with him in forming a trading society, which Samuel Champlain, a distinguished naval officer, was invited to command. With three barks, each but of twelve or fifteen tons burden, Champlain set sail. Arrived in Canadian waters, he, accompanied by Pontgravé, ascended the St. Lawrence as far as Sault St. Louis, but found it impossible to pass the rapids, and so gave up the attempt they proposed of examining the interior of the country. Champlain returning to France showed a chart and relation of his voyage to the King, who promised his countenance to all future expeditions. Meanwhile de Chastes having died, his functions devolved upon

Pierre de Gua, Sieur de Monts, Governor of Pons, and an attendant about court. To him in 1604 was accorded the monopoly of the fur traffic in all parts of America lying between Cape Raze in Newfoundland, up to the 50th degree of north latitude. De Monts was a Calvinist or Huguenot, and was allowed the free exercise of his religion for himself and friends, but on condition that he should establish the Catholic religion among the natives, and attempt no part in proselytizing. He was a man of superior talents and much experience, and was distinguished as one ever zealous for the glory of his country. Four ships were manned

and victualled at his request in which several gentlemen volunteers, some soldiers, and a number of skilled artisans embarked. Preferring Acadia to Canada, this expedition landed at Rossignol (now Liverpool). Scurvy however attacking his men during the winter he abandoned the settlement, and traversing the Bay of Fundy, he founded Port Royal, (now Annapolis) and himself returned to France in 1605. Here from complaints made against him, he was deprived of his commission for ten years, but in 1607 received a renewal of his privileges for one year, sailing in 1608 with Champlain as his lieutenant for Tadousac, for the express purpose of making a settlement. The latter forthwith set about exploring the country, and made friendly terms with the Indians. De Monts was unable to obtain at the expiration of his year, a renewal of his monopoly of the peltry traffic, adverse interests proving more potent than his credit at court could overcome ; yet despite the competition of other parties, he was still hopeful of realizing enough to balance the outlay occasioned by the needs of the infant colony, and confiding in his fortunes equipped two vessels which sailed for Quebec. The sudden death of the French King, and the change in the government of that country forced him to renounce his plans entirely. Champlain then by securing influence at court, obtained the appointment of

Charles de Bourbon, Count de Soissons, as Lieutenant General of Canada. The letters bearing his appointment were dated October, 1612. He delegated to Champlain all the duties of his office and scarcely were the letters issued when De Soissons died. Champlain was again in difficulty, but he was promptly relieved from it by

The Prince de Condé consenting to take up the functions of Governor, who deputed Champlain to act in his place.—In 1616, however, the Prince being, not only in disgrace, but in confinement for the share taken by him in the disturbances during the minority of Louis XIII., made an arrangement with

The Duke de Montmorency, High Admiral of the fleet, for the purchase of his office of Viceroy, on payment of 11,000 crowns.—Champlain was confirmed by the new titular in all his functions, and Montmorency from his position, took a warm interest in the affairs of the colony, and in forwarding the objects of the colonists. During his tenure of office, continual disputes were occurring respecting commercial matters, and numerous ineffectual attempts were made to degrade Champlain. Hitherto, the office of Viceroy had been little more than a name, but in 1625, the Duke wearied out by the troubles his titular governorship had called down upon him, ceded his functions to his nephew

Henry de Levy, Duc de Ventadour. This nobleman had entered a monkish order, intending to pass his days in religious exercises. He took charge as Viceroy of the affairs of Canada, solely with a view to the conversion of the heathen, without regard to the advancements of the country as a Colony of France. Missionary progress absorbed his whole attention, from first to last. During the first year of his sway, he sent out, at his own expense, five Jesuit priests. Champlain, meanwhile, was acting as secular governor, and continuing as such after the Duc de Ventadour, at the instigation of Cardinal Richelieu, he ceded his rights and interests to the "Company of the Hundred Partners," when in 1628, Canada passed from a royal to a commercial regime. This Company was directly under the protection of Richelieu, and the French writers of the day speak of it very favorably. His plans were, however, frustrated by the breaking out of the war between France and England, in the same year, and from the ill-conditioned state of Quebec, and famine staring its inhabitants in the face, Champlain was compelled to surrender the city, and with it the country and its governorship, to

Louis Kerkt, 1629. He installed himself as English Governor, treated the citizens with kindness, and supplied the pressing bodily wants of the people, whose ruler he had become. A majority of the colonists concluded to remain, but Champlain returned to France.—A treaty of peace between the two nations having been effected, Kerkt in 1632, resigned Quebec again into the hands of the French, and

Samuel Champlain, re-appointed Governor, took administrative charge of the colony. Recollecting the many efforts hitherto made by France to defend Canada, he sought to attach to her interest the native tribes, the Harons more especially, to whom he sent missionaries to preach the gospel.—Immigration to the colony sensibly increased, and among the new comers, were many rural labourers and artisans of the more useful kinds, besides a number of persons of good family.—In 1635, the colony received a heavy blow in the death of Champlain, which took place on Christmas day. Champlain was born at Brouage; his first calling was a mariner, and as such he distinguished himself in the service of Henry IV. of France. Endowed with sound judgment and quick perception, he conceived quickly, and followed up his plans (all eminently practical) with a perseverance that no obstacles could discourage. Thirty years of untiring efforts to establish and extend the French possessions in America, often under the most unpromising circumstances, prove the inflexible steadiness of the resolution he brought to his great

task—the exaltation of New France. And this he chiefly effected, not by military or naval force,—for he had little of either at command,—but by equitable diplomacy and christianizing influences. He has been censured for waging war against the Iroquois, but it was not a war of his own making; and he was always ready to listen to reasonable proposals for the cessation of hostilities. Champlain has left us a relation of his voyages and expeditions, which gives valuable notices on the geography and physical aspect of the countries he visited. He was of a religious turn of mind, but like many of his compatriots, mistrusted the Jesuits. We are told he was of a comely visage, a noble and soldierly bearing, and a vigorous constitution. He crossed the Atlantic fully a score of times. His successor was

M. DE CHATEAUFORT, of whom we know little more than his name. He was quickly replaced by

M. DE MONTMAGNY, 1635, Knight of Malta, who resolved to follow out the system adopted by Champlain. He contrived by a happy union of firmness with conciliation to make his authority respected among all the tribes. The indefatigable exertions of the missionaries, and the results attending them at this time, threw a lustre on his administration, and gave him personally a certain celebrity throughout Europe.—He was recalled in 1647, and this occasioned great surprise in the colony; it was however, merely a necessary result of a general management just entered into by the court, for the Governor of the French islands in America, had refused to resign his governorship to a successor, and persisted in retaining his post, despite the royal orders. To provide against the recurrence of such an event, the Council of State determined, that all Governors of French dependencies should be changed every three years, and it was in consequence of this, that M. de Montmagny was superseded by

LOUIS D'AILLEBOUST in 1647, who had come to Canada previously in command of colonists for the Island of Montreal, which settlement he for a short time governed. Afterwards, promoted to the command of Three Rivers, he gained great experience in the needs of the country, but he took the lead at a critical time. The war of the Iroquois against the Huron tribes broke out a second time, the latter being dispersed, and the former tribe flushed with victory lording it over Canada, virtually blockading the French forts. In 1650, Mr. D'Aillebоust retired from office, and perhaps not the least of his official mortifications was that of being constrained by the force of circumstances to look on, a passive spectator of the suffering among the contending tribes. After demitting his functions, he settled and died in the colony.

M. DeLauzon arrived in 1651, as the successor of Mr. D'Ailleboust. He was one of the chief members of the "Company of the Hundred Partners," and had always taken a leading part in its affairs, but he did not manifest the same activity or tact as a colonial administrator in chief. But affairs were in a very discouraging state on his arrival. During his tenure of office, a body of colonists from Brittany, all picked men, alike fit for peace or war, reached Montreal. This reinforcement was of great utility; for the Indians had become so insolent that the colonists had to till their ground, under cover of arms, and to play the part of soldier and labourer at one and the same time. The news of this arrival was a check to the inroads of the savages, and lead to a treaty of peace between them and the settlers. War having broken out between several of the tribes, some of the Hurons took refuge in Quebec, and when demanded by their victors, the Governor was weak enough to deliver them up to the delegates sent to demand them. The news of this having reached France, gave great dissatisfaction, and M. DeLauzon was superseded by an order from the French ministry.

Viscount D'Argenson, appointed Governor of New France, landed in Quebec 1658. His first act was to request reinforcements of men, trained to war and industry, from France, frankly expressing his belief that if succour were not accorded, Canada would be irretrievably lost. In addition to the civil troubles, religious quarrels began to manifest themselves, till in 1661, M. D'Argenson was induced from disease, misunderstanding, and a repugnance to dissension, to solicit a recal before his period of service had expired. He was succeeded by

Baron D'Avaugour in 1661, who had gained great distinction in the wars of Hungary. He was of resolute temperament and unbending character, and brought into the affairs of Canada the rigidity that he had contracted in military service. His decisive measures saved Canada. He represented its defenceless state and natural beauty, to the Court of France, in such forcible language that it excited a deep interest there. An agent was despatched to Paris to urge his request for troops, and 400 regulars were forthwith sent to Quebec. A commissioner was appointed to repair to the colony and report upon it, but at the moment when salutary reforms and a happier future were in view, new dissensions arose between the Governor and bishop, which put the whole colony into commotion, and for the time being caused all else to be forgotten. During this governorship occurred the remarkable series of earthquakes alluded to elsewhere. The bishop anxious to defend his own cause found it expedient to

proceed to France, where he not only obtained a complete justification for himself, but a royal order for the recall of M. D'Avaugour in 1663. Though his administration was of short duration, it was remarkable for the changes effected in the colony. He did much by his energy and remonstrances, to induce the King to labour seriously for the advancement of Canada. His quarrel with M. Laval, the bishop, disclosed the grave inconveniences attending the absence of a judicial administration. Having no interest in the "Company of a Hundred Partners," M. D'Avaugour persuaded Louis XIV. to break it up and to resume possession of territorial jurisdiction over the colony, which he had conceded to a trading association.

The Chevalier DeSaffray-Mesy, ex-major of the citadel of Caen, having been appointed to succeed Baron D'Avaugour, left France early in 1663, and landed at Quebec in the spring of that year. He came charged with orders to inaugurate a new governmental system for the colony. Few, if any, of the Governors of Canada owed their elevation to such motives as those, which caused the choice to fall on M. de Mesy. His youth had been spent in dissipation, but a striking renunciation of his evil courses, a strict observance of the external forms of religion, and above all his apparent humility recommended him to the favourable notice of the Canadian prelate (then in France) who urged his appointment, on the King. As he was personally insolvent, the King ordered him a considerable sum of money to pay his debts, and he forthwith set out with his episcopal patron, the latter not doubting that he had in charge one of the best of men, and a docile coadjutor for himself. Soon after his arrival however, divisions arose respecting the syndicate which finally brought about a fixed enmity between the Governor and the Bishop. The King had empowered these two to nominate conjointly every year the members of the Council; but M. de Mesy arbitrarily suspended a majority of the councillors, appointing others by his single authority. The Bishop in the meantime had become very unpopular, and the people thus sided with the Governor, while the clergy of course made common cause with their chief. Accusations against the Governor were sent to court, and through the influence of the Jesuits they were at once listened to, His Majesty being particularly dissatisfied with M. de Mesy for having appealed to the inhabitants. His recall had already been agreed on, and he was succeeded by

The Marquis de Tracy, who reached Canada in June 1665, filling the joint character of Viceroy and Lieutenant General. He brought out the whole regiment of DeCarignan, whose officers

soon became the chief seigneurs of the country. Military protection was thus afforded against the Indians, which brought about a treaty of peace that lasted eighteen years. DeTracy continued in authority only about a year and a half, carrying back with him to France the affection of the people. He maintained a state which had never before been seen in Canada, his body-guard wearing the same uniform as the Garde Royale of France. He always appeared on state occasions with these guards, twenty-four in number, who preceded him, while four pages and five valets followed him. Before returning home he placed the country in a state of defence, and put the West India Company in possession of its reserved rights.

Daniel de Remi, Seigneur de Courcelles, who had been nominated to replace De Mesy, and who appointed De Tracy as viceroy in his place till he was able to assume command, being detained in France from personal causes, next assumed the office in 1667. During his administration little doubt was entertained as to the permanency of the colony. The inhabitants began to extend their settlements, officers and soldiers had liberal grants made to them, and a free trade was granted to the country generally. During the governorship of M. de Courcelles, the small pox ravaged the Indian tribes, carrying off more than half of their number. The qualities of De Courcelles, were of a solid nature, his experience had been extensive; of a decided character he was firm in his determinations, yet prudent in carrying them out; he had, above all, a quality precious in an administrator, a forecast of coming difficulties, and a rare talent in avoiding or evading them. Having requested his recall, on his return from a journey to Cataraqui, where he had fixed upon a spot for a fort near the site of the present city of Kingston, he found his place supplied by

Louis de Buade, Count de Frontenac, who arrived in Canada in 1672. He was able, active, enterprising, and ambitious, but proud, overbearing and subject to capricious jealousies, which sometimes obscured his brilliant talents. His plans for the aggrandisement of Canada were splendid and just, but he possessed a spirit which could not brook contradiction. Ever jealous of his power, his tendencies were despotic. He had received ample instructions before his departure from France, for his guidance in office. But he took the government into his own hands; for having neglected some of his orders, he imprisoned the intendant-general M. de Chesnau; he exiled the procurator-general; the governor of Montreal he put under arrest, and the Abbé de Salignac, Fenelon, then superintending the Seminary of the Sulpicians at Montreal, he imprisoned for having preached against him.

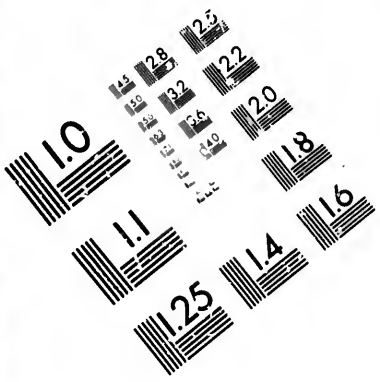
His principal opponent was the Bishop, who opposed the sale of spirits to the Indians, but which the Count considered a necessity, to attach them to French interests. The matter was referred to the Court of France, and the traffic prohibited, though it is asserted that private correspondence intimated, the Governor was to use his own discretion. The final result was, the Governor General became more than ever alienated from his intendant, who had espoused the side of the Bishop, and the dissensions rose to such a pitch that it became needful to recall not only the governor but his intendant. This occured in 1682. His departure was a triumph for the Laval party, but it was destined to be the last. That the success of the Count had lasted for ten years, was not so much due to his talents, but to the influence he possessed at court during all that time. He was a relation of Madame de Maintenon, and the Countess de Frontenac who had never set foot in Canada, passed for one of the highest ornaments of High life in Paris, and thus possessed unlimited influence.

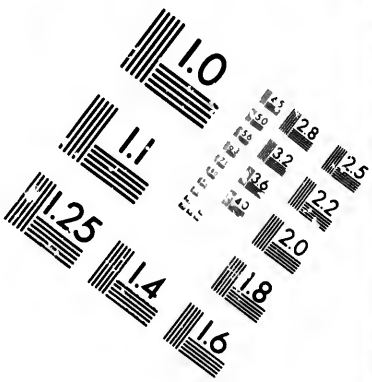
M. Lefebvre de la Barre, nominated Governor General, arrived from France during the summer of 1682. He was a marine officer, who had distinguished himself against the English in the West Indies, from whom he took the Islands of Antigua and Montserrat. Soon after his appointment the Iroquois assumed a tone of defiance, and made formidable preparations for war. He thereupon convoked a meeting of the chief governmental officers and spiritual authorities, who drew up a detailed report of the state of affairs for furtherance to France, urging an immediate reinforcement of men. In reply to this, 200 soldiers were sent out, and La Barre finding that the Governor of the English Colonies (New York) was exciting the Iroquois against the French, led an expedition in person against them. Receiving a deputation from the hostile tribes, he assumed a lofty tone, and concluded by saying that unless reparation were made for injuries already sustained at their hands with a promise to abstain from them for the future, war and the devastation of their country must ensue. His provisions however having failed through his tardiness, and disease having broken out amongst and thinned his troops, the Indians were shrewd enough to perceive that he was destitute of the means of executing his threats. A patched up peace having been agreed upon, most humiliating to the French, the troops were marched back. As soon as the news of this reached the French Court it was determined to recall LaBarre, and to withold his Majesty's ratification of this "shameful peace" as it was officially styled. He was superseded by the

Marquis de Denonville, a Colonel of dragoons, who brought with him a detachment of 600 regular troops (1685).

He was a brave officer, and a man of a religious turn of mind, indued with a lofty sense of honour and polished in his manners. Directly after his arrival he set out for Cataraqui (Kingston) to reconnoitre, but soon declared his conviction that the Iroquois could never be conciliated, and that it was necessary either to extirpate them or to reduce them to a state of entire dependence. He proposed the erection of a strong fort at Niagara, capable of sheltering a garrison of 400 to 500 men. An instance of treachery stains the character of Denonville. Having under various pretences assembled a number of the chiefs at Fort Frontenac, he put them in irons and sent them off to France, to work in the galleys as "revolted subjects of the great monarch Louis XIV." In return for this the Indians razed Fort Niagara to the ground, attacked Fort Frontenac and committed many depredations, plundering property and scalping the inhabitants. The winter of 1688-9 passed in an unusually tranquil manner, and the summer was pretty well advanced when the Iroquois as a crowning act of revenge devastated the Island of Montreal, laying it waste with fire, killing 1000 of the colonists, and carrying off 200 prisoners. On hearing of this Denonville lost his self possession altogether, and it was judged necessary to place at the head of affairs an officer possessing energy of character and address in dealing with the natives. Denonville was plainly unequal to the occasion, and there is little doubt that had he not been recalled by royal order, the colonists themselves would have set him aside. The latter season of his inglorious administration took the name of "The year of the Massacre." The Governor appointed to supersede him was

The Count de Frontenac, who undertook to resume his duties as Governor General of New France. He landed at Quebec on the 18th of October 1689, accompanied by De Callières, and the captive chiefs whom Denonville had so injustly seized. His return was hailed by all, and by none more than by the Jesuits, who had in fact for years been labouring for his recall. France at this time had to combat five European powers, and her colonists, who had no personal interest in the contest were yet expected to aid in carrying it on, at least against their British neighbours.—The first blow was struck in the Hudson Bay Territory, where two English war vessels which had come to proclaim William III. and take possession in his name, were captured. A maritime expedition against New York was got up, and Frontenac visited Acadia, on his return from which he found the Iroquois had assumed an overbearing spirit, and were at the gates of Montreal. With his wonted sagacity, he saw that it was only by daring action, Canada could be saved. If he could not capture





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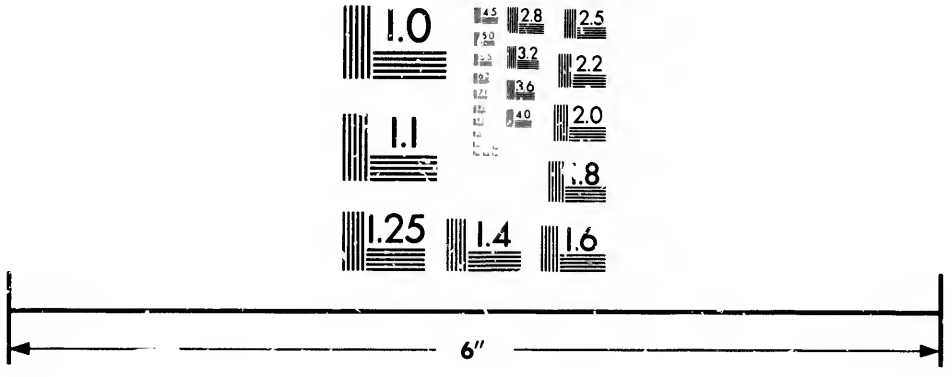

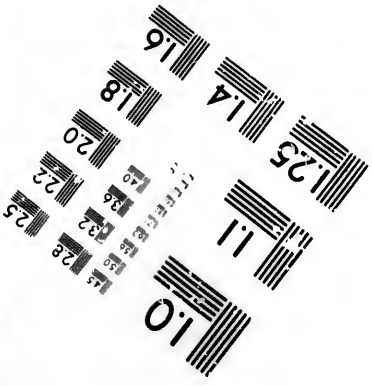

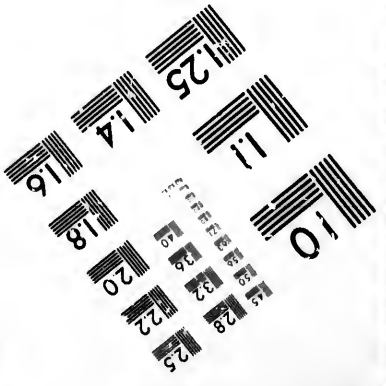

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a province he could at least cause much disquiet to its people—the great point was to strike at once. The English settlements were surprised and pillaged, and Schenectady was sacked and its inhabitants massacred; and the horrors of Indian warfare were let loose upon the inhabitants. This proceeding roused the ire of the British colonists and an attack was planned on Canada by land and inland navigation on the southern frontier, and by a fleet sent from Boston to attack Quebec. The latter was under the command of Sir Wm. Phipps, and is described under the chapter Sieges of Quebec. The attack by land did not take place, owing to a want of concert between the parties, and Frontenac was thus enabled to concentrate all his strength and oppose the plans of the English with vigilance and success. In 1691 Frontenac dwelt much and often in his despatches to the French Court, on the importance of the American fisheries, stating that he believed the English colonists coveted Canada not so much for its own sake as to make the possession of it, a stepping-stone towards securing their mastery over the Newfoundland and other fisheries in the northern waters. In 1692 by the unremitting vigour of his measures he secured the defence of the colony so that the inhabitants could till their land, and the fur trade was renewed and carried on with considerable advantage. In 1694 the Iroquois made overtures of peace, and in 1696 doubting their pacific intentions, he took more active measures, and marched all his forces out from Cataraqui being himself carried in the centre in an elbow chair, his age (76) preventing him from marching. Negociations were finally entered into and ratified by the treaty of peace signed at Ryswick 1697, when the English and French governors mutually entered into arrangements for maintaining harmony among the Indians. In 1698 Louis, Count de Frontenac died, in the 78th year of his age, upwards of twenty of which he had spent in Canada. He preserved to the last the vigor of temperament he had in youth. What he did in the latter part of his career (the most critical period of the colony's annals) to raise the country from its depression under the way of his predecessor, endeared him to the Canadians. His great personal abilities secured him the confidence of his king, the respect of his officers, and the esteem of the Indians. It was urged against him by his enemies that he intermingled in the operations of traffic, which every high colonial official ought to have eschewed. But it must be remembered he was the scion of an impoverished though illustrious house, and was sent out to Canada for the double purpose of secluding his penury from the the observation of his compeers, and enabling him to return among them with improved fortunes. He was buried in the Recollet Church, at Quebec, which formerly stood near the site of the present English Cathedral. He was succeeded by

Le Chevalier de Callières, (1698) who was well experienced in the affairs of the colony, and liked by the soldiery for his intrepridity. His sound judgment, penetrating spirit and disinterestedness of character, had long made him acceptable to the Canadians, and the savages pliant to his will. In 1700 he effected a general pacification among the Indian tribes, which had scarcely been concluded when war again broke out in Europe, and England conceived the bold idea of uniting within her territory the whole of North America. At this juncture the death of De Callières, May 26, 1703, placed Canada, in a critical position, and endangered the French power in the Colony.

The Marquis de Vaudreuil succeeded him the same year, and for several years managed to preserve the colonists from being molested. In 1708 he carried warlike operations into the British frontier settlements though with little success, and was soon compelled to resume a defensive position. In 1711 a combined land and sea expedition against Canada took place, but the British fleet owing to tempestuous weather and ignorance of the coasts, was obliged to return to Boston, having lost eight vessels and 884 officers and men. In 1713 peace was restored between France and England by the treaty of Utretcht, and in 1714 the Marquis de Vaudreuil went to France, leaving those whom he could depend upon in charge of his office, and did not return till after the demise of Louis XIV, an event the news of which he was the first to announce as well as the accession of the child King Louis XV, and the formation of a regency. The Marquis now availed himself of the peace to strengthen the fortifications of Montreal and Quebec, to train the military, erect barracks, and strengthen all the means of defence, intimating that Quebec once taken, Canada were lost to France. During the remainder of his administration the colony prospered under his firm, vigilant and just government until his death in 1726, universally lamented. He was succeeded the same year by

The Marquis de Beauharnais, a commodore in the royal navy, in which he had gained distinction in by-gone years, and who had filled some important posts afterwards. His ambitious administration excited greatly the alarm of the English colonists of New York and England. He continued in power twenty years, and diligently employed himself in promoting the interests of the colony. He erected the important fort at Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, with several others, for the purpose of keeping the English within the Alleghany Mountains, and preventing their approach to the Lakes, the St. Lawrence, Mississippi and its tributaries. In 1734 M. de Beauharnais, believing that the frontier

question might any day plunge the colonists and American settlers into war, wrote a despatch in cipher, suggesting means to be taken to set the colony in a state of defence against invasion, but without effect. He extended alliances between the French and the natives, and strengthened the forts at Chambly and Niagara. In 1745 war having broken out between England and France, the colonial dependencies of the two nations had perforce to go to war also. The American waters swarmed with French privateers, of which Louisbourg was the head-quarters. In 1745 a British naval and military force captured that place, and reduced Cape Breton, the re-capture of which was strongly urged by M. de Beauharnais, whose representations were this time listened to, and an expedition for the purpose got up, which, however, became a total failure, the very elements conspiring to scatter and destroy the fleet.

The Marquis de la Jonquière was appointed to succeed M. de Beauharnais in 1746, but was shortly after taken prisoner by the British off Cape Finisterre, together with two squadrons conveying transports and merchant ships bound for the dependencies of France in America.

Count de la Galissonière was nominated in 1747 to fill his place; he arrived in Quebec in September, bringing news of an approaching peace. He was a distinguished marine officer, who at a later time became illustrious by a victory he gained over Admiral Byng. He was active and enlightened as a civilian, and spent in scientific studies such leisure as his public duties allowed. "He had a great heart and a beautiful mind seated in a mean body, for he was low in stature and deformed in person." He governed Canada only two years, but he gave during that brief time a strong impulse to its administration, and much good counsel to the French ministry. He turned his attention at the outset to the Frontier question, which after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, became a leading topic. While engaged in giving solidity to the frontier barriers he was replaced by

The Marquis de la Jonquière in 1749, who, in virtue of his commission of 1746, as soon as he was liberated, sailed for Canada. Galissonière communicated to him all the knowledge he had himself obtained of the state of the colonies, and confided to him every plan and intent he thought befitting for their safety and retention. He was one of the ablest naval officers of France, had an imposing air, but his mental acquirements, it is said, were not great. He tarnished his reputation by an inordinate love of wealth, and his avarice laid him open at last, after accumulating

a large fortune, to attacks which hastened his death. He accused the Jesuits of trafficking in furs, and in return soon felt their vengeance. They accused him to the ministry of monopolizing the fur traffic of the upper country, and of favouritism in his appointments of public officers. Being called upon to reply to the accusations preferred, he affected to ignore them, and finished by demanding his recall. Before that could arrive, his bodily powers severely affected by mental irritation, and impaired by age and the fatigues of an over-active career, seemed to give way at once, and he expired at Quebec May 17th, 1752, where his remains were deposited beside those of Frontenac and Vaudreuil, who like him had died in gubernatorial harness.

Baron de Longueuil administered the province till the arrival of the new Governor the same year in the person of

The Marquis DuQuesne de Menneville.—He was a captain in the royal marine, and had been recommended by M. de Gallissonière. His instructions were to follow up the policy of his two immediate predecessors. War was now become imminent. The militia were called out and the discipline which had slackened was re-established. Duquesne appears more openly than any other governor to have carried on the system of encroaching on the British colonies, and the Fort at Pittsburgh bearing his name, was erected within the confines of Virginia. The reforms instituted by the governor raised a violent opposition to him, headed by the Intendant Bigot, who was in this as in many other cases, the evil genius of Canada. The treasury in France was at this time empty, and the cabinet begrudging the cost of retaining Canada as a French dependency, very few soldiers were sent out for its defence. At this crisis M. Duquesne asked to be recalled, and transferred to the marine service. His departure caused no regret, though he had been very heedful of all the colony's wants; but his haughty bearing made him unpopular. Before leaving he endeavoured to bind the Iroquois to French interest, but without effect, as they always sought to maintain their independent position between the French and British colonies.

The Marquis de Vaudreuil de Cavagnal, Governor of Louisiana was promoted to the governorship of New France early in 1755. He was son of the former governor of that name. He was joyously greeted by the people on his arrival, who regarded him the more for being a compatriot, and remembering the pleasant times of his fathers' sway, trusting they would return under the government of the son. His administration was auspiciously opened by the defeat of Braddock, but a damper was soon after

thrown on it by the disaster of Crown Point. As winter came on death was in the land, and absolute famine imminent. The year's harvest had failed, while extraordinary supplies were wanted to subsist the troops. The governor demanded of the French ministry, reinforcements, which arrived under the command of major general Montcalm in 1756, together with a large supply of provisions. On landing he proceeded to Montreal to hold a conference with the governor, who had gone there to be nearer to the seat of war. Montcalm soon obtained a series of successes, but his victory was obtained by the massacre of 2,000 English prisoners by the Indian allies of the French,—a deed which completely roused the indignation of the English, and led to those mighty preparations which destroyed the power of France in America. Dissidences arose soon after between Montcalm and the governor, an honest but weak minded man, who had been mystified by Bigot to such an extent as to be entirely at his disposal, and the battle of Carillon only increased the discord; Montcalm writing to the French ministry that the governor's acts had exposed him without the proper means of defence to the enemy's blows, whilst Vaudreuil demanded the recall of Montcalm under the pretext that the general had not the qualities needful for directing a Canadian war. In reply, conciliatory missives were addressed by the ministry in the king's name to both, strongly recommending union and concord; Vaudreuil received the grand cross of the order of St. Louis, and Montcalm was promoted to a lieutenant-generalship. Montcalm made vigorous preparations for defending Quebec and the campaign of 1759 was opened with a plan of combined operations by sea and land, and the siege of Quebec together with the battle of the Plains of Abraham (see sieges and battle fields) terminating in the death of Montcalm and the capture of Quebec, caused M. de Vaudreuil to remove the seat of government to Montreal, whither he himself retired. In 1760, the French under general Levis attempted the recapture of Quebec, but failing, Vaudreuil determined to make his last stand on behalf of French dominion in Montreal, for which purpose he called in all his detatchments and concentrated his strength. But finding himself entirely surrounded he called a council of war, at which it was decided that an advantageous capitulation would be preferable for the people and more honorable for the troops, than a resistance which could defer the entire reduction of the country only for a few days. The surrender was then made and the capitulation signed September 8, 1660. When quitting the country M. de Vaudreuil paid this homage to its people in a letter to the ministry. "With these beautiful and vast countries, France loses 70,000 inhabitants of a rare quality—a race of people unequalled for their docility, bravery and loyalty." Vaudreuil, on his return to France, was thrown into

the Bastile, which affront he owed perhaps as much to the criminating insinuations of Montcalm's partisans, as to the more perfidious calumnies of Bigot. He had to govern Canada during the most thorny time of its history. He returned to France a poor man, after serving the king fifty-six years. To support his rank in Canada, he was forced to sell some plantations he had acquired while governor of Louisiana. He had even sacrificed like Montcalm and De Levis his salary, in order to supply, towards the close of the war, what the state did not furnish. Thus all his fortune, as he said himself, consisted in hopes founded on the king's beneficence. His defence was dignified; he repelled the insinuations of the really guilty, and disdained to attempt to justify himself by accusing others. At length December 10th, 1763, De Vaudreuil, was with five others, relieved from any accusation, and he died the next year less from old age than from vexation of spirit.

ENGLISH GOVERNORS.

FROM THE TIME OF THE CONQUEST.

General Sir Jeffery Amherst was in reality the first governor general of Canada under British rule arriving in Quebec in 1760. He divided Canada into three departments corresponding to the old divisions, and put them under martial law, locating Gen. Murray at Quebec, Gen. Gage at Montreal, and Colonel Benton at Three Rivers. After giving final instructions to the three lieutenant governors respectively, he left Canada for New York, and thence went to England. In his place

General Murray way appointed 1763. In obedience to his instructions he formed a new executive council, in which was vested along with himself, all executive, legislative, and judicial functions. If he was a stern, he was also an honourable and good hearted man; he loved such Canadians as were docile under his sway, with the affection that a veteran bears to his faithfullest soldiers. He was trammelled however in his beneficent tendencies by a knot of resident functionaries. A crowd of adventurers had come in the train of the British soldiery, and we learn from Murray's own despatches that " broken down merchants, tradesmen of bad repute, and blacklegs" made up the band of British Canadian residents. All the functionaries of government, as well as the judges moreover were to be of British race and professors of some Protestant faith. Murray disgusted with his charge thus expressed his sentiments: " When it had been decided to reconstitute civil government here, we were obliged to choose magistrates and select jurymen out of a community of some 400 or 500 traders, artisans and husbandmen, whose ignorance unfits them therefor, and causes them to be despised. It is not to be expected that such persons can help being intoxicated with the powers which have been unexpectedly put into their hands; or that they will

not hasten to manifest how skilful they are in exercising it. They cherish a vulgar hatred for the Canadian noblesse."

From the sympathy he showed for the Canadians, the leading British residents got up accusations against the Governor and council, which they transmitted to London; and the Canada traders in London presented a petition to the Board of Trade and Plantations, against his administration. Matters were carried to such a length in opposition to Murray, that the home government was forced to recall him. A committee of the privy council, appointed to investigate the charges against him, absolved him entirely.

Brigadier General Sir Guy Carleton was Murray's successor in 1766. Being directed by the British government to form a commission of inquiry regarding the administration of justice in the colony, he proposed the adoption of a system more conformable to Canadian wishes, viz,—that English criminal procedure should supersede French, and that the old civil laws of the colony should be restored without any modification. In 1769 he sailed for England to be examined on the state of affairs in Canada, leaving *M. Cramahe*, president of the Executive Council, as chief *pro tem.*, of the colonial administration. Carleton's administration and his advice on matters proved so acceptable that he was made major general and created Knight of the Bath. He returned to Canada in 1774, and inaugurated a new constitution. He formed a legislative council of 23 members, of whom 8 were catholics. Scarcely however had he time to complete his arrangements, when his attention was drawn to the frontier by the outbreak of the American Revolution. Taking command of the troops in person he was finally superseded by General Burgoyne, and in 1777, again set about improving the civil administration which needed numerous ameliorations. A militia ordinance passed about this time gave universal dissatisfaction, cries on all sides rising against it. In 1778 Carleton returned to England carrying with him whatever sincere esteem the Canadians had for the government set over them. He was replaced the same year by

General Haldimand, a Swiss by birth, who had long served in the British armies. He was a veteran soldier, severe in nature, imperious in manner, suited to lead battalions, but not for exercising civil functions. Set to rule a colony begirt with other colonies in a revolutionary state, he thought he should best discharge the trust reposed in him, by exercising inflexible rigour. His severities were aggravated by the successful progress of the United States against the British. A cry arising against the oppression of military service, he attributed it to the spirit of

revolt, causing hundreds to be arrested, culpable and innocent alike, upon mere suspicion of being seditiously minded. Accused parties were deprived not only of their liberty, but their fortunes were endangered. Detested by every one, he knew the fact, and solicited his recall two years before he left. Good intents however are recognizable on his part, through much of what he did,—his chief aim really being to preserve Canada as a British dependency. His administrative troubles did not terminate with his administration, which lasted six years. Several of those he had incarcerated followed him to England, and cited him before the British tribunals; though the English ministry put the prosecutors off with evasions, and finally ceased to attend to their representations. He left the administration of the Province to

Lieutenant Governor Hamilton in 1785, who was replaced the next year by

Colonel Hope; the latter very soon afterwards had to give way to Sir Guy Carleton reappointed governor, after having been called to the peerage with the title of

Lord Dorchester; he landed at Quebec in the month of October, 1785, invested with the title and functions of Governor General of all the British provinces in North America. On resuming the reins of power he found the country much agitated on the question of constitutional government. In 1791 a Bill was passed in the Imperial Parliament "dividing Canada into two Provinces, under the names of Upper and Lower Canada, each section to have a separate elective assembly." In 1792 Lord Dorchester having obtained leave to revisit England, transferred his functions for the time to

Major General Alured Clarke, during whose administration the first conjoint legislature took place. In 1793 Lord Dorchester again resumed the governorship. European troubles which threatened to extend to America and the governor's popularity, were probably the moving causes for the British ministry's engaging his lordship to take up the reins of the colonial government for the third time. His renewed presence was hailed by the Canadian population, but he was coldly received by the British sections, who found afterwards in the opening speech of the chambers, "expressions too favourable by far to Canadian representation in the legislature." He came charged with ample instructions for his guidance, and was empowered to nominate a new executive council, of nine members, four of whom were to be Canadians. At this time the public accounts were first published

for the information of the community. The annual revenue did not equal a third of the expenditure for the civil administration, the deficit being made up by the home government; the receipts were derived from duties on wines, liquors, licenses, fines and confiscations. In effect, it may be said, that taxation was then unknown in Canada. In 1795 the governor returned to England and was replaced by

General Prescott in the same year. There is reason to believe that his mind had become a prey to groundless inquietudes. Those who had been witnesses of the American revolution and French anarchy, thought that almost any kind of convulsion in Britain or her colonies might follow upon two such events, the results of which had so completely belied their preconceptions. The governor issued orders to arrest all persons who should endeavour by seditious discourse or disloyal plotting, to break the king's peace. Although the seats of war were far distant, the policy of the tory government was to advert to danger, as if enemies were close to the frontiers; this was intended to keep the people in fear of French republicanism. But an agitation manifested itself in the council on the subject of the crown lands, which the members had shamefully misappropriated. The governor sent despatches to London in which he characterized the management of these lands as a "fiscal nullity." He received in 1798 full instructions to remedy the evil, while the step he had taken gave great umbrage to the Board. Thence arose a division, first between the board itself and the Governor, and next between the Governor and the council. The members then treated him coldly. Prescott when he got into trouble with the chief functionaries, sought not popular support: he turned a hostile front to the inhabitants, and whether through the unfavourable interpretation of his instructions, or for some other reason, he gave a bad reception to the catholics, when they solicited the erection of new parishes. Neither the demands of the clergy, nor those of the people, nor even the applications of the assembly prevailed with him to reconsider his refusal. The people learned therefore with pleasure his recall. He was succeeded by

Robert Shore Milnes, Esq., (shortly afterwards baroneted), who came to Quebec in 1799, as *Lieutenant Governor*. The years 1800-1805 were a season of calm for Canada, despite the war hotly raging between France and Britain, though several subjects excited discussion among the ultras. The usurped possession of the Jesuits estates, the obstacles raised to the creation of new parishes, and a desire among the British to tax the land, became subjects of debate. Sir Robert had no full reliance on the loyalty

of the Canadians, and did not care to conceal his distrust. The parliamentary contention begun, there was no lack of subjects for keeping it going. Sir R. Milnes, however, left for Europe in 1805, leaving as his substitute, the oldest Executive councillor,

Mr. Dunn. During his administration, the first newspaper that dared to discuss in the colony, political questions, *Le Canadien* made its appearence. The Americans at this time, were propogating a report, that the Canadians only waited the appearance of the American flag among them, to rise in a body and join the American confederation. By way of contradicting it, Mr. Dunn in 1807, called up a fifth part of the colonial militia, and concurrently the Bishop addressed a pastoral letter to all his flock urging loyalty. At this critical time

Sir James Craig arrived as new Governor for Canada (1807.) He was a military officer of some repute, but as an administrator, too narrow minded and whimsical. He delighted in military pomp. *Le Canadien* having been pretty plain spoken as to measures adopted by him, the Governor determined to arrest its editor. This course was perhaps accelerated by the unsatisfactory state of the relations between America and England, which now seriously threatened to break out in hostilities. The military guard of Quebec was put on the alert, the sentinels doubled, and patrols promenaded the streets. The governor addressed the people in a long proclamation, shewing that he laboured under vague apprehensions, induced probably by the precarious state of his health, daily getting worse. This proclamation terminated with a request that the parish clergy would use their influence to discourage seditious tendencies; the proclamation was accordingly read in all the parish churches on the following Sunday. In a despatch of his forwarded to London in 1810, he stated that "the British and French colonists did not hold any intercourse; that among the Canadian population, the name of Britain was held in contempt; that the Canadians were sunk in gross ignorance; that they were drunken, saucy, and cowards in battle," and that "the anti-British party were doing all they could since Napoleon's successes in Europe, to bring about the loss of Canada to Britain, and eventuate its reconquest by the French. He also proposed to abolish the constitution. The latter proposal Lord Liverpool the Colonial Secretary refused, but urged a reunion of the two Canadas, and also spoke of making Montreal the seat of government. These matters however were deferred as Britain being engaged in a coalition against Napoleon, was unwilling to have another war with America on her hands, and was anxious consequently to conciliate the Canadians, who, though she repudiated them in

peaceful times, might be made useful auxiliaries in her behalf if war supervened. In 1811, Sir James Craig set out for Europe. His bodily frame had long been affected by a dropsy which proved mortal; he was tapped for it the second time shortly before he left. On his arrival in England he wrote to the Colonial Minister to excuse himself for returning home without leave. Lord Liverpool replied that the state of his health excused his uninvited presence in England, and added that the Prince Regent warmly approved of his conduct as Governor of Canada.

Sir George Prevost, Governor of Nova Scotia, a veteran officer, of Swiss origin, was appointed as the next Governor. He was a wise and moderate man, who possessed good sense, and used an impartiality in his dealings with all. On his arrival in Quebec, he set about calming public perturbation, and inducing oblivion of the animosity prevailing. He manifested perfect confidence in the loyalty of the Canadians, and strove to prove upon all occasions that the accusations of treason brought against them had made no impression on the British mind or his own. Soon a most lively sympathy sprang up between the governor and the people. The selection of such a man, and the royal instructions he was to follow out, were entirely due to the hostile attitude of Britain relatively to the United States. War between the two countries was now imminent. Sir George Prevost made a tour of observation through the district of Montreal, and along the frontier towards Lake Champlain. He examined the fortified posts, and noted the military positions on the right bank of the St. Lawrence. Everywhere he found the colonial population animated by the best spirit. The House authorized him to levy and equip 2,000 men, and in case of invasion or insurrection, to arm the whole militia of the country. When news arrived that war was proclaimed, the towns and villages of Canada already resounded with the clang of arms. The governor directed his regular troops to the frontiers, and confided the guardianship of Quebec, the key of the colony, to the city militia. After a series of battles, Sir George in person commanded an attack upon Plattsburgh, from which place however he was forced to retreat, losing his stores, artillery and baggage. This, however, was his misfortune, not his fault, attributable to his over readiness in obeying to the letter the rash orders sent him from head quarters. Soon after in 1814, the treaty of Ghent put an end to the war, whereupon Sir George repaired to Quebec, and summoned the Chambers to meet in January ensuing. The Assembly passed a resolution declaratory of its sentiments, that Sir George Prevost had ever distinguished himself by his energy, skill and sagacity, even under the most trying circumstances, adding as a solid token of the good-will of

the House towards him, a present of £5,000 sterling, for the purchase of a table service of plate. He then purposed setting out for England, where his presence was required, to reply to certain accusations against him, for his conduct in the expedition against Plattsburgh, copies of four charges intended to be brought against him, having been transmitted to him from the Horse Guards. He did not live however to meet his accusers face to face, for the winter having set in with rigor, his constitution never strong, was seriously affected by the fatigues and exposure attendant on his overland passage from Quebec, through a snow obstructed wilderness to St. John, New Brunswick, where he embarked for Britain. He died 5th January, shortly after his arrival in London. The court martial appointed to judge him never met; but the War Office publicly acknowledged the distinguished services he had rendered to the country, and the Prince Regent, as a kind of token of government contrition, accorded an honorable addition to the armorial bearings of the family.

General Drummond entered office, as a substitute *pro tem.*, for a regularly appointed governor. His first care was to fulfil the promises made of rewarding soldiers and militiamen, who had distinguished themselves in the late war. He wished to remunerate them with land grants, but there was no longer any disposable land for that purpose, and the department, from the abuses it had sustained, would not bear looking into.

He turned his attention also to another public establishment, the postal department, which he found so filled with abuses that he demanded the dismissal of its director. Leaving for England in 1816,

Major General Wilson officiated as Lieutenant Governor *pro tem.*

Sir John Cope Sherbrooke, who had been formerly Governor of Nova Scotia, superseded Drummond the same year, 1816. A more skilful and prudent administrator than Drummond, he commenced his official career by an act of beneficence which gained him the good-will of the public. Severe frosts taking place earlier than usual, ruined the crops in the district of Quebec, where the people were reduced to a state of want. The Governor hastened to send them means of subsistence, drawing some supplies from the King's stores, and purchasing more at his own risk of repayment. His office, however, proved very difficult, from the instructions sent out from the Colonial Office for his guidance. In a general way his prudent polity greatly moderated the ardor of partisanship in the colony; but he saw at a glance the difficulties

already existing, and which would be increased when the question of colonial finances came up. In 1818, he demanded his recall, on account of his failing health, and embarked for Europe shortly after the close of the session of that year. It is asserted that he was disgusted with the task he undertook to perform as Governor of Canada. It is not easy to say what was his real idea of the governmental polity best fitted for the colony. It is probable that he was discontented with all the parties he found in it. He was a man of much good sense, and of elevated perceptions, but who aware of the influence which his principal subordinates had with the Colonial Office, did not venture to contend with them. He was succeeded by

The Duke of Richmond, who had been governor of Ireland, and who was fain to pass from one vice-regal charge to another, to amend his fortune, which had been much impaired by extravagance. The high rank of this nobleman, the consequence that his name carried with it in Britain, inclined people to believe that his administration would be signalised by some important reforms, which might become a means for bringing to an end the divisions which were beginning to distract the country on the subject of its finances. He arrived at Quebec in 1818, accompanied by his son-in-law, Sir Peregrine Maitland, who had been selected as lieutenant governor for Upper Canada. The chief citizens of the capital hastened to offer their respects to his Majesty's distinguished representative; but this homage soon became less ardent, for such hopes of its object as those indicated above, quickly died away. Having himself squandered an immense patrimony, he was not the right sort of man to regulate public expenditure, and treated the matter of the public finances with the utmost disdain. On proroguing parliament he complimented one house, and censured the other. He wrote to the Colonial Secretary that the people were satisfied, and that perfect reliance might be placed upon them, should the Americans ever again invade the colony. He then made a tour in Upper Canada with a view of examining the different military positions which it might be proper to fortify, a subject which ever occupied the attention of the home government. Its intent in 1816 was to have the territory between Lake Champlain and Montreal in a state of nature, as the intermediate forests might serve for a barrier against the Americans, and orders were given to prevent the opening of roads in that direction, when the news reached England that settlements had been begun at Hemmingford. During his second tour in the Upper Province, he had proceeded as far as Richmond, since named after him, in the Ottawa district, where he was unfortunately bitten by a pet fox that was chained in the yard of a

hotel—some accounts state that the fox merely licked his hand on which there was a slight scratch, from the effects of which hydrophobia ensued, of which he died, after intense suffering, in a few hours, on the 20th August. His remains were taken to Quebec, where they were deposited with much pomp in the English cathedral, September 4th, 1819.

The Hon. Jas. Monk, senior councillor, and Sir Peregrine Maitland, governor of Upper Canada, temporarily administered the affairs of the colony.

The Earl of Dalhousie, who had been governor of Nova Scotia, was nominated the next Governor of Canada, arriving in Quebec, June 18, 1820. A few days after his arrival he repaired to Upper Canada, which he had already gone through with the late Duke. He again visited it in the following year, under a pretext of examining the parts best adapted for fortifications, but with the aim in reality of sounding public opinion, and reporting its several tendencies in both provinces, all in view of bringing about their union. A new Parliament was assembled, which the government expected would provide for the civil list. Instead of so doing, they resolved to appropriate all the revenue of the Province, which had been previously secured to the Crown. However popular Lord Dalhousie might have been in Nova Scotia, he was not so successful in Canada. Having estimated the amount necessary for the public service, in addition to the revenues vested in the crown, he solicited £22,000 as a permanent grant The Assembly however, positively refused to grant more than an annual supply bill. It was, at last, settled and agreed, that two estimates should be presented, the first embracing the government expenses, to be paid by funds of which the Crown claimed the entire disposal,—the second to be employed for general objects, of which the members had the entire control. Soon after the session closed, the Governor left for Britain, leaving Sir F. Burton in charge. The Governor returned in 1825, and early in the following year, he re-opened parliament, declaring that his sentiments and those of the assembly were entirely in accord. But on the new assembly chosing M. Papineau, he refused to approve of him, and they refused to elect another. The consequence was that all operations came to a dead-lock. The inhabitants of the Lower Province next petitioned the King, charging the Governor General with many arbitrary acts, of applying public money improperly, of violence, prorogation and dissolution of the House of Assembly, of dismissing militia officers for voting against his policy, &c. The whole was submitted to a committee of the House of Commons. After giving it serious attention, the latter

made several enactments to secure to the French Canadians the peaceful enjoyment of their religion, laws and privileges, and expressed their sorrow that the abuses complained of should have been so long allowed to exist in the colony. They retained however the power of the Crown over the revenues of the Province. In order to pave the way for a better understanding between the governing and the governed, it was announced that an order of recall had been sent to the Earl, as he had been appointed commandant of the forces of India.

Sir James Kempt, lieutenant governor of Nova Scotia replaced Lord Dalhousie. On calling a meeting of the Legislature, he formally accepted the election of M. Papineau, and made a conciliatory, mild and wise speech. He assented to a supply bill to carry on the public service, and he may be said to have effected a satisfactory understanding between the Legislature and the Executive Government. The representation of Lower Canada was increased from fifty to eighty-four members. A general election took place agreeably to this act, and soon after Sir James Kempt returned to England, having solicited his recall. He probably foresaw coming difficulties. He was replaced by

Lord Aylmer, who arrived at Quebec October 13th, 1830. With the same programme furnished to him as that of his predecessor, the new governor had yet greater opposition to encounter, for there was an augmented antagonism in the Assemby, the re-constituted chamber of representatives being composed of 60 French Canadians, and only 24 members of British birth or deseent. Continued demands were made on the Home Government, protests entered against the introduction of English laws, and the interposition of the British Parliament in colonial affairs. Lord Aylmer, who was a man of very sensitive temperament, was much affected by these renewed appeals. When the Assembly presented to him, for transmission to the King, one of their petitions, he protested on his own part a frank and open line of dealing, animadverting on dissimulation and underhand dealing as unworthy of the Government, urging the House to keep no other complaints in reserve. He expressed such sentiments of ingenuousness, that it left no doubt of his sincerity. In 1831, Lord Aylmer asked the Assembly to vote the remainder of the civil list, but the House rose without coming to a vote, which was tantamount to a rejection of his suit. In 1832 the Asiatic Cholera broke out with fearful malignity, increased no doubt in its severity by the landing of 52,000 emigrants in that year. Lord Aylmer had strongly urged the peopling of the Eastern Townships and Valley of the Ottawa with British Emigrants as the best way of settling the vexed question of the two

races in the colony—and the sudden influx of so many, bringing with them the germs of the disease then sweeping down its thousands in Europe, added fuel to the fire. Matters now began to come to a crisis. M. Papineau counselled the people to purchase no article from Britain, urged them to clothe themselves in Canadian manufactured stuffs, and drink home made beverages only, and thus dry up those sources of public revenue which the government needed. In 1836 Lord Aberdeen wrote to Lord Aylmer that he approved of his conduct, but that taking into consideration the perturbed state of the public mind in Canada, and conceiving that there was small hope of words of peace and conciliation from the Governor's lips being favourably listened to, some confidential person would be sent out with the title of royal commissioner. This was soon after done in the person of

THE EARL OF GOSFORD; an Irish nobleman, who had gained some repute in his own country through being, although a Protestant, an opponent of the Orange party. His firmness of character and his liberal opinions were much vaunted by his friends. Two persons were joined with him in the commission Sir Chas. Grey, and Sir James Gipps. But the discontent and opposition of the Lower Canada leaders grew more intense, and finally made a direct refusal to grant the supplies of Government. The *Habitants* were easily led on step by step by public meetings held in almost every parish where inflammatory speeches were made, and the tricolor flag displayed. The insurrection that ensued, known as the rebellion of '37, was soon put down by force of arms, and when matters had resumed their wonted quiet, Earl Gosford, who had long solicited it, was recalled. He received several valedictory addresses from the capital and neigbouring parishes, and left Quebec in February 1838, viâ the United States, visiting Philadelphia and Washington before embarking for Europe. The post was temporarily filled by *Sir John Colborne.*

THE EARL OF DURHAM was next prevailed upon by the British Government to take the office of Governor General. When nominated, he announced in the House of Lords that "while he would endeavour to make the supremacy of Britain to be respected in every part of the colony, he would patronize no section of the population especially, whether English, French or Canadian; but that he would administer justice to all, and extend to all an equal protection." He arrived at Quebec 29th May, 1838, under a salute of artillery, and with his suite amid a double line of soldiers, ascended in state to the Castle of St. Louis, where he took the oath with all the accustomed formalities. The Earl, being very fond of luxury and show, and who had acted as ambassador at

St. Petesburgh with great pomp in 1833, aspired to eclipse by a parade of vice-royalty all the splendour of preceding Governors of Canada. Two regiments of the Guards, with some hussars, had been sent out to await his arrival, and the parliament house was fitted up as a palace for him and his followers. One of his first acts was a general jail delivery of political offenders, and the issue of a proclamation allowing those who had fled out of the country to return to their homes, making exception however of the cases of fourscore individuals, whom he banished to Bermuda, there to be kept in strict surveillance, and to suffer the penalty of death if they returned to Canada without the permission of the Governor. This measure was greatly disapproved of in England. Lord Durham next made an extensive tour throughout the Province, and was every where received with marks of the greatest respect. He collected a great mass of information relative to Canada, which was afterwards printed and submitted to the British Parliament. On his return while he was holding an assembly at Quebec of all the Governors, and deputies from every province of British America, to deliberate on colonial matters, intelligence of the official disavowal of his policy with regard to the summary measures adopted by him towards the prisoners sent to Bermuda, decided him to resign his office, as, being of a very sensitive nature, it wounded him to the quick. At Quebec and Toronto addresses were voted by the British residents expressive of their regret at his departure and an address from Montreal strongly urged a Union of the Canadas. In his reply to the address from Quebec he stated " that the government here is reduced to a state of executive nullity and is now administered by two or three peers from their seats in Parliament. My post is there where your interests are really decided upon. In parliament I can defend your rights, and declare your wants and wishes." The Earl embarked for Europe along with his family on the 1st day of November, 1838, leaving the direction of the affairs of the Colony again in the hands of

Sir John Colborne, who had scarcely resumed office when the refugees from Canada in the United States, together with american sympathizers, organised an invasion of the country, in connexion with a pre-arranged rising of the people of both Canadas, and a renewal of the rebellion. Sir John who expected such an inroad immediately assembled the council, proclaimed martial law, arrested all suspected persons, and with a force of from 7000 to 8000 threw himself into the invaded region, which however was evacuated before his arrival. The American authorities established an armed force on its northern and western frontier to repress any violation of his limits. Their interposition however was

not much needed, for the rebels receiving little encouragement from the resident population, from their stinted supplies, and want of accord among themselves, gradually dispersed. The brief campaign ended, Sir John Colborne organized courts martial, for the trial of the most notable French Canadian prisoners. Thirteen of the number condemned, suffered on the scaffold. Soon afterwards Sir John Colborne was appointed Governor General of both Canadas and convoked his special council, February, 1839. A Bill was passed to continue the extraordinary powers which had been granted to Sir John Colborne during the insurrection, it being thought desirable rather to prevent, than to quell these insurrectionary movements. The bill for the Union had been introduced into the British house, and passed its first and second reading. The special council was continued and in the autumn of the same year the

Honble. Charles Poulett Thompson M. P., was sent as governor general, ostensibly with a view of bringing about a concurrence of all the Canadians in the views of the home government regarding our affairs. He arrived at Quebec in October, 1839, whence he set out almost immediately for Montreal, where he summoned the special council to meet him in November. The result of this was that all the members but three accepted the ministerial project of uniting the Provinces, both of which were to be represented equally in the New Legislature, to agree to a sufficient civil list, and that the charge of the principal part of the debt of Upper Canada, was to fall on the United Province. The Union came into operation in 1840. A few months after, a general election took place, and the Governor who had now assumed the title of Lord Sydenham, addressed the House in a sound and conciliatory speech which was well received. He did not live however to see his measures carried into execution. He fell from his horse, and died in great torture and was buried at Kingston, by his own desire. He was succeeded by

Sir Charles Bagot, 1841-2. The regret for the death of Lord Sydenham was universal throughout Canada. By his energy and wisdom he had rescued Canadian politics from the debasement of personalities and strife, and elevated them to the dignity of statesmanship. He had opened up new fields for provincial ambition, in the prosecution of comprehensive schemes of public improvements, public education, finance, trade and commerce. Under such circumstances, his successor Sir Charles Bagot arrived. The new governor had, however, many difficulties to contend with, as the smouldering embers of former strifes were frequently fanned into a flame, and many of the old party rivalries and passions

fiercely aroused. He nevertheless acted with great prudence, and called to his councils the chief of the reform party, then in the ascendant in the legislature. His health having failed, however, he was compelled to return to England, where he died shortly afterwards, aged 63. He was succeeded by

Lord Metcalfe, 1842-5. He had already distinguished himself as Governor in India and in Jamaica. His endeavour to mitigate what he felt to be the evil to the country of a mere party government, and appointments to office, led to a difference between himself and the members of his cabinet, and they resigned. They maintained that appointments to office under the Crown, should be made chiefly with a view to strengthen the administration, and upon the advice of ministers responsible to parliament. Sir Charles Metcalfe on the other hand maintained that the patronage of the Crown should be dispensed according to merit, irrespective of party objects, and for the sole benefit of the country. Other points of difference arose between the Governor and his Cabinet, which widened the breach. On an appeal being made to the country, the policy of Sir Charles was sustained by a majority of the electors, and he was shortly afterwards raised to the peerage as Baron Metcalfe. A cancer in his face soon afterwards compelled him to resign his office and return to England, where after a painful illness he died,—being the third Governor in succession who fell a victim to disease while in office. When ill health compelled him to resign,

General Lord Cathcart, Commander of the Forces, assumed the reins of government, till the arrival of

The Earl of Elgin, in 1847. Shortly after his arrival, the famine and fever which had desolated Ireland, drove multitudes to seek a home in Canada ; these brought fever and death with them, and pestilence for a time stalked through the land. Measures were promptly taken to provide for this calamity, and, in some degree, they mitigated the evil, but public attention was soon again directed to the political state of the country. Lord Elgin entered heartily into the discharge of his duties, exhibiting a comprehensiveness of mind and singleness of purpose, which gave dignity to his administration, and divested the settlement of public questions of that petty bitterness and strife, which had hitherto entered into political discussions. A general election took place in 1848, giving a large preponderance of the Reform party in the new House of Assembly. Lord Elgin at once surrounded himself with the chiefs of that party, and measures of the greatest importance to the country were passed by

the Legislature. One measure, however, produced a sudden ebullition of party violence, viz: an enquiry into the losses sustained during the rebellion by individuals, either from military necessity, or from lawlessness in 1837-8. The measure passed both Houses, and was assented to in the Queen's name by Lord Elgin. No sooner had he done so, than he was assailed in the streets of Montreal, the Houses of Parliament were fired, and they with their valuable library were almost totally destroyed. In consequence of this, Lord Elgin tendered his resignation, but the Queen declined to accept it, and raised him a step in the Peerage. The seat of government was removed to Toronto, and after a time the unfeigned respect of the great mass of the people towards Lord Elgin for the courage and ability he had displayed during an eventful crisis of history, returned. In 1853, the members of the House of Assembly were increased from 84 to 130. In 1854, Lord Elgin left Canada, having first procured the passage of the Reciprocity Treaty with the United States. He was succeeded by

Sir Edmund Head, 1854-60, who, although not equal to his predecessor as an able and popular governor, was remarkable for the various public matters he became associated with. The Grand Trunk Railway was completed, the Victoria Bridge opened, a line of Ocean Steamers established, the decimal system of currency introduced, the 100th Regiment raised, the Statutes of Upper and Lower Canada consolidated, and the munificent subscription of $80,000 sent to the Patriotic (Crimea) Fund. The closing period of Sir Edmund's administration was rendered still more memorable by the visit to Canada of the Prince of Wales and suite in 1860. On the retirement of Sir Edmund Head, he was succeeded by

Lord Viscount Monck. On his entering office, trade was greatly deranged, in consequence of the civil war raging in the United States, and the unwarrantable seizure of the British steamer *Trent*, by a Federal admiral, came near involving the two countries, and with them England, in a war. This gave a vast impetus to volunteering, and probably no country in the world holds such a good militia as Canada. In 1864, the feeling of antagonism in Parliament between Upper and Lower Canada came to a crisis, and the project of Confederation was set on foot, designed to embrace all the Provinces of North America, giving to each the management of its own local affairs; this glorious scheme was carried into effect by the Queen's proclamation, 1st July, 1867.

CANADIAN POLITICS IN ENGLAND.

There have been six remarkable periods when the affairs of Canada have engaged the attention of the British Parliament, viz: 1774, after the conquest; 1791, when the country was divided into two Provinces; 1828, when the people of Lower Canada presented an address, signed by 87,000 persons, complaining of the partial distribution of patronage, the illegal application of the public money, and of the Trade Act of the Imperial Parliament; 1839, when the rebellion had secured Responsible Government; 1849, when the British inhabitants, aroused to anger by Lord Elgin's sanction of the Rebellion Losses Bill, burned the Parliament Buildings, and made a demand for a peaceable separation from the Mother Country; 1867, when the Confederation of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick took place, under the name of the Dominion of Canada.

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

EARLY ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

Canada, as a French possession was eminently a country of missions. These were undertaken at first by Franciscan Friars* who began their labours in 1615, four of them arriving in that year. The Recollets of the Province of Paris had been invited to Canada the year before by several parties, and especially the associated merchants, who feared the presence of the Jesuits in the colony. They visited the Hurons, along with Champlain. In 1618, Pope Paul IV, accorded at the instance of the French ambassador, the charge of missions in Canada to the Recollets of Paris. Several of these religious men lived and died among the natives, and Father Nicolas Viel, a very learned Recollet was drowned by the Huron savages. The foundation stone of the Recollet convent chapel in Quebec, was laid in 1620. These friars were the only missionaries in the colony till 1624. In that year, Father Irenœus Le Piat gave an invitation to a few members of "The Society of Jesus," who entered the field in 1625, as vicars of the see of Rouen. The associated merchants at first would not sanction the proceeding. They set out for Canada notwithstanding; but when they reached Quebec they were not permitted to land till the Recollets should find a permanent asylum in the infant city. In the sequel the Recollets sold their convent to which they had given the qualification of "Notre Dame des Anges." It became a hospital, and was situated on the banks of the River St. Charles. As the Recollets were the earliest missionaries known to Canada, so were they the first to disappear from it. Although these friars were very popular in the colony, it was thought that the presence of a mendicant order in a new missionary field, was more burdensome than useful, and thus occasion was taken, from the abeyance

* Recollets, or Friars Minor of the strict observance order of St. Francis, first originating in Spain, and introduced into France, were established in the Convent des Récollets, in Paris, whence the name.

of French domination, to exclude them. They then in vain petitioned the Government to let them return. In 1669, however, though their services were desired by the people, sanctioned in an ordinance by the pope, and approved by the "Congregation for the propagation of the faith" in 1635—these members of the Franciscan confraternity came forward, when public discontent at the tithing system was ripe, and offered to undertake the cure of souls without any extorted remuneration for their services. This liberality did but augment the alien feeling of the secular clergy for those zealous men, whose general regards for laic interests in other respects, doubtless helped to discredit them in the eyes of the bishop and a majority of his clergy. Their advantageous offer appears to have been flatly, perhaps contumeliously rejected, and what was worse, M. de St. Vallier, afterwards bishop of Quebec, by way of ending a controversy that he had with the Recollets of Montreal, issued a presentment or mandate against them, and put their church under an interdict. In 1681, Louis XIV, gave them the locality where was once the Senechalsea of Quebec, facing the castle of St. Louis, for the site of a hospitium.

The influence of the Jesuits was mistrusted by Champlain, who preferred the Franciscan order to that of St. Ignatius, the former having as he said "less (political) ambition." The influence they exerted with the court of France to supersede the Recollets, became of service to the country; for more than once, the French kings were about to renounce the colony, and each time abstained from so doing, chiefly through religious motives. It was at their urgent suggestion that M. de Maisonneuve laid the foundation of the settlement of Montreal, under the name of Ville Marie, or Mariopolis. Its nucleus was a school of morality, industry, and the subduing of savage natures. The ecclesiastical ceremonies attending its inauguration, formed as rich a display as the Canadian church's means at the time could command. In 1638, the "Seminary of the Hurons" was founded or opened at Quebec by the Jesuits; Père Le Jeune, observing on the occasion, that it had been realized "despite the powers of hell, banded in full force against it."

The Society of Jesus, or confraternity of the Jesuits, was founded at the epoch of the Reformation, partly with a view of giving extension to religious proselytism, especially in the regions of Heathendom. And truly did they carry out their plan, for the Jesuit fathers bore aloft in sight of multitudes of their uncivilized fellow men, the crucifix, the emblem of their faith from the shores of Japan to the furthest capes of America. Bancroft says, "The annals of missionary labors are inseparably connected with the origin of all the establishments in French America. Not a cape was doubled, not a stream discovered, that a Jesuit did not show

the way." We read of Father Raimbault, forming a design of penetrating the continent as far as China, evangelising all nations by the way; of Père Dolbeau and De Quen, exploring the headwaters of the Saguenay; of Père Charles Albanel reaching the Hudson's Bay by the route of the rivers; of Père Druillettes ascending the Chaudière and descending the Kennebec, till he reached the Atlantic coast; of Pères Brebeuf, Lalemant, Daniel and Jogues, reaching the upper extremity of Lake Huron; of Père Marquette, who formed the first settlement in Michigan, and in company with Joliet explored the Mississippi; of Pères Mesnard and Allouez who penetrated among the Ottawas on Lake Superior; of Père Hennepin who traced the downward course of the Illinois to its junction with the Mississippi; and of numerous other zealous Jesuit fathers who transported the Cross over "the territory of the Sioux in the Mississippi valley, years before Elliott, the famous missionary of New England, had addressed a word to the savages located within six miles of Boston harbour."

In the course of time the Jesuits were first subordinated, and finally superseded by a regular establishment of secular clergy in 1659. Canada as a province was in 1629, brought under the jurisdiction of the supreme court of Normandy in civil matters, and hence came to be considered as a dependency of the archbishopric of Rouen, the prelates of which see were allowed to exercise episcopal supervision in the province for many years; their supremacy however having been contested, was finally given up. In 1626 M. de Queylus was accredited from Normandy as Vicar General of Canada, and founded the Seminary of St. Sulpicius of Montreal, a dependency of the famous college of the same name in Paris. The *Dictionnaire des Dates* however seems to indicate that the Montreal Seminary owes its origin to the founder of the company of Sulpicians in 1641, Jean Jacques Olier. "Il créa" says that authority "au Canada et en France plusieurs séminaires des Sulpiciens." In 1647, the Sulpicians of Paris acquired by purchase all the proprietary rights of the first possessors of the island of Montreal. Subsequently the archbishop of Rouen sent letters to d'Argenson the Governor, ordering de Queylus to put himself under the orders of the Jesuits. M. de Queylus, laying claim to having been invested with the direction of ecclesiastical affairs, refused to recognize the archbishop as his Metropolitan. The governor to settle matters quietly induced de Queylus to retire to Montreal, and wrote to Paris intimating his opinion that an episcopal see was wanted in Canada, to maintain peace in its church establishment. The Pope however had already supplied the want by anticipation; for in 1657 he had constituted Canada ecclesiastically, a vicariat apostolical, with M. de Laval as its first head. De Queylus

refused to recognize the bishop as his spiritual superior, and in consequence of his maintaining his own opinions, a sealed writ was sent out by the king, recalling him. This not having the desired effect, he was interdicted from exercising his clerical functions. Thus all oppositions having been overcome, the Canadian Church establishment passed from the hands of the Jesuits, into those of the secular priesthood in 1659.

After the conquest of Canada, the order of Jesuits was abolished in this country by a papal decree issued in 1773; it was not till this took place that the British Government thought of appropriating their estates, forgetting that the Jesuits were only the depositaries of that property, since it had been given to them by the kings of France for educating the people and the instruction of the savages of New France. In the year 1776 the government transformed the Jesuits College into barracks for the garrison of Quebec. These good fathers had been obliged to discharge their pedagogues during the siege of 1759, and were not able to reopen the primary schools after the war was over. In 1778 the government took possession of the episcopal residence, granting in compensation, a yearly allowance of £150 to the bishop.

FRENCH BISHOPS.

The first bishop known to Canada was Francis de Laval, titular of Petræa, a scion of the illustrious house of Montmorency, was born at Laval, Maine, in France, 23rd March, 1622. Previous to his nomination, he was known as the Abbé de Montigny, and was at first consecrated bishop of Petræa, *in partibus infidelium*, by the pope's nuncio, and vested with a brief as vicar apostolic of Canada, before sailing thither. Quebec having been made an episcopal diocese, he was nominated its bishop suffragan of Rome, by a bull of Clement X, which was forwarded from the papal chancery in 1674. He had great talents and much activity, while to his high birth he owed much of the influence he exercised in the civil as well as ecclesiastical affairs of the colony, making and unmaking its governors at will. He died at Quebec, 6th May, 1708.

M. de St. Vallier appointed in 1688, instead of taking up his quarters in the seminary of Quebec as his predecessor had done, domiciled himself in the episcopal palace, and further desired to isolate the seminary by disconnecting it administratively, both from the cathedral chapter and the parish of Quebec. Open dissension ensued, and the seminarists prayed that he might be recalled to Paris; this was acceded to. He returned to Canada, in 1692 to be recalled again in 1694. At length the erection of

the bishopric of Quebec, and the reunion of the curacy with the seminary of the city were confirmed by Louis XIV, in the year 1697. He died December, 1725.

M. DE MORNAY, who was appointed coadjutor of the late Bishop in 1714, was nominated to succeed him. He was at the time in France and never returned to Canada, yet retaining his title and authority, he confirmed three grand vicars, elected by the chapter, who, along with the dean, governed the see in his name. He ranks, nominally, as third Bishop of New France.

This episcopal interregnum continued practically for a series of years. In 1733 M. HERMAN DOSQUET superseded M. de Mornay, and became by grace of Clement XII. fourth bishop. He came to Quebec in 1734, returned to France the same year, and there remained holding to his episcopal title till 1739, when he gave it up.

M. POURRAY DE L'AUBERVIÈRE, appointed by Clement XII. as the next bishop, died about the same time as that Pontiff, arriving at Quebec in 1740, while an epidemic was raging; he caught the infection, and died before he could take up his functions.

In the next year, M. DUBREUIL DE PONTBRIANT was nominated to succeed him by Benedict XIV. In none of the Canadian episcopal appointments or mutations does royal intervention seem to have been permitted or attempted. M. Dubreuil was the sixth and last bishop of Quebec, under the French Dominion.

CITIES OF THE DOMINION.

CITIES OF THE DOMINION.

The cities of the Dominion may be enumerated as follows:—Halifax, N. S.; St. John and Fredericton, N. B.; Quebec, Montreal, Three Rivers and St. Hyacinthe, in the Province of Quebec; Ottawa, Kingston, Toronto, Hamilton, and London, in Ontario; St. John's Newfoundland being so closely connected with the history of Acadia, and from the probability of the island joining the Confederation, is also described.

HALIFAX.

Halifax, the capital of Nova Scotia, is situated nearly in the centre of the Atlantic frontier of the Province. It was founded by Col. Cornwallis in 1749; so ardently did he and his associates work, that between the months of June and September, 300 comfortable wooden houses were erected and surrounded by a strong wooden palisade. The city now extends about 2½ miles along the harbour, and about three quaters of mile up the side of a commanding hill. It is surmounted by the citadel, Fort George, which overlooks the city, harbour, and surrounding country. This fort is considered impregnable. The harbour formed by a bay 16 miles long, is one of the finest in America, and open at all seasons of the year, and is capable of holding in safety the naval and commercial marine of England. It is protected at all points by heavy cannon. Near its mouth stands McNab's Island, 3 miles long and half a mile wide, containing over 1,000 acres on which is a light to enable vessels to enter the harbour safely. On the Eastern side of the harbour is Fort Clarence. Opposite to the city stands George's Island, strongly fortified, and on Point Pleasant south of the city, there are several batteries. Among the public establishments the Queen's Dockyard is the most important, covering 14 acres. Within its enclosure are vast workshops and other buildings including the Admiral's House.

The South-western part of the city, Spring Gardens, is a most delightful district, and in the rear of the city lies "the Common" containing 250 acres of land, where military reviews and other displays are held. Amongst the finest buildings of Halifax are the Province Building, built of brown free-stone, containing the various Provincial Offices, House of Assembly, &c.,—Dalhousie College, the Court House and Government House, Temperance Hall, Mechanics Institute and Lyceum. The wharves are numerous, and by means of the Cunard Steamers, Halifax has direct communication with Europe. When the Intercolonial Railroad is completed the city will assume a much greater degree of importance in the way of commerce. Few places present so pleasing an aspect as Halifax, when viewed from the harbour. Its streets are systematically laid out with great regularity, its spires have a picturesque appearance, and the trees which are scattered through it give a softened and refreshing appearance. Halifax is the Atlantic terminus of the railway to Truro and Windsor. It is also the depot for the surplus agricultural products of the Province. It is an important military port. There are usually two regiments of infantry stationed there, together with artillery and engineers. It is also the summer naval station of the North American and West Indian fleets, the Admiral residing in Bermuda during the winters. Its population by the last census was 25,026.

It was called Halifax from the Earl of that name who had been the chief promoter of the settlement of N. S. in 1749. Its original name was Chebucto.

FREDERICTON, N. B.

Fredericton formerly called Ste. Anne's, is pleasantly situated on a level plain environed by a chain of hills, which with the windings of the River St. John on the south-west bank of which it stands, impart to the city and surrounding landscape a picturesque appearance. It was constituted the Provincial capital in 1785. It is situated in the county of York, 84 miles from the Bay of Fundy. Its streets are wide, well laid out, and cross each other at right angles. Among its public edifices are the Provincial University, Parliament House, Government House, Anglican Cathedral, built at a cost of $180,000, Governor's Mansion and various churches.

ST. JOHN, N. B.

This city is situated near the entrance of the River of the same name, the *Ougundy* of the Indians, on a rocky peninsula projecting into the harbour, on its easterly side. It is the commercial

capital of N. B., and was incorporated by Royal Charter, A. D., 1785. The harbour is deep, capacious and accessible to the largest vessels at all seasons of the year; at high water it is one of the handsomest, and at low water one of the most uninteresting on the Atlantic Coast. The tide which rises from 20 to 28 feet affords excellent facilities for launching and repairing vessels, and is never frozen over. The city is protected by batteries erected both at the entrance and head of the harbour, the entrance two miles south of the city being guarded by a battery on Partridge Island. The streets are systematically laid out and contain some fine, though not imposing structures, amongst which the Catholic Cathedral, Penitentiary, Marine Hospital, Barracks, Court House, Institute, &c., are the most prominent.

A projecting rock divides the city into two parts called the Upper and Lower Coves. The suspension bridge over the Falls of the River, is a very elegant and substantial structure. Carlton is a very thriving suburb. The traffic of the River St. John consisting of vast stores of lumber, timber and farm produce, adds greatly to the commercial importance of the city. St. John was first settled principally by American Loyalists who came there from Nantucket, when the United States declared their independence—To the people of St. John, the salmon is a source of considerable profit. The fisheries of the harbour belong to the citizens of the city, and the fishing grounds or stations are lotted out or sold at auction every year for their benefit. The average number of salmon annually taken is, according to Lanman 35000, which sell for as many dollars, to be packed in ice and sent to Boston, and the fish are taken chiefly with drift nets and weirs. Including Carlton the population numbers 38,817.

QUEBEC.

Quebec, the Stadacona of the Indians, is the oldest City in British North America, and with the exception of Jamestown, Virginia, the oldest European City on the continent, having been founded in 1605 by Samuel Champlain, geographer to the King of France. It is situated on the northern bank of the River St. Lawrence, 400 miles from the Gulf, on a promontory formed by the confluence of the St. Lawrence and St. Charles Rivers, being the termination of a ridge of land from which Cape Diamond rises 345 feet above the tidal water, surmounted by the citadel. The fortifications which cover 40 acres of ground, extend across the peninsula, and shut in the ground on which the city is built. The fortress is said to be impregnable, and is frequently styled the "Gibraltar of America." The City is divided into two parts called the Upper and Lower Town, the former including the citadel and

fortifications, the latter the seat of commerce. Quebec is compactly and substantially built, stone its sole material, founded upon a rock environed by walls and gates, like the old European cities, and defended at every point by numerous cannon. Many of the buildings being quite ancient, give it a picturesque and romantic appearance. The city is remarkably irregular and the streets extremely narrow, following the example of all the old French towns; here and there flights of steps lead from one street, to another. The historical associations of the city are numerous and would fill a volume by themselves. Once the seat of a French empire in the west, it is now a favorite fortress of England, and has been lost and won by the blood of gallant armies and of illustrious commanders.

The mountains toward the north and east of Quebec form one of the most beautiful amphitheatres to be seen in America; mountains and plains, narrow ravines, wide retreating hollows, rocky escarpment, lofty hills, almost assuming the magnitude of mountains. Just below the citadel,—near what is now called the platform, from whence is obtained a most beautiful view, the city lying beneath, the valley of the St. Lawrence fading away as far as the eye can reach, the River St. Charles lazily winding its way among the hills, and the far off blue peaks of the mountains of New Hampshire, a perfect cyclorama—formerly stood the Castle of St. Louis, which was consumed by fire in 1834, the residence of the early French Governors, and from which the lily banner of France long waved before it was supplanted by the red cross of England. The site of it is now turned into a fashionable promenade, close to which is the Governor's Garden, wherein is erected a monument or obelisk to the joint memory of Wolfe and Montcalm, due in a great measure to the exertions of Lord Dalhousie. Among the public buildings are the Laval University, Anglican and Roman Catholic Cathedrals, Custom House, Marine Hospital, Churches, Seminary, Banks, Exchange, &c. The site of the Lower Town may be regarded as almost entirely the creation of human industry, having been gained by excavation from the base of the impending precipice, or redeemed from the River by building out into its waters. Its innumerable and valuable timber coves or berths extending some miles in length, are crammed with oak, elm, spruce, pine, tamarack, &c., furnishing an export trade of $5,000,000 per annum. Many of its wharves extend 200 yards into the river. Quebec was the capital of Lower Canada until the Union of the Provinces in 1840, and is now the seat of the Local Legislature of the Province of Quebec. The sieges it has undergone are given in detail elsewhere. The people of Quebec may well be proud of their scenery, and of the historical ivy which clings to its walls. Neighboring cities may

grow vast with brick and mortar, their commerce may advance with the stride of a young giant, but they can never compare with the fortress of Quebec for historical memories or beautiful scenery. Its population according to the census of 1861 was 60,000.

MONTREAL.

The City of Montreal, the Commercial Metropolis of the Dominion, the Hochelaga of the Indians and Ville-Marie of the French, the largest city in British America, is situated on an Island of the same name formed by the confluence of the St. Lawrence and Ottawa Rivers. In 1535, Jacques Cartier while surveying with delight the magnificent prospect from the Mountain at the foot of which it is built, gave it the name of Mount Royal, in honour of the King of France. At the time of Cartier's visit it contained about 50 Indian lodgments, which were encompassed by three separate rows of palisades one within the other. It had only one entrance guarded by stakes, as a means of defence against hostile tribes. Passing 200 years down the stream of time, we find Montreal in 1760, the date of British possession, a " well peopled town of an oblong form, surrounded by a wall flanked with 11 redoubts, which served instead of bastions : " this wall has long ceased to exist, except a small portion facing the front of what is called the Quebec-Gate Barracks.

The city of to-day as seen from any approach, with the mountain in the background, together with its beautiful villas, its glittering roofs, spires and domes, most of the latter being covered with tin, and its lofty towers, present to the beholder a vast and picturesque panorama. Montreal is noted for its excellent quays which are built of limestone, and an esplanade or terrace surmounting them, presenting a continuous display of masonry unequalled on the continent. The frontage of the city on the St. Lawrence extends about 3 miles. The revetment wall abutting on the river protects the city from the damage which would otherwise ensue at the ice shove, or breaking up of the ice in the spring, which frequently is piled up mountains high along the wharves, crushing against the unyielding quay. From this cause ships never lie at Montreal during the winter. This city is the head of ocean navigation, and is the commencement of lake and river communication. It is connected by Railroad with all the principal places in Canada, and the United States ; in general the principal streets run east and west parallel with the river, and are intercepted at right angles by secondary streets. The old French part of the city with its narrow streets is fast disappearing before the improvements of modern architecture. The old streets have been named after a variety of Saints, while those in the modern

portion are associated with the different Governors of the Province. The principal edifices are the Cathedral of Notre-Dame with its two lofty towers and monster bell the Gros Bourdon, McGill University, Bonsecours Market, Church of the Gesu, Anglican Cathedral, Hôtel-Dieu, St. Mary's College, churches of various denominations of which Trinity and St. James (Episc.) are perhaps the finest, St. Patrick's Hall, Mechanic's Institute and the various Banks each of which is a model of architecture in itself, Molson's Bank, a new structure being perhaps the finest on the continent. Some of the large shops or stores are more like palaces, and it would be invidious to single out any one for description. An aqueduct and reservoir from which a splendid view of the city is obtained, conveying water from near the Lachine Rapids, were built at an expense of £100,000, and so greatly has the city increased since its construction, that it is found absolutely necessary to double its capacity. The Victoria Tubular Bridge, one of the wonders of the world, which is the connecting link of the Grand Trunk Railway with the mainland, spanning the St. Lawrence, which is there two miles wide, and runs at the rate of 7 or 8 miles an hour, will be found described elsewhere. The markets of Montreal equal any on the continent, and are always well supplied. The city is represented by 3 members of Parliament. The elements of the population are estimated at four tenth French Canadians, two tenth British Canadians, three tenth English, Irish and Scotch, and one tenth Germans, Americans, &c. There are two beautiful cemeteries, French and English, on the slope of the mountain, in which are some very handsome monuments.

Montreal is a garrison city, several regiments being quartered there, adding materially to the liveliness of its streets, and among the amusements contributed to and principally supported by the officers of the garrison, are the Skating Rink, the Fox hounds and the Race-course. It is the see of an English Bishop, and is probably in proportion to its size one of the wealthiest cities of America. Its population is about 120,000.

THREE RIVERS.

The city of Three Rivers is situated at the mouth of the St. Maurice River, which here separates into three channels (hence the name of the city) and lies about midway between Quebec and Montreal. This city ranks third in the Province of Quebec, and carries on a very extensive trade in lumber; the improvement of the St. Maurice River, by the Government, having given great advantage to the lumbermen in obtaining an easy access to market. The River St. Maurice and its tributaries, water a

territory of over 50,000 square miles, in one of the best timbered districts of the Dominion. Large quantities of sawn lumber are manufactured at Three Rivers, and shipped to Quebec, England, the West Indies, and the United States. There are also foundries or forges as they are called in constant operation at this point, some of which have turned out excellent railway car wheels, and are celebrated for their box stoves. The iron used is principally bog-iron, and one of the foundries, known as the "St. Maurice Forges" a few miles back of the city, has been in operation for over one hundred years. They were established by the French in 1737; at the conquest of the Province, the right of the French King devolved on His Britannic Majesty, and these forges have been let to private parties, who have worked them very successfully. Three Rivers is the See of a Catholic Bishopric, and the Cathedral is a stately edifice and one of the finest in Canada, well repaying a visit. There are a Mechanics Institute, a reading room, and several first class educational establishments. The famous falls of the Shawenegan, second only to those of Niagara, are within 24 miles of the city, and draw a number of visitors in the summer. The population by the last census (1861) was 6,058.

ST. HYACINTHE.

St. Hyacinthe is a thriving city, situated on the Yamaska river, and is the *chef-lieu* of St. Hyacinthe county. It has a considerable local trade, and its market as regards variety and quality of the articles brought in, excepting Montreal, is second to no other place in the Province of Quebec. St. Hyacinthe possesses many beautiful public buildings, of which the college is the most deserving of notice. It is an elegant cut stone building, over 700 feet in length, and is surmounted by a well proportioned cupola from the top of which there is an extensive view. The course of studies is only equalled by the best Jesuit colleges in France. The chemical laboratory, physical and astronomical apparatus, and library are of the highest order, and every facility is afforded for a most thorough university education. There is also a female school, under the control of the Convent des Dames de la Congregation. The Hôtel-Dieu, or Hospital, under the management of the Sisters of Charity, provides for the sick and destitute. There are several foundries, mills and manufactories of various kinds in the place. The annual autumn meeting of the Montreal Turf Club is held at St. Hyacinthe. The population of this city is between 5,000 and 6,000 souls.

OTTAWA.

The city of Ottawa, the capital and Parliamentary head quarters of the New Dominion, was originally called Bytown after

its founder, Colonel By of the Royal Engineers, who fixed upon the site of the present city at the junction of the Rideau canal with the Ottawa River—this canal being constructed for the transportation of military stores between Montreal and Kingston, in the event of hostilities with the neighboring republic. Ottawa has long been the centre and chief seat of the lumber trade, and its commerce is constituted almost wholly of lumber, both square and sawn, which passes through the city from the forests in the rear. The city is divided into three parts, respectively called Upper Town, Lower Town, and Centre Town, all of them however lying on the south-west side of the Ottawa River, and so in the Province of Ontario. The streets are all wide and regularly laid out. Most of the buildings in the principal streets are substantially built of grey limestone. On Barrack hill, a precipitous embankment, rising 250 feet from the river, are situated the Parliament and Departmental buildings, built in the Italian Gothic style, the foundation stone of which was laid by the Prince of Wales in 1861, (described elsewhere). From its position at the junction of the Rivers Gatineau on the north and Rideau on the south, with the Ottawa River, it is the key to an immense territory of back country, valuable in woods and minerals. At the western extremity of the city are the Chaudière Falls, where the Ottawa precipitates itself over a ledge of rock 40 feet high and over 200 wide, forming a scene of imposing grandeur and beauty, immediately below which the river is spanned by an elegant suspension bridge connecting the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec. At the north-east of the city the waters of the River Rideau pour themselves in an unbroken sheet into the Ottawa. Ottawa is remarkable for its timber slides (described under the head of public works) and its saw-mills, making the very air redolent of pine. Among the principal buildings may be mentioned the Queen's Printing House, the R. C. Cathedral in Sussex street, and various other churches, and Rideau Hall the seat of the Governor General of the Dominion. Major's Hill, an open bluff on the west of the Parliament Buildings, is a favorite resort and promenade. The Rideau Canal is crossed by a substantial stone erection called the Sappers bridge, beneath which a succession of eight massive cut stone locks connect the river and canal navigation with the waters of the Ottawa. From its situation Ottawa is said to be one of the healthiest cities in America, though rather bleak in winter. It is connected with the G. T. R. by a branch line to Prescott, and during the summer daily communication is kept up with Montreal by Steamer. Its population is 20,305.

KINGSTON.

Kingston, the Cataraqui of the Indians, and the site of Fort Frontenac, from its advantageous position at the outlet of Lake Ontario into the St. Lawrence, and at the junction of the Bay of Quinte and Cataraqui Creek, together with the Rideau Canal, possesses considerable commercial importance. A settlement was begun here by the French as early as 1672, but its present name was given it by the English into whose hands it fell in 1762. As a military station its defences are second only to Quebec. The harbour is safe, and was formerly the depot for the maritime armament of the lakes. Fort Henry and two martello towers command the harbour and its entrance. Ship-building is carried on here to a considerable extent, and vessels both for lake and ocean navigation are built and fitted out complete. The streets of Kingston are well laid out, being regularly arranged at right angles, and the houses are chiefly built of stone. Its principal buildings are Queen's College and University of Kingston, an Institution in connection with the Church of Scotland, and Regiopolis College, a Roman Catholic establishment, the Hospital, Hotel-Dieu and last though not least the Penitentiary. This lies about a mile west of the city, and is a large massive stone building, conducted entirely on the principle of the U. S. prisons. The population of Kingston is about 15,000.

TORONTO.

Toronto, the largest city of the Province of Ontario, lies on the N. W. shore of Lake Ontario, facing a very spacious bay, formed by a sand bar 7 miles long, stretching out into the lake parallel with the city, which affords a well sheltered and yet accessible harbour. The city till 1834 was called York, or Little York, and was founded by Governor Simcoe in 1793. It is connected by means of the Grand Trunk, Great Western, and Northern Railways, and Steamboats, with all the leading cities of Canada and the neighboring Union. Owing to the flatness of its site, Toronto presents no striking aspect at a distance. It was for some years the capital of Upper Canada, and is now the seat of the Local Legislature of Ontario. The public buildings of the city are numerous, and many of them really handsome. First among which stands the University, built in the Norman style of white stone brought from Ohio,—Trinity College, built of white brick with stone dressings in the pointed English style,—the Normal School buildings, St. James' Cathedral, R. C. Cathedral, Osgoode Hall, containing the courts of law, the Provincial Lunatic Asylum, Hospital, Exchange, Banks, various Churches, &c. Its markets

are excellent and will well compare with those of any English Town. The Cemeteries (St. James and the Necropolis) are very tastefully laid out, and the Park and College Avenue are as fine public grounds as any in Canada. Young as Toronto is in years, it has none of the historic associations that Quebec or Montreal possess. One great drawback its citizens have to contend with in regard to their public buildings is the absence of stone in the vicinity, thus compelling them to resort to brick, but the latter are of an elegant whiteness from the peculiar clay of which they are made. The streets of this as of all the more recent western cities are laid out at right angles and of a good width, two of them retaining the name of the street long after they have left the city, miles behind, viz: Yonge street and Dundas street, stretching respectively northwards and westwards. Toronto is an Episcopal See. Its population is about 50,000.

HAMILTON.

The city of Hamilton is situated on Burlington Bay, at the western extremity of Lake Ontario. This Bay is 5 miles long and 2 wide, and navigable in all parts to within a few yards of the shore. It was settled and laid out in 1813 by a person of the name of Hamilton, when the camp on Burlington heights was the centre for military operations against the Americans. The city is backed by a lofty hill called "the Mountain," which is a pleasant resort of the citizens. An ample supply of freestone and limestone behind the city affords the means of erecting substantial buildings, both public and private ones being very elegant. Its streets are wide, and from the zeal its merchants have shewn to rival neighbouring cities, it has received the name of "the ambitious little city." Being the chief station of the Great Western Railway, it is a place of great traffic. In its vicinity is Dundrum Castle the handsome mansion of the late Sir Allan McNab, which with other numerous villas give the environs a very elegant appearance. The finest buildings in Hamilton are its hotels, and the city is seen to the best advantage looking from the Gore on King street. Its population is 22,998.

LONDON.

Although London ranks as a city, having grown from a wilderness since 1825, it is not to be compared with those already mentioned either for buildings or associations. It is what may be styled a railroad city, the Grand Trunk, the Great Western and Port Stanley R. R. meeting there. The river, streets, bridge, &c. of this city have the same names as those of its great namesake the Metropolis of England. The English Church is one of the

few in this country possessing a peal of bells. The country surrounding London is rich in agricultural productions, furnishing a large trade in wheat and other staples. The public buildings are a credit to so young a city. It is an Episcopal See, being the seat of the Diocese of Huron. Its population is about 12,000.

ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND.

This city is the political and commercial capital of Newfoundland, and is the most easterly seaport of America. The entrance to the harbour is guarded by two rocky mountains, between which are "the narrows" through which ships of the largest class pass. Within the narrows is a deep and spacious basin, capable of holding a national navy in safety. On each of the rocky heights overlooking the narrows, numerous batteries and fortifications are erected. The city is situated on an acclivity and is well laid out. The harbour is accessible at all times of the year. The business part of the town is built of brick and stone, and is supplied with water brought from Twenty Mile Pond distant 4½ miles, and being 400 feet above the level of the city, gives valuable pressure for extinguishing fires. The Water-works were erected at a cost of £80,000. St. John's has several times been partially destroyed by fire, the last occasion being in 1844 when the loss exceeded £1,000,000 currency. The principal edifices are Government House, Anglican and Roman Catholic Cathedrals, Catholic College and Convent, Lunatic Asylum, Banks, &c. The trade of the city principally consists in the exchange of fish and oil for the commodities of other countries. A submarine cable places it in communication with continental America.

REMARKABLE CONFLAGRATIONS.

REMARKABLE CONFLAGRATIONS.

QUEBEC.

A Fire on 5th August, 1682, reduced the city almost to ashes.

On the 28th May, 1845, a large portion of Quebec was devastated by a fire, which spread so rapidly and fiercely that all efforts to subdue it proved unavailing, and the destruction only ceased when nothing more was left to destroy. One thousand three hundred and fifteen houses were consumed and their inmates turned out into the streets in a state of destitution. The day on which the fire broke out was scorchingly hot, with a high wind and clouds of dust rushing along the roads. A large tannery in St. Vallier street was the spot where the fire first broke out, and the roofs of the adjoining houses being covered with shingles, heated almost to tinder by the sun, were quickly in a blaze. The wind increasing carried the embers far and wide; the houses on the cliff above caught; below in the suburb of St. Roch several houses situated apart from one another, simultaneously began to burn—the narrow streets were filled with people rushing madly to and fro, removing articles of furniture; fire engines were being hurried up along from place to place; carts rattled about loaded and unloaded; soldiers were tearing down houses, to arrest if possible the devouring element; but still lifted up by the wind, the fire leaped into distant streets, and far away to leeward the red plague was seen bursting up through the wooden roofs. It was finally arrested by blowing up two houses in the Rue Canotrie near Hope Gate, the whole of the populous suburb of St. Roch having been destroyed. Next day many half consumed bodies lay about, and also the carcases of a great number of horses and cattle.

On the same day in June, the same year, the cry of fire again rose. In a house near St. John's Gate, a conflagration had begun, which was not to be ended until the whole of St. John's Suburb met the fate which St. Roch had already experienced. The wea-

ther was still hot, and simultaneously through the houses, or from the roofs the flames rose high into the air, sweeping up as far as the Toll-gate, one side of St. John St., and the whole of George and other streets to the Cime du Cap above St. Roch, then spreading slowly upwards towards St. Louis Suburb, by day-break in spite of the repeated blowing up of houses with gunpowder, scarce a vestige of the suburb remained, except the chimneys of what were once houses. The very tombstones in the churchyards were defaced and the head-boards destroyed.

In these two fires, 16,000 people were burned out; £560,000 of property destroyed, and upwards of forty human beings perished. A Relief committee was promptly formed—appeals were made to the world for aid, which was promptly afforded, upwards of £100,000 being subscribed. In a short time the suburbs were rebuilt in a more substantial manner: brick and stone being used instead of wood.

In June, 1846, the riding school attached to the Chateau St. Louis, which had been converted into a theatre, was destroyed by fire during the exhibition of Hermin's Diorama. Just as the entertainment had concluded, the canvass took fire from one of the lamps used to illuminate it. The building was so densely crowded, and the confusion became so great, that between 45 and 50 persons of good standing in society perished in the flames. Black stifling smoke from the camphine rolled down the fatal stairs, and hid the victims for a moment, and drove away those courageously assisting outside. The Reverend Mr. O'Reilly, a Catholic priest, in the conscientious discharge of his sacred office, stood in the doorway and prayed over them to the last. The great loss of life may be attributed to the doors opening inwards. Among those who pesished were an aged couple named Tardiff, who had never before been in a theatre, but who had been induced to visit it to see this panorama of religious views. Lieut. Hamilton of the 14th. and a young lady whom he was to have married in a few days also perished. They were both interred in one grave. Sir James Alexander who witnessed the conflagration, says: "The wooden lining of the walls quickly caught fire, also the sloping floor and the benches. Black and stifling smoke from the camphene rolled down the fatal stairs, and hid the victims for a moment, driving away those courageously assisting outside; then it would roll back and disclose the organized countenances of those doomed to destruction. Once a stream of flame ran down from the top to the bottom of the stairs, and every head seemed on fire, the swollen tongues preventing utterance. Again another cloud of smoke, the roof falls in, and forty-five human beings ceased to exist."

FIRE OF 1866.

On the 14th of October, 1866, the city of Quebec was visited by a calamity unparallelled since 1845, and considering the increase of population it is doubtful if the two fires of that year were more serious than this, which destroyed about one half of St. Roch's, and the whole of St. Sauveur and Boisseauville. The fire broke out in a house in St. Joseph street, immediately facing the western angle of the Jacques Cartier Market Hall, and within the short space of twelve hours, it swept every thing before it, out to the open country on the other side of St Sauveur, broadening as it went, till about the entire space from the hill to the St. Charles River was enveloped in flames. A strong easterly wind prevailing, rendered it impossible to check the progress of the flames. Every effort by pulling down or blowing up buildings was of no effect, for the flying embers carried the fatal element forward, overhead, so as to render all such exertion useless. The immense body of flame had the effect of increasing the strength of the wind, which shifted to various points of the compass. From this cause the fire did not advance in one line, but spread as it progressed, and over a space of about a mile and a half long, and at one point about the same breadth, there were only a few buildings that were not burned down. At the outbreak, water was not to be obtained, and for fully an hour, no supply was obtainable, the small wooden structures catching one after another like tinder, and thus propagating the conflagration. In addition to this the numerous outhouses, stables, and wood piles added fuel to the devouring element at very step. The church of the Congregation, as if by a miracle, although for two hours in the greatest danger, being surrounded on all sides by flaming houses, remained untouched. Several times its massive stone walls were actually steaming with heat, but fortunately, as the buildings around gradually burnt out, the danger disappeared.

The Church of St. Sauveur withstood the attacks of the fire for a considerable time, but was forced at last to succumb, together with the new Presbytery of the Oblat Fathers, Friars' School House, and Nunnery. The only buildings that remained untouched throughout the district ravaged, were the Congregation Church of St. Roch's, the General Hospital, some two or three isolated houses on the north side of Vallier street, and McCallum's Distillery. The number of houses destroyed was estimated at 2,500, and the total loss in real estate and household property burned or damaged, at between $2,500,000 and $3,000,000. The number of persons rendered houseless was over 18,000. Several lives were lost in the conflagration, and a number of persons more or less injured.

Lieut. Baynes of the Royal Artillery was badly burned by the premature explosion of a charge of powder, and received such injuries as to cause his death a few days afterwards.

Subscriptions were forwarded to the authorities from all parts of the country, and from England for the relief of the sufferers, exceeding $200,000.

DESTRUCTION OF THE CASTLE OF ST. LEWIS (QUEBEC.)

About noon of the 23rd January, 1834, an alarm of fire was given, and to the eager and anxious enquiries of the citizens, running to and fro, the appalling answer was given "To the Castle—to the Castle." On hurrying to the scene, volumes of black smoke, rolling from the roof, told the fearful truth. The fire was first discovered in a room on the upper story, and having spread through its whole extent, and taken hold of the rafters which supported the massive roof, it burned downwards with irrepressible fury, until it triumphed over the entire building. As no flame was apparent from the outside for a considerable space of time it was scarcely believed by the anxious spectators, that the whole pile was endangereed. Vain hopes were even entertained that the lower ranges of apartments might be saved. At last the devouring element burst its way through the strong tinned roof with tremendous force, and the flames thus finding a vent, spread with dreadful rapidity through every part of the building. Every possible exertion was made by the different Fire Companies to subdue the conflagration, the troops of the garrison, and inhabitants of all classes assisting all in their power. Some of the most respectable citizens of every profession were seen busily occupied in removing the furniture and effects; and others assisted in conveying to a place of safety some of the ornaments of the dinner table which was laid; and at which by invitation, they were to have been partakers that very day, of the Governor's hospitality. On a pedestal which stood at the head of the principal staircase, was placed a bust of the immortal Wolfe, which in the melée and confusion would probably have been destroyed, had not a gentleman made it his first care to rescue it, and to convey it like another Palladium, to a place of safety. The intense cold of the day added considerably to the difficulty of suppressing the flames. In the morning the thermometer indicated 22° and during the day from 4° to 8° below zero. The engines were therefore soon frozen up, and could only be rendered serviceable by copious supplies of hot water. At length it became too apparent that any successful attempt to arrest the progress of the flames was hopeless—all effort to save even a portion of the building ineffectual—and the morning disclosed to the sight of the inhabitants a mass of smoking ruins,

to remind them of the loss which the Province and the city had sustained.

Apart from the painful sense of the destruction of this ancient and celebrated building so identified with our history, the sight itself was throughout the day impressive—at nightfall grand in the extreme. The extent of the structure, the numerous windows and openings, its great elevation and peculiar position as to the Lower Town, actually overhanging its streets, so that the burning flakes fell upon the roofs of the houses below, combined to make this mastery of the flames almost an object to be admired. The scene from the Lower Town was truly picturesque, and at a distance the view of the fire, and its reflection on the ice and snow, have been described as singularly beautiful.

FIRE IN NEW BRUNSWICK OF 1825.

In 1825, a remarkable conflagration occurred, which resulted in a fearful loss of property and of life reducing to ashes some 6,000 square miles of the fairest portion of New Brunswick, the loss falling particularly heavy upon the valley of the Miramichi. The summer had been unusually dry and warm, and between July and October the smoke of burning forests arose in many parts of the country. Throughout the northern part of New Brunswick hardly any rain had fallen. These bush fires were not unusual, and for a time excited no apprehensions. But on the 1st of October an unnatural heat began to be felt all along the valley of the Miramichi, and on the 6th of the same month, the inhabitants were alarmed by the fitful appearance of immense sheets of flames in the immediate vicinity of the settlements, while to their ears came the sound of falling trees, and a hoarse rumbling sound, resembling distant thunder. On the seventh day the prevailing heat was oppressive and suffocating; and while in the morning a pale sickly mist seemed to canopy the land, in the afternoon it was succeeded by an immense pall of vapor. Immediately on the river a gloomy silence prevailed, while the surrounding woods were in the greatest commotion. As night came on, a fiery zone seemed to encircle the land, and the air became filled with flaming brands and leaves; and as the roar of the conflicting elements increased—for a hurricane, caused by the conflagration, swept the hissing forests, and lashed the river into fury—the horrors of the scene were increased by the crying and wailing of the inhabitants. The fire burst through the forest in the rear of Newcastle, and that town, together with Douglastown, and the northern side of the Miramichi, for a 100 miles, were enveloped in smoke and flame. The wooden houses, stores containing spirits, powder and other combustible matters, stables and barns, became a speedy

prey to the devouring fire. Newcastle, a flourishing town of 1,000 inhabitants, was left a heap of smoking ruins. The fearful element accomplished its mission, and the entire country was one wide scene of blackened desolation. The destruction of timber was irreparable, and the effect upon forest animals was noticeable by their absence for many years afterwards. The number of persons who lost their lives by fire and water during the calamity, was 160 ; buildings destroyed about 600 ; cattle 900 ; and the total loss of personal property amounted to over £200,000. The sympathies of the humane, both in England and the United States, were excited in behalf of the sufferers, and a large amount of provisions and clothing was promptly forwarded to their relief. Subscriptions of money to a handsome amount were received, and the burnt towns and villages were soon rebuilt in a style of greater solidity. To the present day a contrast between the burnt district and other parts of the Province, is visible in the dwarfish and young appearance of the forest trees, compared with the giants of the forest elsewhere.

This fearful conflagration has been thus ably described in M'Gregor's British America :

" In October, 1825, about a hundred and forty miles in extent, and a vast breadth of the country on the north, and from sixty to seventy miles on the south side of Miramichi river, became a scene of perhaps the most dreadful conflagration that has occ· ·d in the history of the world.

" In Europe a conception can scarcely be formed of the fury and rapidity with which fires rage through the forests of America during a dry hot season, at which period the broken underwood, decayed vegetable substances, fallen branches, bark, and withered trees, are as inflammable as the absence of moisture can make them. To such irresistible food for combustion, we must add the auxiliary afforded by the boundless fir forests, every tree of which in its trunk, bark, branches, and leaves contains vast quantities of inflammable resin.

" When one of these fires is once in motion, or at least when the flames extend over a few miles of the forest, the surrounding air becomes highly rarefied, and the wind consequently increases till it blows a perfect hurricane. It appears, that the woods had been on both sides of the north-west partially on fire for some days, but not to an alarming extent until the 7th October, when it came on to blow furiously from the westward, and the inhabitants along the river were suddenly surprised by an extraordinary roaring in the woods, resembling the crashing and detonation of loud and incessant thunder, while at the same instant the atmosphere became thickly darkened with smoke.

" They had scarcely time to ascertain the cause of this awful phenomenon, before all the surrounding woods appeared in one vast blaze, the flames ascending from one to two hundred feet above the tops of the loftiest trees ; and the fire rolling forward with inconceivable celerity, presented the terribly sublime appearance of an impetuous flaming ocean. In less than an hour, Douglas-Town and Newcastle were in a blaze: many of the wretched inhabitants perished in the flames. More than a hundred miles of the Miramichi were laid waste, independent of the north-west branch, the Baltibag, and the Nappen settlements. From one to two hundred persons perished within immediate observation, while thrice that number were miserably burned or wounded, and at least two thousand were left destitute of the means of subsistence, and were thrown for a time on the humanity of the Province of New Brunswick. The number of lives that were lost in the woods could not at the time be ascertained, but it was thought few were left to tell the tale.

" Newcastle presented a fearful scene of ruin and devastation, only fourteen out of two hundred and fifty houses and stores remained standing.

" The court-house, jail, church, and barracks, Messrs. Gilmour, Rankin and Co's, and Messrs. Abrams and Co's establishment, with two ships on the stocks, were reduced to ashes.

" The loss of property is incalculable, for the fire, borne upon the wings of a hurricane, rushed on the wretched inhabitants with such inconceivable rapidity that the preservation of their lives could be their only care.

" Several ships were burned on shore, while others were saved from the flames by the exertions of their owners, after being actually on fire.

" At Douglas-Town scarcely any kind of property escaped the ravages of the fire, which swept off the surface everything coming in contact with it, leaving but time for the unfortunate inhabitants to fly to the shore ; and there, by means of boats, canoes, rafts of timber, logs, or any article, however ill calculated for the purpose, they endeavoured to escape from the dreadful scene and reach the town of Chatham, numbers of men, women, and children perishing in the attempt.

" In some parts of the country all the cattle were either destroyed or suffered greatly, for the very soil was parched and burnt up, while scarcely any article of provision was rescued from the flames.

" The hurricane raged with such dreadful violence, that large bodies of timber on fire, as well as trees from the forest, and parts of the flaming houses and stores, were carried to the rivers with amazing velocity, to such an extent and affecting the water in

such a manner, as to occasion large quantities of salmon and other fish to resort to land, hundreds of which were scattered on the shores of the south and west branches.

"Chatham was filled with three hundred miserable sufferers: every hour brought to it the wounded and burned in the most abject state of distress. Great fires raged about the same time in the forests of the River St. John, which destroyed much property and timber, with the governor's house, and about eighty private houses of Fredericton. Fires raged also at the same time in the northern parts of the Province, as far as the Bay de Chaleur.

"It is impossible to tell how many lives were lost, as many of those who were in the woods among the lumbering parties, had no friends nor connections in the country to remark on their non-appearance. Five hundred have been computed as the least number that actually perished in the flames.

"The destruction of bears, foxes, tiger-cats, martens, hares, squirrels, and other wild animals, was very great. These, when surprised by such fires, are said to lose their usual sense of preservation, and becoming, as it were, either giddy or fascinated, often rush into the face of inevitable destruction: even the birds, except these of very strong wing, seldom escape. Some, particularly the partridge, become stupified; and the density of the smoke, the rapid velocity of the flames, and the violence of the winds, effectually prevent the flight of others."

FIRE IN MONTREAL, 1765.

On Saturday, the 18th May, 1765, a fire broke out in Montreal, in the house of one Livingston, a British inhabitant, and was occasioned by hot ashes being carried into the garret to make soap. The want of engines and the prevalence of a very high wind were favourable to the spreading of the conflagration, which was only stopped at last by pulling down a part of the Hospital Les Sœurs in Notre Dame street, and some houses near it. The Hospital of the Grey Nuns was without the wall, and separated from it by a rivulet (now covered); yet, the wind was so strong and the flames so fierce, that several houses near it were destroyed. "Scarce was the sword well sheathed," it is affectingly remarked, "and the widows tears dried up, when this conflagration happened." In a few hours 108 houses were destroyed, and 215 families reduced to the greatest distress. An interesting pamphlet drawn up by a benevolent individual, was printed in London on this occasion, and circulated freely in behalf of the sufferers. A considerable sum was raised in England, and forwarded towards their relief. The first title of the pamphlet is, "*The case of the Canadians at Montreal distressed by fire*"; and underneath it in a

vignette, the portrait of George III, who contributed £500. The second title is, "*Motives for a subscription towards the relief of the sufferers at Montreal, in Canada, by a dreadful fire.*" These motives are presented in a great variety of forms, and urged with much benevolent importunity. It appears from an account attested by His Excellency the Hon. James Murray, Governor of the Province, that the loss amounted to more than one hundred and sixteen thousand pounds currency, equal to £87,580 sterling. It was computed that by this destructive fire one-fourth part of the city was consumed, and abont one-third part in value. The population of Montreal at this period was about 7,000.

FIRE IN MONTREAL, 1768.

On the 11th April, 1768, a fire broke out in the stable of one of the sufferers in the late conflagration; it soon reached the adjoining houses, and raged with incredible fury over that part of the town till five o'clock the next morning, when it partially subsided, but not until it had consumed 90 houses, two churches, and a large charity school. The sufferers lost nearly the whole of their effects either by the fire or by theft. The number thus reduced to poverty was very great, many of them having been burnt out at the last fire.

FIRE IN MONTREAL, 1803.

On Monday afternoon 6th June, 1803, a very destructive fire happened in Montreal. The fire broke out in the St. Lawrence suburbs, and some time after, the gaol was discovered to be on fire; from thence the flames were communicated to the English Church and the College, all of which were consumed, together with a number of houses in the vicinity. The whole number of houses burnt in the town and suburbs, is stated at from thirty to thirty-five, and the loss of property was estimated at £30,000. In consequence of the office of the *Montreal Gazette* having suffered from the conflagration, that paper could not be published, and the only public record of this fire is found in the *Quebec Gazette*.

FIRES IN MONTREAL, 1852.

On Sunday morning 6th June, a fire broke out at the corner of St. Peter and Lemoine streets, which spread with wonderful rapidity, destroying the old St. Andrews church, Customs Warehouse in St. Peter as well as that in St. Paul street, all the buildings on the north-east side of the Custom House Square, making a clean sweep thence to St. Joseph street, on the east side of which all the stores were consumed, burning a number of large places on

Commissioner street and some on St. François-Xavier street, the whole of which latter was only saved by the tin roofs of a number of the buildings. The total loss was estimated at £200,000.

On Thursday morning, 8th July, 1852, another fire broke out in St. Catherine street, St. Lawrence suburbs, from whence, fanned by a strong south-west wind, it spread with amazing rapidity, burning every thing before it along St. Catherine, Dorchester and St. Denis streets, downwards to Craig street. The Bishop's Church and Palace fell a prey to the flames. The latter building had been newly erected, and was a splendid cut stone building with fluted columns. The buildings on Viger Place, including the Cattle Market, were destroyed. Scarcely had this fire been arrested when another equally disastrous broke out in Notre-Dame street, occasioned, as supposed, by sparks from the preceding one. It consumed all the houses on Dalhousie Square, the Officers Mess House, the Market House on Papineau Square, greater part of Amherst, Ste. Mary and Champ de Mars streets, through to St. Lewis street, and thence in an irregular direction into Campeau street, sweeping the greater part of the Quebec suburbs. Upwards of 1,200 houses were burned by the two conflagrations, and from 12,000 to 15,000 persons rendered houseless. The value of property destroyed was estimated at from £350,000 to £400,000. Narrow streets, wooden buildings covered with shingles, wooden fences and wood-yards, with the total want of water, were the main accessories to this calamity.

FIRE IN MONTREAL, 1853.

A fire occurred on Sunday morning, 25th December, 1853, in Notre-Dame street, destroying property to the value of $300,000. It originated in the store of Messrs. Lewis, crossing from thence by the rear to the store of Messrs. Sharpley, containing about $80,000 worth of plate and jewelry. The wind was high, and the cold so intense that, notwithstanding the fierce heat, the water froze on the adjacent buildings as fast as it was thrown on them. Enormous flakes of fire fell on the roof of the Hotel-Dieu, but, being covered with a large depth of snow, that building fortunately escaped. Great fears at one time were entertained, lest the main business part of the city should be destroyed, but with a sudden lull of the wind and the untiring exertions of the Fire Brigade, the conflagration was subdued.

FIRE IN MONTREAL, 1856.

On Tuesday night, the 9th December, 1856, the English Cathedral in Notre-Dame street, was discovered to be on fire, and

from the want of water, the fire, driven by a south-west wind, spread so quickly that the whole building was shortly a mass of flames. At times when the clouds of smoke were rolled away by the breeze, and the fire threw its red glare upwards, the whole belfry made a majestically stern appearance, standing erect, black, and defiant. Great fears were entertained from the fall of the steeple, which was of wood, large pieces detaching themselves and falling, blazing fiercely, on the adjoining houses. One o'clock was the last hour that pealed from the old belfry of Christ Church, which had tolled the hour for some thirty-seven years; for soon after, the clock and bell fell with a tremendous crash, and at ten minutes past two, the steeple fell, scattering its *debris* over the adjoining buildings. Mussen's house and store adjoining, with a number of other houses, were destroyed, and his stock injured by water to the extent of several thousand pounds. The cathedral and organ cost £9,000. The church plate was saved, and the altar-piece, a full sized copy of Leonardo de Vinci's "Last Supper" was only saved by being cut from its frame.

BURNING OF THE STEAMER "MONTREAL." 1857.

The steamer "Montreal," with between 400 and 500 persons on board, chiefly Scotch emigrants, was destroyed by fire on the night of the 26th June, 1857, at Cape Rouge, near Quebec, over 200 persons perishing. The steamer, on the fire breaking out, was immediately headed towards the shore, but the water being shallow she struck on a rock some 200 yards from it. Fortunately the Steamer "Napoleon," which was at hand rescued 175 persons. From the time the alarm was given, it is stated, not two minutes elapsed before the whole vessel was a sheet of flame. The most heart rending scenes occurred, as soon as the alarm was raised, men and women jumping overboard to escape the flames, but only to meet with death in another form—by drowning.—This catastrophe is the most terrible of any that have occurred in the annals of Canadian Steamboat Navigation.

FIRE AT ST. HYACINTHE, 1854.

An extensive conflagration occurred at St. Hyacinthe, on the 17th May, 1854, which consumed thirty houses, and at one time bid fair to devastate the whole city. It commenced in a frame house belonging to N. Clarke, on the river side, close to the mill. Thence up Cascade street running along Bourdages street. The wind blowing strongly at the time, the fire swept everything before it up the hill, till it reached the Cathedral, built on its crest, which was completely destroyed, the convent adjoining

and Bishop's Palace being, with difficulty, saved. So great was the force of the wind on the fire, that the stands at the race course, a mile off, were burnt down unobserved, the sparks and embers being carried over the business portion of the town, yet, strange to say, leaving it untouched. The Montreal Fire Brigade had to be summoned by telegraph before the fire could be got under. The loss was estimated at about $25,000.

FIRE IN TORONTO, 1849.

A fearful fire occurred on the 7th April, breaking out at the corner of King and St. George streets. The whole range of buildings on the north side of the former, the chief business part of the city, were destroyed, together with the English Cathedral (St. James). The whole of Nelson street, (east side) to King street was burned and the west side as far as Adelaïde street. The old City Hall, and the Toronto Athenæum also were consumed. Total loss estimated at £150,000.

To enumerate all the large fires and conflagrations in the different cities would form a volume in itself, and the author has been compelled to confine this section to only the most remarkable and distinctive conflagrations.

PUBLIC WORKS AND BUILDINGS.

PUBLIC WORKS.

CANALS.

The Canals of Canada are amongst the most important of its public works.

The most easterly work is the St. Peter's Canal, leading into the Bras d'Or, Cape Breton, which is designed to accommodate vessels of 22 feet 6 in. beam.

Next comes the Shubenacadie Canal intended to connect Halifax with the Bay of Fundy by inland navigation.

The St. Lawrence navigation is 2,385 miles long, and eight canals, of which seven are Canadian and one American, have been built to make it practicable for all its length. The works can hardly be said to be complete, though they have been long in use, for the general desire and the ultimate intention is to enlarge them, so as to admit vessels of 1,000 tons to come from sea into Lake Ontario, if not Lakes Erie and Huron.

Perhaps the most important of all is the Lachine Canal, a description of which will answer for all. This canal is 28 feet wide at the bottom, and 48 at the water line, with five feet depth of water throughout, and 18 inches from the water line to the towing path. There are in the whole five locks, each 200 by 45 feet in length with an entire fall of 43½ feet. The workmanship of these locks, and the various stone bridges along the route, are all of masonry of a superior and most substantial character, creditable to the builders, to the country, and to the whole undertaking; the bridges at the extremities are elegant and durable. This Canal, at the time of its formation, was greater as to depth of water, breadth, and length and breadth of locks than any similar work in Great Britain, with the exception of the Caledonian, and the Forth and Clyde Canals. The stone of which the bridges and locks were built, was brought from the opposite shore, near the

Indian village of Caughnawaga. In addition to its excellent qualities, the cheapness of its carriage, being conveyed entirely by water, rendered it very eligible for the purpose. The vast utility of the undertaking has been amply confirmed by the experience of years. Forming a line of junction in effect, between the Upper and Lower Province, it has facilitated the passage of goods, particularly of the heavier kinds, not only from the latter to the former, but also from many parts of the former, which would otherwise have scarcely reached Montreal, or would have been brought there at an expense which would have been all but a prohibition. The following table shews the various distances and size of the Canal Locks:—

Lachine Canal.....	8½	miles....	5	locks....	200 × 45 feet.
Beauharnois Canal....	11¼	"	9	"	200 × 45 "
Cornwall Canal.....	11½	"	7	"	200 × 55 "
Farran's Point Canal.	¾	"	1	"	200 × 45 "
Rapide Plat "	4	"	2	"	400 × 45 "
Iroquois and Galops "	7⅝	"	5	"	200 × 45 "
Welland "	28	" ...	27	"	150 × 26½ "
Sault Ste. Marie "	1	"	1	"	350 × 70 "

The Ottawa and Rideau Canals complete a second (interior) line of navigation from Montreal to Kingston. Their united length is 143¼ miles, of which the Rideau Canal is 126¾. The total lockage is 578¼ feet, of which 446¼ belong to the Rideau. Of this some 177 feet is fall, the difference rise. These canals were originally constructed by the Imperial Government for military purposes. This means of communicotion is more correctly a succession of raised waters by means of dams, with natural lakes intervening, than a canal, properly speaking. Lake Rideau is the summit pond, and the waters which burst out at White Fish Falls flow into the Gananoque River, which is the waste weir for regulating the water in Lake Rideau. Thus the water in the whole canals, whether in times of flood or drought, is kept at a steady height.

The St. Ours' lock and the Chambly canal connect the St. Lawrence and the Hudson *viâ* the Richelieu river and Lake Champlain.

TIMBER SLIDES.

The great timber slides at Ottawa, were the invention of the late Ruggles Wright, Esq., and passed afterwards into the hands of government. They have become a source of considerable revenue. The following description of them will convey some idea of their usefulness: When a quantity of lumber is brought down to the falls, a special contrivance called " slide " is neces-

sary to get it past them. For this purpose then, a certain portion of the river is dammed off, and turned into a broad channel made of timber, and down which artificial but most rapid of all rapids in America, the waters of the Ottawa rush at terrific speed. The head of the slide is placed some 300 yards above the falls, and terminates after a run of about three quarters of a mile, in the still waters of the river below. As, however, a raft on such a steep incline, hurried along by such a mass of water, would attain a speed which would destroy itself and all upon it, the fall of the shoot is broken at intervals by straight runs, along which it glides at comparatively reduced speed, till it again drops over, and commences another headlong rush. Some of these runs terminate with a perpendicular drop of some four or five feet, over which the raft goes headlong, and wallows in the boiling water beneath, till the current again gets the mastery, and forces it on, faster and more furiously than before. More than 20,000,000 cubic feet of timber come down the "shoots" of the Ottawa in this manner each year. The tolls on these slides last year amounted to $57,093; on the slides of the St Maurice $6,391, total $63,484. As the slides belong to the Dominion, the dues will henceforth go to the Dominion, and not to the revenues of the Provinces.

LIGHT HOUSES.

Within the past few years, a number of new light-houses have been constructed on the coasts and islands of the lower St. Lawrence. Four of these are leading sea-lights of a superior class, two situated at the upper entrance of the Gulf, the third on the strait of Belleisle, and the fourth on the south-western point of the Island of Belleisle.

RAILWAYS.

The Railway interest in Canada is quite of recent growth. The first line constructed, that from Montreal to Lachine, was opened but twenty years ago: the Grand Trunk and Great Western but ten, while the line that will connect the various Provinces of the Dominion with each other, and give unity to their several railway systems is yet to be constructed. The following are the several lines of Railway:

1. *The Great Western.* This line was built to connect the New York Central with the Michigan and Illinois lines over Canadian soil, and for the through traffic from Chicago to New York. Within the past year it has laid down a third rail to suit the guage of the American Railways, and by what is called the "Blue line" passengers are now carried through from New

York to Chicago, without change of cars. The Great Western connects at Detroit with the Michigan lines, and has magnificent ferry steamers there, which carry a whole train at a time across the river. It connects with the New York Central at Clifton, by means of a Suspension Railway Bridge across the Niagara River. It connects with the Grand Trunk, principally by means of a branch from Hamilton to Toronto, also by a branch from Harrisburgh through Galt to Guelph. Another important branch runs from Komoka to Sarnia, on Lake Huron, where and at Hamilton the Company owns fine grain stores and elevators. A short line has also been opened to the Oil regions at Petrolia. The cost of the road and equipment was $24,777,430.00.

2. *The Grand Trunk Railway.* If the Great Western was originally built to carry western traffic to the Altantic at New York, the Grand Trunk was built for the opposite purpose of carrying it as far as possible through Canada, and delivering it at the sea board at Montreal, Quebec, Portland, or if necessary, even Boston. The accommodation and development of the local traffic of Canada was also a leading idea of the projectors of this line, which without derogating from the credit due to the originators of the Great Western, must be called, pre-eminently, the Canadian Railway. It is to be regretted that at the building of the Grand Trunk, the Great Western was not amalgamated with it, as was at first intended, and made its western section. The misunderstanding which then occurred has had grievous consequences, the railways which should have been friends have always been rivals, to the detriment of their shareholders, and thus ultimately to that of the Province as well. The Grand Trunk owns a branch railway from Detroit to Port Huron, opposite Sarnia, so that it competes at Detroit with other lines for the traffic of the West. It has fine ferry steamers at Sarnia, and an unbroken line from this place to Rivière du Loup, below Quebec, on the St. Lawrence, and to Portland on the Atlantic. The line crosses the St. Lawrence at Montreal by means of the Victoria Bridge, and bifurcates at Richmond. The Grand Trunk has recently acquired control over the Buffalo and Lake Huron Railway from Goderich to Buffalo, where it has ferry boats connecting with the New York Railways, also of the Montreal and Champlain Railroad, which gives it an alternative route to Boston and New York. It has branches from St. Marys to London, and from Arthabaska to Doucet's Landing, opposite Three Rivers. The cost of the road and equipment exclusive of the leased lines, was $84,235,398.00.

3. *The London and Port Stanley Railway.* This line was built to afford to the city of London, and the rich agricultural country around it, an outlet to Lake Erie. From Port Stanley, its lake

terminus, Buffalo, Cleveland, Erie, Dunkirk, &c., are easily accessible. The cost of the road and equipment was $1,032,850.00.

4. *The Welland Railway.* This is one of a class of railways peculiar to Canada, viz: Grain portage roads, which are called for in consequence of the break in lake navigation, caused by the Niagara Falls. The Hon. W. H. Merritt's name will always be associated with the Welland Railway. After having brought about the construction of the Welland Canal, to pass vessels between Lakes Erie and Ontario, he perceived that the cargoes of vessels too large to go through the canal would call for railway accommodation, which would be all the more used, because grain is benefitted by being aired in transferring it by means of elevators from the hold of a vessel to the Railway, and again to another vessel. This traffic is what the Welland Railway was designed to do.

The Niagara and Erie Railway from Buffalo to Niagara, now just open, is another of the same class. *The Hamilton and Port Dover Railway*, not yet completed, is another, so is the Northern Railway, and so in a measure, is the *Sarnia Branch* of the Great Western. The cost of the road and equipment was $1,622,843.00.

5. *The Northern Railway.* This was built to enable the traffic of the Upper Lakes, to pass from Lake Huron to Lake Ontario by railway, from Collingwood to Toronto and *vice versâ;* also to afford an outlet to the front, for the country through which the road runs. To secure the Western traffic, it heavily subsidized steamboats to and from Lake Michigan ports, and so involved itself in pecuniary difficulties, but recently it has retrieved its position. The cost of the road and equipment was $5,457,789.00.

6. *Port Hope, Lindsay and Beaverton Railway, and Peterboro' branch.* We now come to one of a class of Railways of a different character to those previously mentioned. The roads above named, all seek for and obtain more or less "through" traffic, not so the Port Hope Line, which depends on local traffic alone. It was built partly to give the fine agricultural country in rear, an outlet to the front, but chiefly to enable the lumber which abounds in the back townships, to be brought to Lake Ontario. The branch line from Millbrook to Peterboro' was at first owned by an independent company, which had the right of using the rails of the main line from Millbrook to Port Hope; both lines came under one management in 1867. Cost of the roads and their equipment, $1,993,580.00.

7. *Cobourg, Peterboro' and Marmora Railway.* The Cobourg and Peterborough road, has long been in an unfortunate position. The bridge by which it crossed Rice Lake, on the way from

Cobourg to Peterboro', was broken up by the effects of the ice some years since, and it has not been rebuilt. In 1865-6, the 14 miles from Cobourg to the Lake, were used to bring down lumber, with monthly receipts of from $2,500 to $5,000. It has now fallen into other hands, has added Marmora to its name, and expects to do a considerable mineral traffic. Cost of road, $900,000, capital reduced by Act of Parliament to $100,000, now returned at $109,000.00.

8. *Brockville and Ottawa Railway.* The Brockville and Ottawa Railway, is almost exclusively a lumber road, bringing down timber from the Ottawa country, and carrying up supplies for the lumberers. In both these ways, its traffic is considerable. Cost of road and equipment, $2,647,004.00.

9. *Ottawa and Prescott Railway.* This is a narrow guage line, so built to connect by ferry with the American roads, but the disadvantages of its want of connection with the Grand Trunk, seem to have more than counter-balanced this. The line was for a long time in pecuniary difficulties, and was lately bought by the Ebbw Vale Iron Company, which has spent a good deal of money, and is expending more in putting it in thorough order, and laying down steel rails. Cost of road and equipment, $2,008,994.00.

10. *Carillon and Grenville Railway.* This is a portage road, 13 miles long, connecting two long navigable reaches of the Ottawa River. It is closed during the winter. Cost $98,761.

11. *Stanstead, Shefford and Chambly Railway.* This is a line built to connect certain portions of the Eastern Townships, with the Vermont Central Railroad, from which it leases its rolling stock. Cost $1,216,000.00.

12. *St Lawrence and Industrie Railway.* This is a strap railroad from the St. Lawrence to Joliette, closed in winter. Cost $54,100.00.

13. *The New Brunswick and Canada Railway.* This was built to connect St. Andrews, an open seaport, with Quebec *viâ* River du Loup, but it has only reached Richmond near Woodstock, less than one third of the distance. The people of St. Andrews argue that it should be brought into connection with the Intercolonial Railway, but it is too near the frontier for that purpose. Cost $2,750,000.00.

14. *The European and North American Railway* is so called, because it was intended to be a link in a chain of roads which should arrest travel from Europe at Halifax, or even at Sydney or St. John, Newfoundland, and pass it on to the American system

at Portland or Boston. It however only runs from St. John, N. B., to Point de Chêne, near Shediac. It is a Government work, under the direction of a Board of Commissioners. Cost of road and equipment, $4,747,713.

15. *The Nova Scotia Railway*, a Government work, runs from Halifax to Windsor, with a branch to Pictou. Cost $4,332,588.00.

VICTORIA TUBULAR BRIDGE.

The site of the Bridge is at the lower end of a small lake called the La Prairie Basin, which is situated about one mile above the entrance to the Lachine Canal, at the west end of Montreal Harbour. At this point the River St. Lawrence is from shore to shore 8,660 feet, or a mile and three quarters wide. The lake however which is extremely shallow is full of boulders, so much so, that excepting in the main channels, it is only navigable for vessels drawing from one foot six inches to two feet of water.

The superstructure as designed by Mr. Stephenson, consists of twenty-five tubes, or rather, as one continuous tube extends over two spans, of twelve double tubes, and the large central one over the channel. They are of the uniform width of sixteen feet throughout, for the accommodation of a single line of Railway, but differing in height as they approach the centre. Thus the depth of the tubes over the first two spans is eighteen feet six, the next two, nineteen feet, and so on, every coupled pair gaining an additional six inches, to the centre one, which is established at twenty-two feet in depth, as the proper proportion obtaining for a beam 330 feet long. These side spans being all the same length, the increase in height does not arise from any requirement of additional strength, but simply to prevent the appearance of too great a break being visible in the top line of the tubes, and by graduating the difference in height between the ends and the centre, to give greater facilities for the roof required in the protection of the tubes from moisture and consequent oxidation, and presenting at the same time a straight and continuous outline on the top.

The tubes, being detached, are not designed upon the principle of continuous beams, for practical reasons, including the circumstance of the steep gradient on each side of the central span, and the great disturbance which would be caused by the accumulated expansion and contraction of such a continuous system of iron work, in a climate where the extremes of temperature are so widely apart. The arrangement introduced of coupling but two together with an intermediate space of eight inches between them and the neighboring tubes, divides this movement and retains it within certain specified limits.

A double tube covering two openings, is securely bolted to the masonry of the pier in the centre, on which it has a solid bearing of sixteen feet by nineteen, and provided with a free bearing on each of the two contiguous piers of seven and a half feet, resting at each end on fourteen expansion rollers six inches in diameter, and three feet in length, seven on each side of the tube, retained in place by a wrought iron frame, allowing the rollers to traverse on a planed cast iron bedplate seven and a half feet long, three and a half wide, and three inches thick, bolted to the masonry. A similar plate covers the rollers, and is secured to the bottom of the tube. The tube is thus free to expand or contract each way from the bearing pier in the centre.

Creosoted tamarack timber, covered with felt, is introduced between the iron and the stone, in every case, to give the junction of these hard materials a certain amount of elasticity.

The tube proper is composed entirely of wrought iron in the form of boiler plate, ranging from four sixteenths to twelve sixteenths of an inch in thickness, with the joints and angles stiffened and strengthened by the addition of Tee and Angle irons. The secret of success in this mode of construction, lies in arranging those different thicknesses where the strains or weights call for additional strength or otherwise.

Keelsons 10 inches in depth, are placed transversely at distances of 7 feet, and secured to the side Tee bars by gussets, for the support of the longitudinal timbers carrying the rails. The wrought iron in a single tube 258 feet in length, including its bearings over the piers, weighs about a ton to the running foot, or 258 tons in all.

The central tube, in consequence of its increased length, is somewhat different in its arrangement ; the bottom and top being proportionately stronger, the first with an additional thickness of plates, and the last with longitudinal keelsons, taking the place of the ordinary longitudinal Tee bars, as existing on the side tubes. The side plates are two and a half feet instead of three and half feet wide, with a proportionately larger number of side Tee bars. The whole tube is disconnected from the others, being bolted to pier No. 12, and resting on rollers on No. 13 pier.

Windows are introduced into the sides of the tubes near the line of neutral axis, and serve to light up the inside, iron brackets are placed on the piers where not occupied by the tubes, and slope back to the top of the tubes, but are entirely disconnected from it. They serve to give a finished appearance, and likewise prevent the snow and rain blowing in through the openings left for expansion and contraction. It was originally intended to cover the top of the tubes with a curved corrugated iron roof, to protect them from the weather. This design was subsequently abandoned,

and the present sloping angular one substituted, composed of grooved and tongued boards, covered with the best quality of tin. This tin is not put on in the usual manner, but by an ingenious arrangement, each sheet is allowed to expand and contract at pleasure, without the danger of destroying the fastenings which attach it to the timber underneath, as in the ordinary method made use of, and thus insures its continual efficiency.

A foot walk of 26 inches in width extends along the top of the roof, the whole length of the tubes, for the convenience of the employées connected with the work ; a track is also provided for the painting travellers.

The buttress of each pier, 24 in number, is calculated to withstand the pressure of 70,000 tons of ice when the winter breaks up, and the large ice-fields come sweeping down the St. Lawrence ; and the western faces of the piers, that is those towards the current, which flows through them at a rate varying from seven to ten miles an hour, terminate in a sharp pointed edge, and the fore part of each presents two beautifully beveled off surfaces. They are so shaped in order to offer the least possible resistance to the ice. The stone used in the construction of the piers and abutments is a dense blue limestone, partly obtained from a quarry at Pointe Claire, eighteen miles above Montreal, and partly from a quarry on the borders of Vermont, about forty miles distant. The blocks of stone are bound together not only with the best water cement, but each stone is clamped to its neighbour in several places by massive iron rivets, bored several inches into each block, and the interstices between the rivet and the block made one solid mass by means of molten lead. The two centre piers are each 18 feet wide--the centre span 330 feet wide, and each of the other spans 242 feet. The centre tube is 60 feet from the surface of summer water ; the aggregate length of solid abutments 2,600 feet ; iron tubing 6,594 feet ; cost of the bridge, $6,300,000.

The first stone, No. 1 Pier laid, 20th July, 1854.
First passenger train passed, 17th December, 1859.
Total length of Bridge, 9,184 feet lineal.
Height from bed of river to top of centre tube, 108 feet.
Greatest depth of water, 22 feet.
Cubic feet of masonry, 3,000,000.
Tons of iron in tubes, 8,250.
Number of rivets, 2,500,000.
Number of men employed in construction, 3,040.
Horses, 142. Locomotives, 4.

SUSPENSION BRIDGE, (Niagara.)

The success of this extraordinary bridge is now an established fact. The Niagara Railway Bridge was erected under the superintendence of Mr. John A. Roebling, was commenced in September, 1852, and was opened for railway traffic in March, 1855. The lower floor, for common travel, was in use the previous year. The span of the bridge is 821 feet four inches from centre to centre, and the length of the suspended platform exactly 800 feet. The bridge consists of two floors, one 19 feet above the other, leaving 15 feet clear between them. The lower floor is appropriated to ordinary traffic, while the upper is used for railway business and "sidewalks." The top floor measures 25 feet 4 inches across, outside the railings; the bottom floor is a foot narrower. The railway track is 145 feet above the river.

Each floor is attached by separate suspenders, to a separate pair of cables; though of course, by means of trusses and other connections, any load is mutually borne by all the cables. The cables are therefore four in number; each cable is $10\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter, and composed of 3,640 wires, about one tenth of an inch in diameter. These wires are made up into seven strands of 520 wires each, which are bound round at intervals to keep them in their places. The strength of all the cables is calculated at 12,000 tons, each wire being able to bear 1,648 lbs. without breaking. The total length of the top cables is 1,261 feet, and of the bottom cables 1,194 feet. The cables supporting the lower floor descend 10 feet lower than the top pair, the deflection from a straight line being 54 and 64 feet respectively. The suspenders are 624 in number, placed 5 feet apart.

The structure is remarkably steady and free from vibration; to secure which desirable object various means have been employed.

The principal cause of the stiffness of the bridge is the system of trussing adopted. On each side of the bridge the upper and lower floors are connected by wooden posts, arranged in pairs side by side, just sufficiently apart to allow the diagonal truss rods crossing between them. These truss rods are of wrought iron an inch in diameter, and extend at an angle of 45 degrees from the bottom of one pair of posts, to the top of the fourth pair from it. As the posts are 5 feet apart, like the suspenders, the pressure above any pair of posts is by these truss rods spread over a space of forty feet. The truss rods are screwed at the ends; and thus if the timber should shrink at any time, all can be made right again by simply tightening the nuts on the truss rods, which braces all tight up together again. In short, the two floors, connected by the system of posts and trusses described, give much of the rigidity of a tubular bridge, with only perhaps a tenth of its weight.

There are also a number of diagonal wire stays extending from the top of each tower. These stays are 64 in number, and though they do not bear much of the weight of the bridge, Mr. Roebling believes them to guard it against vertical oscillation. A number of smaller stays are also attached to the under-side of the structure, and anchored to the rocks below.

The inclination of the upper cables also greatly guards the bridge against horizontal vibration. The centres of the towers are 39 feet apart; but instead of hanging straight from tower to tower, the top cables are brought in the middle to within 13 feet of each other. The suspenders are also inclined inward; and the whole arrangement, though it puts a very slight additional strain upon the cables, tends greatly to maintain the steadiness of the structure.

The construction of the masonry is one cause of the economy of the bridge. Instead of a massive tower on each pier, as in most European examples, there are two towers, one for each pair of cables, so slender that they look like mere chimneys, yet abundantly sufficient for the purpose. The basement is a mass of masonry 60 feet by 20 feet, pierced by an arch 19 feet wide, which forms the entrance to the lower floor at each end. Above this are built two towers, each 60 feet above the arch, 15 feet square at the base, and 8 feet square at the top. By this light construction, without incurring any risk, much masonry and money is saved.

This bridge is the connecting link between the Railways of Canada, and the New York Central Railway, and so with the United States.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

GREY NUNNERY.—(MONTREAL.)

This building was founded and endowed in 1692, upon the same plan as that which was then building in Quebec; it was started by several laymen citizens of Montreal, at the head of whom was M. Charron, a native of Normandy. The objects of this institution were to provide an asylum for lame, superannuated and infirm persons. Under the wise and prudent direction of M. Charron it prospered, but after his death his successor proved to be ill qualified for it, and the Frères leaving, it was committed to the care of a society of ladies, under the superintendence of Madame Youville, in the month of August, 1747. The Frères had left the Hospital £2,000 in debt; this debt Madame Youville undertook to discharge, and her zeal, industry and rigid economy soon surmounted her difficulties. Assisted by the generosity of the public who came liberally forward to aid her and her sisters in their pious undertaking, instead of twelve poor and infirm old persons whom they had at first to support, the hospital was soon in a condition to extend its benefits to persons of all ages and stations of life. In the course of a short time no fewer than one hundred sick and wounded were receiving assistance and support from this institution. In the year 1755 a further extension was made in the plan of the hospital. One day in the preceding winter as Madame Youville was going into town on business connected with the institution, she observed an infant in the ice on the "Little River." It was hard frozen with a poignard sticking in its throat, and one of its little hands raised through the ice, as if in the attitude of demanding justice against the perpetrator of so atrocious a crime. Her benevolent feelings were greatly shocked at witnessing so horrible a spectacle; and after consulting with her associates they came to the determination, notwithstanding the additional expense, of extending their charity and protection to

orphans and foundlings. In the year 1765 a fire happened in their premises which consumed the greater part of the building. By the fruits of their continued industry, aided by donations from the charitable, these ladies soon rebuilt the house upon a more extensive and commodious plan than before. A neat gateway has been erected in the wall in front of the chapel, bearing this inscription :

Hopital Général des Sœurs Grises
Fondé en 1755
Mon père et ma mère m'ont abandonné, mais le Seigneur
m'a recueilli. Ps. 26.

A few years after the fire Madame Youville purchased from her own private funds the small island of Chateauguay, and afterwards the whole Seigniory was bought for the Institution. This however with other lands did not yield much revenue till recently. Grants from the legislature have enabled the Society to extend its bounty to a greater number of lunatics and foundlings. Of the scale on which this establishment is now conducted, some judgment may be formed from the fact that at least 160 individuals are resident in its walls, besides servants and attendants.

THE BLACK NUNNERY.—(Montreal)

OR CONVENT DE LA CONGREGATION DE NOTRE-DAME.

This was founded by Marguerite Bourgeois, who commenced the undertaking in the year 1659, with some young ladies she had brought from France. The front of the nunnery is in Notre Dame St., where it extends 234 feet, and its depth along St. John Baptist St., is 433 ft. Besides the principal edifice for the residence of the members and pupils, the nunnery contains a chapel, numerous detached buildings, and a large garden. The Congregation is composed of a Superior and sixty sisters. The object of the Institution is female instruction in its different branches, and the greater part of the members are employed in the work of tuition and training. From this establishment some of the sisters are sent as missionaries to different parts of the district, for the purpose of opening and conducting schools in parishes remote from the convent. The benevolent foundress of this institution was born at Troyes, in France, and was brought to this country in Sepr. 1653, by M. Maisonneuve, the Governor of the island of Montreal, who had been revisiting France. On her arrival she commenced those labours for the instruction of young females, both of Indian and French origin, which she continued with much success for many years and which amidst many difficulties enabled her to establish the Nunnery of the Congregation. Her design was

approved by the parish priest, and the Governor, who gave her the choice of any ground that was then unoccupied. She selected the spot on which the church of Bonsecours now stands, and laid there the foundation of a chapel in 1658; but the Abbé Quelus who had come out to establish the seminary of the Sulpicians, not being acquainted with her excellencies, and looking upon her design as an interference with his department and plan, forbade her to proceed. Yielding instant obedience to him as her superior, she desisted, and returned to France for the purpose of obtaining the direction and authority of the Government. In this object she succeeded, and met also with much encouragement from the congregation to which she belonged, and other individuals, in France. In the following year she returned to Ville Marie, bringing with her, for instruction in her proposed Seminary, several young females who had been entrusted to her care. Finding the timber and other materials which she had collected for the Chapel of Bonsecours, either removed or rendered useless, she sought for another spot on which to execute her design, now become more extensive from the encouragement she had received. An offer of some out-houses near the place where the nunnery now stands, induced her to commence her establishment there; and in subsequent years other grants both of land and money, fresh arrivals of young females from France, the countenance of the authorities both there and in Canada, and lastly the issuing of Letters Patent from the King, placed the institution upon a solid basis, and secured at once both its permanency and its extension. The benevolent foundress had the pleasure for many years, of witnessing its growing prosperity, and of contributing to that prosperity by her own unwearied exertions. At length, full of days and honours, she died on the 12th of January, 1700, in the 80th year of her age.

The black dress worn by the sisters of the Congregation has given to the establishment the colloquial title of Black nunnery, while by many it is denominated the Congregational nunnery, from the fact of its being conducted by the sisters, for the benefit of the daughters of the congregation de Notre-Dame.

SEMINARY OF ST. SULPICE.—(Montreal.)

This establishment is one of the oldest connected with the Roman Catholic Church in Montreal. It was founded about the year 1657, by the Abbé Quelus, who had recently arrived from France, with a commission from the St. Sulpicians of Paris, to superintend the settlement and cultivation of the island and especially to found an institution on a plan similar to their own. The seminary is the dwelling-house of those members of the Sulpician family who are occupied in parochial duties. The houses of this

order in France are all Ecclesiastical Seminaries; so that when some of the members came out to Montreal, the establishment here received the same name. The Seminary is a large and commodious building, adjoining the Parish Church. It occupies three sides of a square, 132 feet long by 90 deep, with spacious gardens and ground attached, extending 342 feet in Notre-Dame street, and 444 along St. François Xavier street. Connected with it is a school for junior pupils, which is conducted by Les Frères des Ecoles Chrétiennes, and contains about 300 children. The Seminary has also established a number of schools in different parts of the parish for a similar purpose.

CHURCH OF NOTRE-DAME DE BONSECOURS.—(Montreal.)

The foundation of this Church was laid in 1658, by the celebrated Sœur Marguerite Bourgeois, who intended to found here the Nunnery of the Congregation; but meeting with some obstacles she visited France, whence she returned the following year with several young persons to educate, and proceeded to establish the Nunnery where it now stands in Notre-Dame street. Some years afterwards she was induced by the following circumstance to undertake the completion of the church. In her second visit to France in 1671, to obtain letters patent for her institution, she was directed to the house of M. Pierre Chevrier, Baron de Faucamp, Priest, one of the first proprietors of the Island of Montreal, then resident in Paris. He had in his possession a small image of the Virgin, reputed to be endowed with miraculous virtue, brought by some other priests, also associates of the Company, from among the relics of their Chateau, where it had been preserved and honored for at least a century. It was desired that this image should be removed to Montreal, and a chapel built for its reception. This, Sœur Bourgeois undertook to perform, and on her return, bringing with her the image, the inhabitants of Montreal with great zeal entered into her design. A solemn procession was made on the 29th June, 1673, to lay the corner stone of the edifice, which was finished in 1675, and mass performed on the day of Assumption. *This was the first church built of stone* in the Island of Montreal. In 1754 it was consumed by fire and not rebuilt till 1771, when its re-erection was resumed.

It continued to belong to the Sisters of the Congregation, till it was disposed of some years since, to the Fabrique of the parish; and is now used in connection with the Roman Catholic establishment in that city.

CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE-DAME.—(Montreal.)

This edifice is a chaste specimen of the perpendicular style of Gothic architecture in the middle ages. Of this class of buildings,

it has no superior on the continent of North America. The corner stone was laid on the 3rd September, 1824, and it was so far completed as to admit of being opened for public worship on the 15th July, 1829, when high mass was performed by the Bishop of Telmesse, and an oration delivered by the Revd. Mr. Quibler. The solemnity was attended by Sir Jas. Kempt, administrator, the staff, corporations and other public bodies. The length of the church is 255 feet 6 inches, and its breadth 134 feet 6 inches. There are six towers so arranged that each flank presents three, and the east and west ends two each, those on the principal front are 220 feet high. The space between the front towers is 73 feet by 120 in height, crowned with an embattled parapet; the flanks and east towers are 115 feet in height. There are five public and three private entrances to the first floor, and four to the galleries, so that an audience of 10,000 persons, the number for which it is seated, may assemble and disperse in a few minutes, without any disagreeable pressure. The number of pews on the ground floor is 504, in the first gallery 373, and in the second 368, total 1244. The eastern window at the high altar is 64 feet in height, and 32 in breadth. It is separated by shafts into five compartments.

JESUITS' COLLEGE, (Quebec.)

This building was founded in December, 1635. The site was the same as that which the buildings now occupy, on the other side of the square in which the French Cathedral and Seminary were afterwards built. Their church, however, stood upon that part of Garden street which has since acquired the name of the Haymarket. On the removal of the church, the street was widened to its present breadth. Behind the college and church, were the extensive grounds and garden belonging to the order. In 1639, the Jesuits' church served as the *Paroisse* of Quebec; it is described as being then a handsome building of wood, with an arched roof and gallery, and such appropriate decorations as gave it all the appearance of a church. In 1640, on the 14th June, the College and Church of the Jesuits was entirely destroyed by fire, and the fathers were accommodated by the *Hospitalières* of the Hôtel-Dieu, with the loan of their own house. The chapel of the Hôtel-Dieu then became the *Paroisse* of Quebec, and the *Hospitalières* went to reside at a house in the neighborhood.

The establishment of the Jesuits at Sillery was commenced in 1637, under the auspices of Father Le Jeune. The Jesuits' College was afterwards rebuilt in its present form, and must have been considered at the time a noble edifice. From this seat of piety and learning, issued those dauntless Missionaries who made the Gospel known over a space of six hundred leagues, and preached the Christian faith from the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi.

The property which the Jesuits acquired by purchase, by grants from the King, and by donations from individuals, was very considerable. In the year 1764, the Order was abolished by the King of France, and the members of the society became private individuals. The last Jesuit, Father Casot, died in 1800, when the property of the Order fell to His Britannic Majesty.

It has been stated that the church originally stood in the Haymarket, opposite to Garden street. The College has long been appropriated by the Imperial Government as a barrack for a regiment of infantry, which is always quartered in the city. Until twenty years ago, the last surviving trees of the forest were to be seen in the angle in the rear of the barrack office. They have since perished, and the spacious barrack yard now occupies the site, where the Jesuits once rejoiced in their umbrageous walks.

THE HOTEL-DIEU.—(QUEBEC.)

One of the first objects of the Colony of Champlain after its restoration to the French in 1633, was the foundation of an Hôtel-Dieu. In 1636, the Duchess D'Aiguillon, niece to the famous Cardinal Richelieu, resolved to found one at her own expense. She was, however, liberally assisted her relative. By contract passed on the 16th April, 1639, they gave an annual rent of 1,500 livres, on a capital of 20,000, as a commencement of their benevolent design. The donation was afterwards doubled in amount; but the revenues appear never to have been equal to the expenses incurred, and of late years the pecuniary aid of the Legislature has been frequently bestowed upon this deserving community. As soon as a portion of the first building which stood upon the site of the present Hôtel-Dieu was covered in, the *Hospitalières* took possession, and personally aided the workmen in completing it by their manual labour. Their chapel was consecrated on the 16th March, 1646, an occasion of great joy to the little community, which consisted at this time of only five professed nuns, a chaplain, four boarders, a female domestic, and seven labouring men.

The first hospital being built of wood, and only fourteen feet wide, was soon found too limited for the accommodation of the numerous applicants. By great exertions they were enabled to build another, more commodious in dimension, and far more solid in construction. The new buildings, which consisted of an hospital, now the female ward, a choir and a church, were finished in 1658, and the latter was consecrated by the Abbé de Quelus on the 10th August.

In 1672, the wants of an increasing population rendered the augmentation of the Hôtel-Dieu again necessary; and under the

liberal patronage of the Intendant, M. Talon, another ward and an additional wing were undertaken. In 1696 again, considerable additions were made to the buildings, which, with subsequent improvements, gradually assumed their present appearance. The present edifice is a substantial and capacious building, three stories high, standing between Palace and Hope Gates. Every medical care and delicate attendance is here gratuitously afforded to the afflicted poor, by the religious community. The church is simple and plain, with a few paintings, some of which are said to be originals by eminent masters.

THE URSULINE CONVENT.—(Quebec.)

This institution, as well as that of the Hôtel-Dieu, owes its origin to the powerful representations of the Jesuits settled in New France. The first building was founded by Madame De La Peltrie, in 1641. It was built of wood, and stood within the present possessions of the community, between the St. Lewis Garden, St. Anne and St. Ursule streets. In 1650, the convent was destroyed by fire, an enemy which proved most destructive to the early establishments of Quebec. The fire broke out on the 30th December, and was occasioned by some coals which had been left by a sister employed in baking. The nuns made their escape, but the building was entirely consumed. The convent was rebuilt, and again in 1686 on the *Fête* of St. Ursula, and during the performance of high mass, the building caught fire, and was a second time burned to the ground. Every one took an interest in the reparation of the disaster. The rebuilding of it soon commenced, and a small house was hastily constructed, in which the nuns passed the winter. The present convent, which with its garden and out-buildings, occupies seven acres of ground, is a plain but commodious edifice of stone, two stories high, forming a square of about 38 yards long by 40 deep. The rest of the site, with the exception of the court, is occupied by a productive garden, and surrounded by a stone wall. Within the precincts of the convent lie buried the remains of the gallant Marquis de Montcalm, who was mortally wounded in the eventful battle of the Plains of Abraham, 13th September, 1759. A plain marble slab was placed in the Ursuline Chapel to the memory of this brave soldier, by Lord Aylmer. The community of the Ursulines consists of a superior, forty-two professed nuns, and some novices. The chapel contains some fine paintings, among which is a *Mater Dolorosa* by Van Dyke.

THE SEMINARY OF QUEBEC.

This highly useful establishment was founded and endowed by M. de Laval, first Bishop of Canada, in the year 1663. It was

intended at first chiefly as an Ecclesiastical Institution, with a few young pupils, who were educated here for the ministry. At the extinction of the Jesuits order however, it threw open its doors to the youth of the country generally. Professorships were established, and all the ordinary branches of literature and science began to be taught. The buildings were twice burned to the ground, during the life of its venerable founder. The first fire took place on the 15th November 1701. Not discouraged, the Bishop determined no means should be spared to rebuild it. A strong representation was made to Court, and a yearly pension of 4000 livres was granted as an aid towards its re-establishment. After four years labour had been bestowed upon it, it was again set on fire by the carelessness of a workman. It was rebuilt, but was destined to be almost totally destroyed during the siege of 1759. Its disasters were even not yet complete, for it was once more partially consumed by fire in 1772.

The present buildings including the Chapel, are divided into four wings, three and in some parts four stories high. The funds of the Seminary hardly suffice for its support. The Chapel contains the best collection of paintings to be seen in the country, of the French school and by eminent masters. There is also a valuable library, and a museum in connection with the Institution.

LAVAL UNIVERSITY.

This building so closely connected with the Seminary, is substantially built of grey stone, and is three stories in height, with the exception of one wing, four stories high and nearly fifty yards in length. The chapel contains the best collection of paintings (by eminent masters) in this country, amongst which the following are esteemed the most valuable :—"The Saviour and the Woman of Samaria, at Jacob's Well," by *Lagrenée*. "The Virgin ministered unto by Angels, who are represented as preparing linen clothes for the child Jesus," by *DeDieu*. "The Saviour on the Cross," by *Monet*. "The Egyptian Hermits in the solitude of Thebais," by *Guillet*. "The Terror of St. Jerome, at the recollections of a vision of the day of Judgment," by *D'Hullin*. "The Ascension of the Lord Jesus," by the *Champagnes*. "The Saviour's Sepulchre and Interment," by *Hutin*. "The Flight of Joseph to Egypt," by *Vanloo*. "Two Angels," by *LeBrun*. "The Trance of St. Anthony," by *Panocel d'Avignes*. "The day of Pentecost," by the *Champagnes*. "Peter's Deliverance from Prison," by *DeLaFosse*. "Another view of the Hermits of Thebais," by *Guillet*. "The Baptism of Christ," by *Claude Guy Hallé*. "St. Jerome writing," by the *Champagnes*. "The Wise Men of the East adoring the Saviour," by *Bourieu*.

The library in connection with the University contains 9,000 volumes, and there is a valuable collection of philosophical instruments, besides fossils, minerals, Indian curiosities, &c., &c. The classical course is supplemented by the Faculties of Law, Medicine, Chemistry, Philosophy and History. The examinations take place at the close of July.

FRENCH CATHEDRAL.

This edifice was built under the auspices of Monseigneur de Laval, first Bishop of Quebec, and consecrated under the title of the *Immaculate Conception* in 1666. It occupies the south side of the market square in the Upper Town, and immediately adjoins the Seminary. It is distinguished rather for its solidity and neatness, than for splendour or regularity of architecture. The aisles, considerably lower than the nave of the Church, and the lofty tower and spire built without, and separated from it on the south side, reminding the spectator somewhat of the round towers of Ireland, destroy all external symmetry, yet do not detract from the religious appearance of the pile. The Cathedral within is very lofty, with massive arches of stone dividing the nave from the aisles, above which is a gallery on each side running the whole length of the interior. It is described by Col. Bouchette in his statistical work, as 216 feet in length, by 108 in breadth. It is able to contain a congregation of about 4,000 persons. At the east end are the Grand Altar and Choir, superbly decorated. There are also four small chapels in the aisles, dedicated to different saints. In a transverse gallery at the west end, is the organ. The Church suffered severely during the bombardment prior to the battle of the Plains, in 1759. In an old print extant it is represented as almost in ruins, having been set on fire by shells discharged from Point Levis. The consequence was, that the fine pictures and other ancient ornaments of the Cathedral were mutilated or entirely destroyed. Those which are now seen upon the walls were placed there when the building was renovated, after the cession of the Province to Great Britain. Within the Choir is a marble tablet to the memory of Monseigneur Plessis, a former Bishop of Quebec.

WOLFE & MONTCALM'S MONUMENT.

The memorial in honour of the two military chiefs who fell at the head of the opposing armies, in that decisive battle which made these Provinces a portion of the British Empire, is as conspicuous, as it is classical ornament of the city. It stands on the west side of Des Carrières Street, leading from the Place D'Armes

to the glacis of Cape Diamond. In front is a broad walk, a public promenade, overlooking the Castle Garden, and commanding a fine view of the harbour. The obelisk has on the whole an altitude of 65 feet from the ground. The monument presents the following inscription on the Sarcophagus, or Cenotaph of the heroes. On the front in large letters

Mortem. Virtus. Communem.
Famam. Historia.
Monumentum. Posteritas.
Dedit.

On the rear is the following—

Hujusce
Monumenti in virorum illustrium memoriam,
WOLFE ET MONTCALM
Fundamentum P. C.
Georgius Comes De Dalhousie:
In septentrionalis Americæ partibus
Ad Britannos pertinentibus
Summam rerum administrans;
Opus per multos annos prætermissum,
Quid duci egregio convenientuis?
Auctoritate promovens, exemplo stimulans,
Munificentiâ fovens.
A. S. MDCCCXXVII.
Georgio IV. Britanniarum rege.

On the north side of the Sarcophagus looking to the country, is the simple word "MONTCALM" in large characters; and on the opposite side, that towards the River by which he reached the scene of his glorious victory and death, is inscribed the name of "WOLFE."

FORTIFICATIONS OF QUEBEC.

The fortifications of this city from its natural position, and the strength with which they are constructed, have given Quebec the name of the "Gibraltar of America." The approach to the citadel, which is nearly two hundred feet higher than the ground on which Upper Town is situated, is by a winding road made through the acclivity of the *Glacis* from St. Lewis Gate, and commanded everywhere by the guns of the different bastions. This leads into the outward ditch of the ravelin, and thence into the principal ditch of the work, built on both sides with walls of solid masonry,

and extending along the whole circumference of the citadel on the land and city sides. The main entrance is through a massive gate of admirable construction, called Dalhousie Gate. Within are the main guardrooms for a detachment and an officer, who are relieved every day; and in front is a spacious area used as a parade ground, or rather an enlargement of the ditch formed by the retiring angles and face of the bastion. In the face of the latter are loop-holes for the fire of musketry; on the top are embrasures for cannon. On the top of Dalhousie Bastion, is an extensive covered way or gravel walk, with embrasures for mounting cannon, commanding every part of the ditch and glacis, and every avenue of approach to the citadel. Within the latter are the various magazines, store houses, and other buildings required for the accommodation of a numerous garrison; and immediately overhanging the precipice to the south, in a most picturesque situation, stands a row of buildings, containing the mess rooms and barracks for the officers, their stables and kitchens. The fortifications, which are continued round the whole of Upper Town, consist of bastions connected by lofty curtains of solid masonry, and ramparts from 25 to 35 feet in height and about the same in thickness, bristling with heavy cannon, round towers, loop-holed walls, and massive gates recurring at certain distances. On the summit of the ramparts, from Cape Diamond to the Artillery barracks, is a broad covered way or walk, which passes over St. Johns and St. Lewis Gate, where there is stationed a sergeant's guard. The St. John's gate has lately been rebuilt, and is the most beautiful of the five gates.

The city being defended on its land side by its ramparts, is protected on the other sides by a lofty wall and parapet, based on the cliff, and commencing near the River St. Charles at the artillery barracks. These form a very extensive range of buildings, the part within the gate being occupied by the military as barracks and mess room for officers, while that within the gate is used as magazines, store-houses, and offices for the ordnance department. Immediately adjoining the artillery barracks, and connecting the works on the left with their continuation along the St. Charles, stands Palace Gate, having a guard house attached on the right. From Palace Gate, the fortifications are continued along the brow of the cliff, overhanging the mouth of the St. Lawrence, until they reach Hope Gate, a distance of 300 yards. A broad level walk divides the outer wall from the possessions of the Hotel-Dieu. At Hope Gate commences the gradual elevation of the ground which terminates at the eastern portion of Cape Diamond. Beyond the gate the wall is continued until it reaches a point opposite St. George's street, and the store house at the angle of the Seminary garden. Here it reaches the perpendicular cliff *Sault-au-Matelot*, from which eminence the grand battery mounting a range of guns

carrying balls of 32 pounds, commands the basin and harbour below. In front of the Grand Battery, which extends to the Bishop's Palace, and where the escarpment of the cliff is nearly 300 feet above the water, the stone parapet is but a few feet high. Close to the Bishop's Palace is Prescott Gate with its guard-house, protected by powerful defences, and by works which connect it on the right with the old Castle of St. Lewis. Here the stone rampart forms part of that ruin, and is supported by buttresses built upon the solid rock overlooking the Lower Town, at an elevation of 200 feet. To the south-west of the Castle is Government Garden, 180 yards long by 70 bread, within which a small battery commands part of the harbour. In front the fortifications are continued 300 yards, until they reach the foot of the *Glacis* or acclivity towards Cape Diamond, crowned at that point by the Round Tower and Flagstaff. The extent of the ramparts toward the land side, from the south-west angle of the citadel to the cliff above the St. Charles, is stated to be eighteen hundred and thirty seven yards. Within this rampart is the Esplanade, a level space covered with grass, between St. Lewis and St. John's Gates. Here are mounted the several guards on duty at the citadel, and other public buildings, each forenoon, and here occasional parades of the Garrison take place. The circuit of the fortifications is *two miles and three quarters*. Generally speaking the city may be said to be surrounded by a lofty and strong wall of hewn stone, constructed with elegance, as well as durability. The castellated appearance produced by the battlements, ditches, embrasures, round towers and gates, adds much to its grand and imposing effect from without. There are five gates, opening in different directions to the country, the suburbs, and Lower Town. They are named respectively St. John's, St. Lewis, Palace, Hope and Prescott Gates—the two latter named after and in honour of the Lieutenant Generals and Commanders in Chief, Henry Hope (1775) and Robert Prescott (1796-9.)

BROCK'S MONUMENT. (Queenston Heights.)

The gratitude of the people of Canada to the memory of Brock was manifested in an enduring form. They desired to perpetuate the memory of the hero who had been the instrument of their deliverance, and they were not slow in executing their design; for whilst his deeds were still fresh in the memory of all, the Provincial Legislature erected a lofty column on the Queenston heights, near the spot where he fell. The height of the monument from the base to the summit was 135 feet; and from the level of the Niagara River, which runs nearly under it 485 feet. The monument was a Tuscan column on a rustic pedestal, with another

pedestal for a statue ; the diameter of the base of the column was 17½ feet and the abacus of the capital was surmounted by an iron railing. The centre shaft containing the spiral staircase was ten feet in diameter.

The old monument having been seriously injured by a miscreant from the States, named Lett, who had been mixed up in the rebellion of 37-8, who introduced a quantity of gun powder into it, to vent his petty spite on Canada by blowing up the obelisk of this hero, a new one was commenced in 1853, and finished in 1856; it is 185 feet high, and is ascended on the inside by a spiral staircase of 235 stone steps. The base is 40 feet square and 35 feet in height, surmounted by a tablet 35 feet high, with historical devices on the four sides. The main shaft about 100 feet, is of the Roman composite order and is the loftiest known of this style ; it is fluted and surmounted by a Corinthian capital, on which is placed a colossal figure of Major General Brock, 18 feet in height. This beautiful structure cost £10,000 sterling, being entirely constructed of a cream-coloured stone quarried in the vicinity. A massive stone wall, 80 feet square, adorned with military figures and trophies at the corners 27 feet high, surrounds the monument, leaving space for grass-plot and walk on the inside of the inclosure.—The following is the inscription :

Upper Canada has dedicated this monument
to the memory of the late
Major General Sir Isaac Brock, K. B.
Provisional Lieut. Governor and Commander of the forces in this Province,
whose remains are deposited in the vault beneath.
Opposing the invading enemy he fell in action, near the Heights,
on the 13th October 1812, in the 43rd year of his age.
Revered and lamented by the people whom he governed, and deplored by
the sovereign to whose service his life had been devoted.

This monument exceeds in height any monumental column known, with the exception of that on Fish Street Hill, London, England, by Sir Christopher Wren, architect, in commemoration of the great fire of 1666, 202 feet in height, exceeding this by 12 feet.

TORONTO UNIVERSITY.

This Building, which is in the Norman style of architecture, forms three sides of a vast square ; the front of the main building being about 300 feet in length, with a large tower in the centre rising to an elevation of 120 feet. The east wing is 260 feet in

length and 38 in height. The materials used in the construction of this building are white brick and Ohio freestone, with dressings of Caen stone which is of the same colour; the roof is of a bluish slate, and is embellished with rich ornaments in iron-work. The library of this University contains about 13,000 volumes: the museum possesses divers collections; of these the ornithological numbers more than 1,000 specimens, nearly all Canadian; the botanical, numbers 6,000 plants, and the mineralogical, about the same number of specimens.

PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS.—(Ottawa.)

These buildings are located in the centre of the city of Ottawa, about a mile below the Chaudière Falls, on a prominent rocky point jutting out into the Ottawa River, at an elevation considerably higher than the city and lands in the vicinity. On the eastern side they are flanked by a deep ravine, in which are situated the combined locks of the Rideau Canal. The north side is bold and precipitous. It was formerly known as Barrack Hill, and is a part of the ordnance lands conceded to the Province.

The buildings are placed so as to form three sides of a quadrangle, measuring from north to south 600 feet, from east to west 700 feet, and containing an area of over nine and a half acres. The Parliament Building is on the north side of the square, upon which it has a frontage of 472 feet. It faces towards the south, and its extreme depth at the centre is 370 feet.

The Departmental Buildings form the east and west sides of the square; they are of a rectangular shape having both quadrangle and southern fronts, the line of the last being 100 feet north of Wellington street. The Parliament Building is on the highest part of the ground. All the buildings are constructed in what may be termed the pointed Gothic style of architecture, and from the bold, broken outline they present, their numerous towers, high pitched, variegated slate roofs, pierced by dormers and surmounted by ornamental wrought iron cresting and terminals, together with the quaintness of the carved figures, combine to produce an imposing and picturesque effect.

The outer facing of the walls is principally composed of a light coloured, compact sandstone, obtained from the township of Nepean. The dressings, stairs, gablets, pinnacles, &c., are chiefly of a greyish coloured freestone from the State of Ohio, and the relieving arches over the door and window openings are of a reddish sandstone, from Potsdam in the northern part of New York State. The slates are generally of a dark colour, with bands of a lighter hue placed at intervals.—They were obtained in the state of Vermont.

The foundations and interior portions of the walls are of limestone, quarried in the vicinity. The marble used in the buildings was principally obtained from Arnprior, and other places on the Ottawa River. The roof of the main or central tower has not yet been commenced; it is proposed to be of wood, covered with tin or galvanized iron, octagonal in plan, and tapering to the deck on top which is 526 inches above the pinnacles at the angles, and about 208 feet above the level of the terrace. The cost of work is approximately estimated at $185,000.00.

The Library is capable of holding 300,000 volumes. The grounds in front will be laid out in terraces, with lawns and fountains, and when completed, the beauty of the situation and elegance of the bnildings will enable the capital to compare with any in the world.

METEORIC PHENOMENA.

METEORIC PHENOMENA.

PHENOMENA OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

The sudden and singular changes of the weather on Lake Superior, during the summer, present one of the phenomena of nature, which seems almost unaccountable. The sun frequently rises clear and cloudless, giving indications of continued sunshine, when suddenly, the sky becomes overcast with white fleecy clouds, scudding low, and giving out a chilly atmosphere, not unfrequently attended with rain,—the clouds as suddenly disappear, and a pleasant afternoon usually follows, with light winds. This influence causes a fluctuation of several degrees in the thermometer, and seems to have an injurious effect upon vegetation.

On the 6th August, 1860, there occurred a remarkable phenomenon, as witnessed on Grand Island Bay. During the forenoon of a pleasant summer day, the water was observed suddenly to fall some three or four feet perpendicularly on the south shore, then rise in about half an hour, as suddenly to recede and rise several times; exposing the bed of the lake for a considerable distance where the water was shallow.

Mackenzie who wrote in 1789, relates a very similar phenomenon, which occurred at Grand Portage, on Lake Superior. He says: "The water withdrew, leaving ground dry, which had never before been visible, the fall being equal to four perpendicular feet, and rushing back with great velocity above the common mark. It continued thus, rising and falling for several hours, gradually decreasing, until it stopped at its usual height."

In the summer of 1854, as reported by Foster and Whitney, of the U. S. survey, an extraordinary retrocession of the waters took place at Sault Ste. Marie, where the river is nearly a mile in width, and the depth of water over the sandstone rapids, about three feet. The phenomenon occurred at noon; the day was

calm but cloudy; the water retired suddenly, leaving the bed of the river bare, except for the distance of about twenty rods, where the channel is deepest, and remained so for the space of an hour. Persons went out and caught fish in the pools formed by the rocky cavities. The return of the waters was sudden, and presented a sublime spectacle. They came down like an immense surge, roaring and foaming, and those who had incautiously wandered into the river bed, had barely time to escape being overwhelmed.

On the 28th of May, 1861, a similar oscillation took place. Throughout the day, the waters continued to ebb and flow at intervals of fifteen or twenty minutes, and the extreme variation between high and low water, was nearly three feet. These phenomena are accounted for by Prof. Mather, who took barometrical observations at Copper Harbour, during the prevalence of one of them, as follows: "Fluctuations in the barometer, accompanied the fluctuations in the water. The variation in the level of the water, may be caused by varied barometric pressure of the air on the water, either at the place of observation, or at some distant point. A local increased pressure of the atmosphere at the place of observation, would lower the water level where there is a wide expanse of water, or a diminished pressure, would cause the water to rise above its usual level."

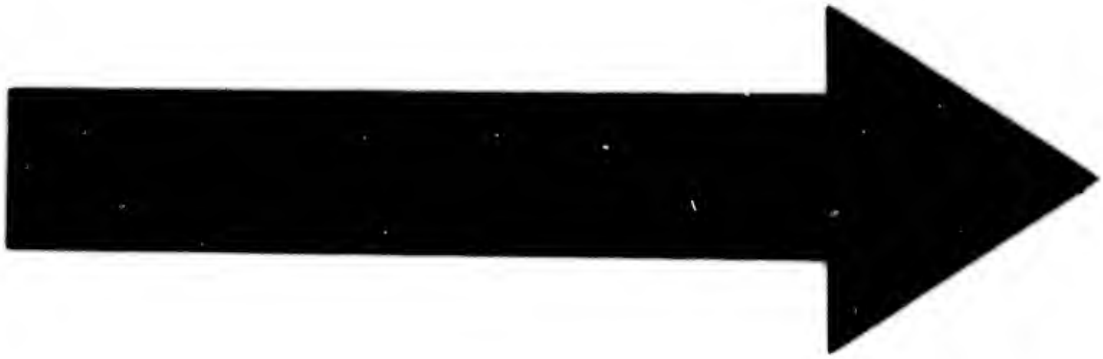
EARTHQUAKES OF 1663.

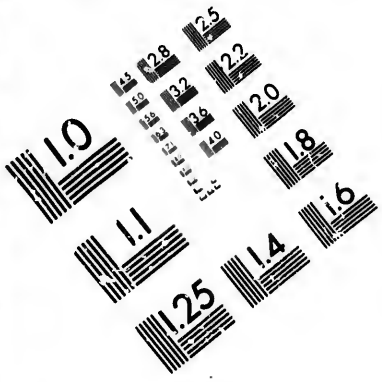
February 5th, 1663, a violent earthquake shock was felt in most regions of Canada, and in some parts of the New Netherlands, and New England. The first shock was followed by others of a weaker kind in Canada, at intervals, till August or September following. The damage done was small, being confined to the fall of a few chimneys, and the dislocation of some rocks in the St. Lawrence, below Cape Tourmente. The *Journal des Jésuites*, thus describes it: "The Shrove days of this year were signalized among others by surprising and fearful earthquakings, which began half an hour before the close of the *Salut* of Monday, 5th February, day of the festival of our Holy Martyrs of Japan, namely near 5½ o'clock P. M., and continued for the space of about two *Miserere*; and again in the night, and afterwards during the days and nights following, at intervals, at one time strongly, at others weakly felt; all which did harm to certain chimneys, and caused other light loss and petty damage; but was of great benefit to souls."

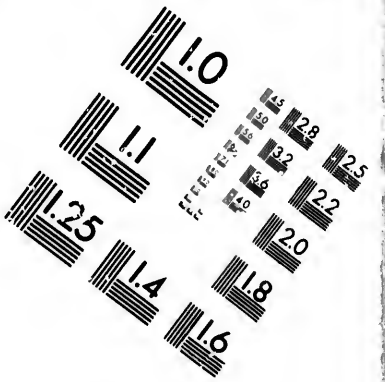
The Indians said that the ground heavings were caused by the souls of their ancestors, who had taken a fancy to return to earth. To prevent this, they fired their muskets in the air to scare them, as fearing, that should they succeed in the attempt, there would

not be enough game in the country for both generations, the present and the departed. One account given of this remarkable phenomenon, states as follows: the shocks returned two or three times a day, visiting both land and water, and spreading universal alarm. The event was preceded by a grent rushing noise, heard throughout the whole extent of the country, which caused the people to fly out of their houses as if they had been on fire, when they saw the walls reeling backwards and forwards, and the stones moving as if detached from each other; the bells sounded, the roofs of the buildings bent down, the timbers cracked, and the earth trembled violently. Animals were to be seen flying about in every direction, children were crying and screaming in the streets, and men and women horror-stricken and ignorant whither to fly for refuge, stood still, unable to move; some threw themselves on their knees in the snow, calling on the Saints for aid, while others passed this dreadful night in prayer. The movement of the ground resembled the waves of the Ocean, and the forest appeared as if there was a battle raging between the trees, so that the Indians declared in their figurative language, "that all the trees were drunk." The ice which was upwards of six feet thick, was rent and thrown up in large pieces, and from the openings came thick clouds of smoke, or fountains of dust and sand. The springs were impregnated with sulphur, some streams were totally lost, some became yellow, others red, and the St. Lawrence appeared entirely white, down as far as Tadousac.

The phenomena, become repetitive, absorbed public attention, and had the effect of producing an oblivion of the dissidencies between the high functionaries, civil and ecclesiastical. The exalted imaginations of visionaries were called into active play, and accounts of numerous apparitions of a terribly startling character, were rife. Prophecies of coming judgments, to be manifested in the land, were also abundant during those months of excitement. The lady superintendent of the Hôtel-Dieu of Quebec, and the celebrated "Mary of the Incarnation," chief of the Ursuline Convent in the same city, evinced strange manifestations, in their own persons, of the spiritual delirium that possessed some devotional minds. The clergy meanwhile viewed with respectful reserve these phenomena, not caring to commend or blame demonstrations born of feelings of genuine, if misapprehending, piety. At Tadousac the effect of the earthquake was not less violent than in other places, and such a heavy shower of volcanic ashes fell in that neighbourhood, particularly in the river St Lawrence, that the waters were as violently agitated as during a tempest. Lower down the river, towards Point Alouettes an entire forest of







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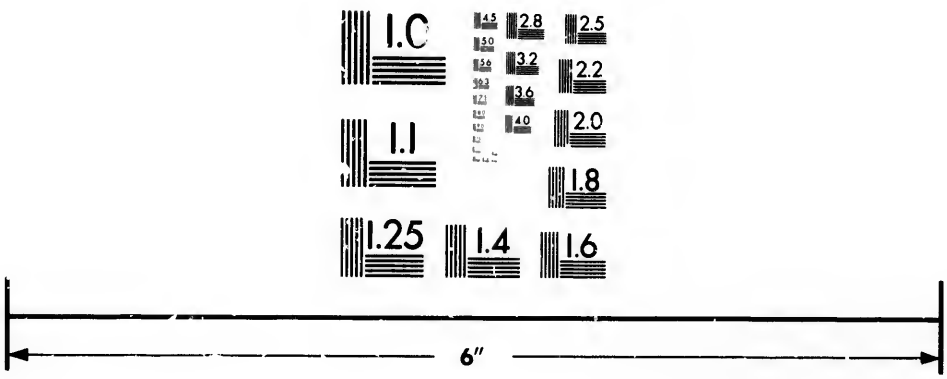

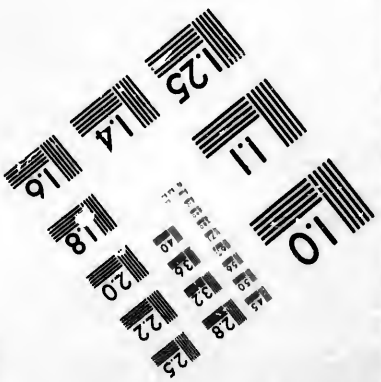

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considerable extent was loosened from the main bank, and slid into the St. Lawrence.

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

EARTHQUAKES IN THE SAGUENAY DISTRICT.

In 1828, Capt. F. H. Baddely, R. E., was engaged by the Canadian Government in exploring the Saguenay country, and in his Report, which was published at the time, he states that Maibaie or Murray Bay, on the St. Lawrence, 90 miles below Quebec, has long been remarkable for the frequency of its earthquakes.

Shocks are most frequent in January or February; they occur about nine or ten times a year. "It is not" says Capt. Baddely "perhaps generally known that there exists highly respectable evidence of a volcanic eruption having happened somewhere in the rear of St. Paul's Bay, not far from Murray Bay. No one, we think, will feel disposed to doubt the fact after perusing the following account of it." "Tuesday, December 6, 1791. At St. Paul's Bay and at other neighbouring places, at about a quarter after seven, a severe earthquake was felt; the whole night was disturbed by small ones, repeated at intervals, and by a sudden shaking running towards the east. The shocks were felt for 41 days. Before the night of the 26-7th I had not yet remarked any eruption, or thick smoke. Two mountains near my dwelling have a valley between them, so that you may see beyond them. It is by this valley that I saw a continual eruption, mixed with smoke and flame, which appeared very plain on the horizon, at other times struggling among themselves, as if too oppressed in their issue. I have remarked several times, that this eruption is always followed by shocks of earthquakes the same day. Finally, on this night of the 26-7th, a most beautiful spectacle was produced. The whole atmosphere was in flames and agitated, one's face suffered from the heat, the weather was calm, the eruption continued the whole night with flames. The certain approach of the earthquake is known, when by the passage between the mountains, you see a cloud, or smoke, quiet or agitated, and on the left and right the horizon is perfectly clear. A fall of ashes covering the snow in

* Martin's History of the British Colonies, Vol. III, p. 9.

1791, was also within the recollection of many of the inhabitants of St. Paul's Bay."

The following list of earthquakes which have occurred in Canada, is from the catalogue prepared by Mr. Mallet for the British association :—

Year.	Month.	Remarks.
1663....	February 5.....	Very violent.
1665....	" 24.....	Tadousac and Murray Bay, violent.
"	October 15.....	Violent.
1672....	March and April.	
1732....	September 5.....	
1744....	May 16.....	Quebec.
1755....	October.....	Unusual rise and fall of the water of Lake Ontario.
1791....	December.....	Severe shocks at St. Paul's Bay.
1796....	February	A violent shock.
1816....	September 9.....	Severe shock at Montreal.
"	" 16.. ..	A second shock, less violent.
1818....	October 11.....	Felt near Quebec.
1819....	August 15.....	At St. Andrews.
"	November 10....	At Montreal, slight, followed by an awful storm with rain impregnated with matter like soot.
1821....	February.....	At Quebec, a slight shock.
1823....	May 30.....	On shore of Lake Erie.
1828....	August 20.....	
1831....	July 14.....	At Murray Bay, Beauport, &c. walls and chimneys thrown down at former place.
1833....	March and April.	Severe shocks at Murray Bay.
1840....	September 10....	At Hamilton.
1841....	Spring.....	Said to have been felt at Quebec.
1842....	November 8 and 9.	Montreal, Three Rivers, &c.
1844....	" "	Montreal.
1847....	" "	"
1856....	May 1.....	At Ottawa and its vicinity.
1857....	October	In the Upper Province.
1858....	January 15.....	At Niagara.
"	May 10.....	At Richmond, slight.
1859....	"	At Metis (Lower St. Lawrence.)
1860....	October 17	Very violent at the River Ouelle, and other places in the Lower St. Lawrence. Chimneys were thrown down, and walls damaged.
1861....	July 12.....	Violent at Ottawa, throwing down chimneys.

REMARKABLE PHENOMENON.

DARK DAYS, MONTREAL.

A remarkable natural phenomenon, attended with no small degree of terror to many, occurred at Montreal in the year 1819. The account of it attracted so much attention even in Europe, as to be made the subject of an elaborate essay read before the ***Plinian Society*** of Edinburgh. On Sunday the 8th of November, dense black clouds were diffused over the atmosphere, and there fell from them a heavy shower of rain, which after it had been allowed some time to rest, was found to have deposited a substance, which to the eye, the taste, and the smell, presented the resemblance of common soot. The sky during the morning, occasionally displayed a slight greenish tint, and the sun, through the haze which surrounded it, appeared of an unusually bright pink colour. Before evening the weather cleared up, and the next day was frosty. On Tuesday the 9th, a weighty vapour descended from a thick stratum of clouds that seemed progressively to deepen in colour and density. This was an awful day; the superstitious were alarmed, and even the thoughtless were struck with a mixture of astonishment and terror, at an appearance for which no one could account. At sunrise the clouds varied in colour, sometimes assuming a greenish hue; at others, a dark and almost pitchy black. The sun at that time, appeared of a dingy orange colour, which at moments varied to blood red, and at others to a dark brown, with but a slight degree of luminosity remaining. Towards noon the darkness was so great, that it was found necessary to have candles burning in the Court House, the Banks, and most of the public offices in the city. The gloom alternately increased or diminished, according to the ascendancy of the wind, which, during the day, was very fitful and changeable. The inhabitants began now to express their surprise and indulge their speculations, as to the probable cause of so unusual an appearance. To some it appeared likely that a volcano had burst forth in the interior of the Province, and that its smoke, vapour, and ashes were now over the city. Even the mountain near it, stated to be the crater of an extinct volcano, was, by many of the credulous, supposed to have resumed its operations. By some an Indian prophecy was quoted, to the effect that the island of Montreal would at some period be destroyed by an earthquake, while the opposite shores and the surrounding country should remain unhurt. Others supposed that some immense woods and prairies had been set on fire, and that the ashes were borne on the same winds which fanned the devouring flames. The few animals that were to be seen, hurried to their respective places of shelter; dogs par-

ticularly appeared to be restless, and all the prognostics of a coming storm were distinctly perceptible. Towards three o'clock a formidable body of clouds from the north-east hurried over the town, and brought the obscurity to its climax. This was a moment of general awe,—the stoutest held their breath and became timid and fearful. One of the most vivid flashes of lightning that the oldest residents had ever beheld, was succeeded by a clap of thunder that was echoed and reverberated for some minutes. Rain again fell, of the same dark sooty appearance as on the preceding Sunday. A momentary brightness succeeded, but the clouds again collected, and at four o'clock it was nearly as dark as ever. A flash of lightning was seen to strike the summit of the steeple of the Parish Church; it seemed to have touched the ball at the foot of the cross, and continued playing and whirling a short time around it, when it descended to the earth by the rod. Suddenly the tocsin or fire alarm was sounded from every bell in the city. The sky was completely veiled in gloom, the Place d'Armes was crowded; while towering over the heads of the immense throng, was to be seen the steeple of the church, with its ball blazing like a meteor, and throwing out from the foot of the cross with which it was surmounted, a radiation of sparks rendered lurid by the incumbent and surrounding haze; in the evening it appeared like a light-house seen out at sea. By great exertions the fire was extinguished; about a quarter of an hour previously, the iron cross fell on the pavement in front of the church with a tremendous crash, and then broke into many pieces. A small piece that had fallen before, remained fast in the roof of the corner house of the square. The rain which had fallen during the day had deposited larger quantities of soot than on Sunday, and as it flowed through the streets, it carried on its surface a dense foam resembling soap suds. The evening again became darker, and thus ended a day which may be classed among the *dies atri* of Montreal. The range of this phenomenon must have been very extensive, for several of its appearances were noticed below Quebec, at Kingston, and various parts of the United States. A similar darkness is said to have occurred in Canada in the year 1781, and the time of it is still known as the dark Sunday. The cause of it is still unexplained.

DARK DAYS OF QUEBEC.

Similar dark days have occurred in Quebec, the first one of which we have any detailed account being the 16th October, 1785. The morning (Sunday) was perfectly calm and there was a thick fog, which however by ten o'clock was entirely dissipated; black clouds were then seen rapidly advancing from the north-east, and

by half-past ten it was so dark, that printing of the ordinary type could not be read; this lasted for upwards of ten minutes, and was succeeded by a violent gust of wind, thunder and lightning, after which the weather became brighter until 12 o'clock, when a second period of such obscurity took place, that lights became necessary, and were used in all the churches. This period was rather longer in its duration than the first; a third period of obscurity came on at 2 o'clock, a fourth about 3, and a fifth at half past four, during which the darkness was very intense, and is described by those who witnessed it, to have been that of perfect midnight. During the whole of these periods, and of the interval between them, vast masses of clouds, of a yellow appearance, were driven with great rapidity from the north-east toward the south-west, by the wind. The periods of the total darkness were about 10 minutes each, and although the intervals were not so dark, they afforded but little light. The water which fell from the clouds was extremely black, and the next day upon the surface of what was found in different vessels, a yellow powder was floating, which upon examination proved to be sulphur; a deposit of a black substance in powder was also found at the bottom of all these vessels, which, by ignition, was found to be strongly impregnated with sulphur.

The next recurrence of this phenomenon was July 3rd, 1814. Four distinct records of this day were taken by four different men of war lying in the vicinity of Quebec. The narrative of the officers who were on board the *Sir Wm. Heathcott*, transport, is perhaps the most concise. "There was a heavy fall of *ashes and sand*, which was succeeded by a dense haze, gradually increasing until eleven o'clock in the day, when it cleared up, and the sun was of a blood red colour. At one o'clock it again became so dark, that the soldiers on board could not see to divide out their dinners without lighted candles. This darkness continued until night, and during the whole time ashes fell in abundance, and completely covered the deck. The transport was the whole day off Cape Chat, and the wind blew gently from the north shore of the St. Lawrence. The people residing down the river declared there had not been any appearance of fire in the woods."

Now, for the phenomena of the dark days of Canada, which have been thus detailed, there appear to be but two causes to which they can be attributed—the conflagration of a forest, or volcanic action. As to the conflagration of a forest, it seems impossible that such a circumstance could have produced a mass of smoke so dense and so extensive, as to overspread (as it did in October, 1785) the surface of a territory exceeding 300 miles in length and 200 in breadth, and producing at midday the obscurity of the darkest night. And as the whole course of this obscurity

proceeded apparently from the Labrador country, where forest trees are few in number, stunted in size, and spread in isolated patches only, it is the more improbable.

The Hon. Chief Justice Sewell, in an able article read before the Quebec Literary Society, attributes this phenomenon to volcanic action—and indicating strongly the existence of a volcano (not yet extinct) in the Labrador territory. Among the Indian tribes on the north shore of the St. Lawrence, there is a traditional belief of the existence of a volcano in the Labrador country, and the existence of volcanoes in the north of Europe, particularly Hecla and Jan Mayen, affords ground for the belief that they may also be found to exist in the north of the American continent.

REMARKABLE AURORAS.

At Kingston, in Upper Canada, for many days previous to Tuesday, 28th August, 1827, the heavens had exhibited the Aurora very brilliantly, and more frequently than had been hitherto observed. On that night the scene was remarkably grand.

At about dark, or eight o'clock, an arch formed in the sky, which as the obscurity of night increased, became very luminous. Gradually, and slowly, it rose or became more convex, and at nine it attained on its north-western limb, the altitude of the highest part of the body of Ursa Major, while it had increased in thickness very much, and being complete, formed a broad and highly magnificent arch of pale white light, which spanned a third part of the horizon. It was now like a heavenly bow of luminous white vapour, through which the larger stars of the constellations were very visible; nor did its grandeur or its light diminish, when the moon slowly emerging, shewed a deep yellow disk through its splendid veil. At half past eight the true Aurora became suddenly apparent; first in the zenith a cloud of bright white light, with a singular curved pear-shaped form, arose, and elongating its lesser extremity, slowly bent to the horizon, and as slowly vanished. Then, on the *south-east*, arose from the lower boundary of the sky, a rod of the same white light which enlarging its dimensions very slowly, pointed to, and at length reached the milky way at the northern cross, and after shooting through the galaxy with a stately and somewhat stealing pace, slowly vanished.

METEORIC LIGHT.

Capt. Bonnycastle, R. E., relates a remarkable phenomenon of which he was eye-witness. He says: "On the 7th September, 1826, whilst coming up from the gulf, at two a. m., the mate, whose watch it was on deck, suddenly aroused the Captain in great

alarm, from an unusual appearance on the lee bow. The night was starlight, but suddenly the sky became overcast, and a rapid, instantaneous, and immensely brilliant light, resembling the Aurora Borealis, shot out of the hitherto gloomy and dark sea on the lee bow, and was so vivid that it lighted everything distinctly even to the masthead. The Captain then called me up, but the light which had been only from one quarter, now as suddenly spread over the whole sea between the two shores, and the waves before tranquil, now became much agitated. The whole sea as far as it could be distinguished, was one blazing sheet of awful and most brilliant light, such as I never before saw. A long and vivid line of light, superior in brightness to the parts of the sea, not immediately near the vessel, showed us the base of the high, frowning, and dark land abreast of us; the sky became lowering and intensely obscure, and perhaps such a scene will seldom fall to the lot of many to observe. The oldest sailors on board had never seen anything of the kind to compare with it, except the captain, who had, he said, observed something of the kind in the Trades. To sail on a sea of fire, is the only similitude I can fancy. The wind increased a little and had a peculiar hollow sound. Day broke very slowly, and the sun rose of a fiery and threatening aspect. Rain followed."

SKETCH OF CONFEDERATION.

SKETCH OF CONFEDERATION.

(Compiled.)

A federal union of the British North American Provinces was first vaguely foreshadowed in 1784, at the time of the separation of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It was looked upon then by practical men as a far off possibility, and had been suggested, doubtess, as a counterpoise to the then newly established federation of the United States. Such a scheme has since, from time to time, been advocated by some of our ablest colonial state men. A proposal is recorded, as having been made by the Hon. R. J. Uniacke, of Nova Scotia, who about the year 1800, brought colonial union under the notice of the Imperial authorities. In 1814 the late Chief Justice Sewell, of Quebec, who enjoyed the friendship of the Duke of Kent, father of Her Majesty the Queen, addressed to His Royal Highness a letter on the subject of a union, strongly recommending it,—a document to which allusion is made by Lord Durham in his report on the affairs of the British North American Provinces. In 1822, Sir John Beverly Robinson, at the request of the Colonial Office, submitted a scheme of a similar nature. In 1838, the Right Reverend Dr. Strachan, Lord Bishop of Toronto, in a letter to Mr. Charles Buller, Secretary to Lord Durham, expressed his desire "to contribute every thing in his power to consolidate into one territory or kingdom, the Colonies of B. N. America, thus not only ensuring their happiness, but preventing forever the consequences that might arise from a rival power getting possession of their shores."

In Lord Durham's celebrated Report on Canada, His Lordship laid great stress upon the absolute necessity of a union as "a scheme that would elevate them into something like a national existence." Colonial jealousies and dissensions prevented the accomplishment of Lord Durham's recommendations at that time, but there is no doubt that his report was the means of preparing the public mind for the adoption of a measure similar in many respects, to that proposed by His Lordship.

In 1849, resolutions in favour of colonial union were passed by the British American League, at Kingston. In 1851, Col. Arthur

Rankin, in his address to the electors of Kent, strongly advocated the project. Afterwards in 1856, that gentleman, when member for Essex, placed a motion on the notice papers of the House " to consider the subject of a Union of the B. N. American Colonies, with a view to an address to Her Majesty to recommend the same to the consideration of the Imperial Parliament." The motion was coldly received, the leaders on both sides of the House regarding it as visionary. In 1854 the question was discussed in the Nova Scotia Parliament, the Hon. Messrs. Johnston and Howe, the leaders of the rival parties vieing with each other, their advocacy of a measure which in their opinion would be the means of constituting a great nation, by combining the elements of strength and wealth which all the isolated Provinces possess. In 1858 the Hon. A. T. Galt revived the subject in the Canadian Parliament, and when in the summer of that year, he became a member of the ministry, he insisted on its being made a cabinet question. At the close of that session the Governor General Sir Edmund Head in his speech stated that he proposed " during the recess communicating with Her Majesty's Government inviting it to discuss with us the principles on which a bond of a federal character uniting the Provinces, may be practicable." This was followed by a despatch, signed by Hon. Messrs. Cartier, Galt and Ross, addressed to the Imperial authorities, which pointed to a federal Union of the Provinces, as a solution of the grave difficulties which presented themselves in carrying on the Queen's Government in Canada. The defeat and subsequent resignation of the Derby-D'Israeli Ministry in England, prevented any decisive action at that time on the part of the Imperial authorities.

A resolution favorable to union was passed unanimously by the Nova Scotia Parliament in April 1861, and having been transmitted to the Colonial Office, was forwarded by the Duke of Newcastle, Colonial Secretary, to the Governor General, and the Lieut. Governors of the several Provinces. His Grace, after stating that Her Majesty's Government was not prepared to announce any definite policy on a question which had been taken up by only one Province, expressed his own opinion in the following words : " that if the concurrence of all the Provinces to be united should propose a union, either partial or complete," the matter would be well weighed by the Imperial Parliament.

The Lieut. Governors of the several Provinces, then brought the subject before their respective Legislatures, at the commencement of their several sessions of 1864, for the purpose of appointing delegates to confer as to the practicability of establishing a Legislative Union between the Maritime Provinces. The discussion, which was conducted in a calm and dignified manner, and without reference to local party issues, elicited, especially in

Prince Edward's Island, some considerable feeling of dissatisfaction at the proposal for a *legislative* union ; still the Legislature of the Island on the 18th April, passed a resolution, identical with those passed by the Legislatures of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, viz : " That His Excellency the Lieutenat Governor be authorized to appoint delegates (not to exceed five) to confer with delegates who may be appointed by the Governments of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, for the purpose of discussing the expediency of a Union of the Three Provinces under one Government and Legislature."

Delegates were accordingly appointed by the respective governments of those Provinces, and it was arranged that on the 1st of September they should meet at Charlottetown. While events were thus progressing in the Maritime Provinces, Canadian statesmen were engaged in considering the feasibility of effecting such changes in their constitution, as would reconcile the conflicting interests of the eastern and western sections of the Province. Party government had become well nigh impossible, and ministry after ministry had to retire from the seemingly hopeless attempt at carrying on the Government, when, on the defeat of the Taché-Macdonald ministry in June, 1864, overtures were made by the leaders of the Reform party to the Hon John A. Macdonald, with a view to the settlement of the sectional difficulties by the adoption of a federative system, applying either to Canada or to all the British North American Provinces. These overtures were cordially received, and the result was the formation of a coalition government, pledged to the introduction of the federal system. By a fortunate coincidence, within a month of the formation of the coalition ministry in Canada, the Charlottetown conference was arranged, and the Canadian Government hastened to ask permission to send Delegates. Their request was promptly complied with, and in accordance with previous arrangements, the Delegates met at Charlottetown on the 1st September, in which however Newfoundland was not represented. The Canadian Delegates, not having been authorized to consider the question of a *Legislative* Union, were informally present. The proposal to unite the Maritime Provinces in a Legislative Union was looked upon as informally impracticable ; but the delegates were unanimously of opinion, that a union on a larger basis might be effected, and for the purpose of considering the possibility of a federal union and its necessary details, the Canadian Ministers proposed that a further conference should be held at Quebec, subject to the consent of the Governments of the Maritime Provinces, and at such time as His Excellency the Governor General might name. This arrangement being agreed to, the Charlottetown Conference suspended its deliberations.

The Delegates to the Intercolonial Conference at Quebec met in the Parliament Buildings of that city, on Monday, 10th of October ; the whole of the members, thirty-three in number being present. There were seven Delegates from New Brunswick ; five from Nova Scotia ; seven from Prince Edward Island ; two from Newfoundland, and twelve comprising the whole Canadian Ministry, representing Canada. The votes were taken, not by persons present, but by Provinces. After sitting some eighteen days in Quebec, the result of their deliberations was the famous " Seventy-two Resolutions " which in accordance with the final resolution, where authenticated by the signatures of the Delegates, and were ordered to be submitted by each delegation to its own government ; the chairman submitting a copy to the Governor General for transmission to the Secretary of State for the Colonies. After a tour through Canada, during which the Delegates from the Maritime Provinces were fêted in princely style, they separated ; each delegation being pledged to use every legitimate means to ensure the adoption of the scheme by their several legislatures, and by the Imperial Government.

On the 3rd February, 1865, Sir E. P. Taché, in the Legislative Council, and Hon. John A. Macdonald, in the House of Assembly, in Canada, simultaneously moved " That an humble address be presented to Her Majesty, praying that she may be graciously pleased to cause a measure to be submitted to the Imperial Parliament for the purpose of uniting the Colonies of Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island in one Government, with provisions based on certain resolutions which were adopted at a conference of Delegates from the said Colonies, held at the City of Quebec, on the 10th of October, 1864." After a debate of over a fortnight's duration, the Resolutions were adopted in the Council by a vote of 45 to 15 ; and in the Assembly after a most exhaustive and exhausting five weeks debate, they were agreed to by a vote of 91 to 33. After the close of the session, the Hon. Messrs. Brown, Cartier J. A. Macdonald and Galt proceeded to England, in order to confer with the Imperial authorities upon the subject of Confederation, and other matters connected therewith, of Colonial and national importance. The Imperial Government again renewed their assurances of their approval of the Confederation scheme, and their desire to promote its adoption by every legitimate means.

In New Brunswick, the Quebec scheme was brought before the people at the general election in March, 1865, and a House of Assembly hostile to that scheme, was chosen. An anti-confederation Ministry came into power and things looked ill for a speedy success of the Union cause. However after-events proved that the real sentiments of the people of New Brunswick upon the

subject had not been obtained, and that the elections had been carried in a great measure by side issues. A resolution was moved in the Legislative Council praying Her Majesty to cause a measure for the Union of the Colonies to be submitted to the Imperial Parliament. His Excellency's reply was highly favourable to the scheme, and in consequence the ministry resigned office in April : their resignation was accepted and a new ministry formed, which was composed chiefly of gentlemen who had taken an active part in forwarding the cause of confederation. A general election immediately followed, which resulted in the signal route of the Anti-confederates, and the triumph of the friends of the Union.

To Nova Scotia belongs the honour of having taken the initiatory steps which led to the adoption of the confederation scheme. In the session of 1851, when the Ministry of which the Hon. Jos. Howe was a member, held the reins of Government, a resolution had been passed, similar to the one above alluded to in New Brunswick which was *de facto* the means of bringing about the convention at Charlottetown. After the Quebec conference, the Government of Nova Scotia took no immediate steps for the furtherance of the confederation scheme. Deterred by the unfavorable result of the elections in New Brunswick, they did not in 1865 bring the question before the Legislature at all. Early in 1866 however Dr. Tupper submitted a resolution to the House that " the Lt. Governor be authorized to appoint Delegates to arrange with the Imperial Government a scheme of union." This was carried by 31 to 19.

In Newfoundland, the subject was brought before the Legislature by the Lieut. Governor, in his speech at the opening of the House in 1866, who expressed a desire that for the information of Her Majesty's Government they should consider the question and decide upon the terms, under which Newfoundland might with advantage join in the proposed union. But after several days' debate, the House resolved that " whilst duly regardful of the momentous character of the subject and of the promise to His Excellency to give it attention, yet as no information has been received demanding its immediate reconsideration, this House does not deem it expedient to enter upon its discussion with a view to any decision thereon." Had the course which was shortly after taken by New Brunswick and Nova Scotia in appointing Delegates to confer with the Imperial Government been adopted somewhat sooner, or had the meeting of the Legislature of Newfoundland taken place a few months later, so as to give the members an opportunity of knowing what was being done on the subject in the sister colonies, it is more than probable that a similar course would have been adopted in Newfoundland.

In Prince Edward Island the Legislature repudiated the action of its delegates at the Quebec Conference. The Hon.

Col. Gray, the late Premier of the Island, and one of the delegates, resigned his position in the cabinet on account of the opposition to Confederation, of which he was a warm advocate.

During the summer of 1866, the Colonies, which had pronounced in favour of the scheme, made arrangements for the meeting of a Conference of Delegates from the several Provinces, to settle the details, and determine the precise terms of the Act giving effect to the Union of the Provinces of CANADA, NEW BRUNSWICK, and NOVA SCOTIA, which should be submitted for adoption by the Imperial Parliament. The several Governments duly appointed delegates, who met, according to the appointment in London early in December, 1866, and immediately proceeded to business, during which session great statesmanlike qualities were displayed in the settlement of sectional difficulties, the unravelling of knotty points, and in the exercise of mutual forbearance, zeal, and assiduity. Several members of the conference have since received the Blue ribbon of the Bath, and its Chairman is now created Sir John A. Macdonald, K. C. B.

The Imperial Parliament met on the 5th of February, 1867. On the 7th the Bill for the Confederation of the Provinces was introduced into the House of Lords, and was received with approbation by all parties. On the 19th it was read a second time, was passed through a Committee of the Whole on the 22nd, and on the 26th was read a third time. It was at once brought down to the House of Commons, and on the 28th was moved to a second reading. The motion, opposed only by John Bright, was agreed to without a division. It passed a Committee of the Whole on the 4th March, and was read a third time and passed the House of Commons on the 8th. On the 28th of that month it received the Royal assent, and became one of the laws of the Empire. The name chosen for the Provinces was the "DOMINION OF CANADA," Upper Canada to be henceforth called "ONTARIO," and Lower Canada, "QUEBEC." The work of legislation being finally completed, Her Majesty was graciously pleased to issue Her Proclamation on the 22nd of May, declaring that the DOMINION OF CANADA should commence its existence on the 1st July, 1867, and appointing the members of the Senate.

In thus briefly tracing the history of Confederation from the time that as a tiny seed, it was fostened in the minds of men of far-seeing and statesmanlike views, until now when it has grown into a wide spreading tree, beneath whose shelter rest the hopes of what promises to be a mighty nation, it is shown that it is not the hastily conceived and ill-digested scheme which its enemies would fain represent it, but that it is one of gradual growth, towards which for years our destiny has been drawing us, as peculiarly adapted to the necessities, and the genius of our people.

GEOLOGICAL SKETCH OF CANADA.

GEOLOGICAL SKETCH OF CANADA.

The Provinces of Quebec and Ontario are traversed thoughout their whole length by a mountainous region, dividing them into two basins, the Northern and Southern. These mountains, called the Laurentides, form the north shore of the St. Lawrence up to Quebec, where leaving the river they gradually run westward till they follow the line of the Ottawa, which they cross at the *Lac des Chats*. Thence taking a southerly direction, they reach the St. Lawrence near the outlet of Lake Ontario, and running thence to the north-west, reach the south-eastern extremity of Lake Huron, of which lake they form the eastern shore, and quitting it at the 47th degree of latitude, gain Lake Superior, and extend in a north-west direction to the Arctic Sea. The rocks of this range are styled the Laurentian, and are almost without exception, sedimentary and crystalline. They are the most ancient known on the American continent, and correspond to the oldest gneiss of Finland and Scandinavia. Crystalline limestones occupy an important place in their formation, occurring in beds of from a few feet to 300 feet in thickness. They are rarely compact, more frequently coarse, and of various colours, white, reddish, bluish and grayish. Among the economic minerals of this formation, the ores of iron are the most important, and are generally found associated with the limestones. The magnetic iron ore which supplies the forges of Marmora, is brought from Belmont, where the strata are arranged in the form of a basin, the iron ore predominating for a thickness of more than 100 feet. A few miles distant in Madoc, there exists a bed of magnetic iron ore 30 feet thick. At Hull, on the Ottawa, a bed of ore, 100 feet thick, is exposed by an undulation of the strata, forming a sort of dome, so that the ore is wrought there with great facility. The limestones of this range are often traversed by veins of calcareous spar and sulphate of baryta, containing lead or galena in disseminated masses, or in

veins from two to three inches thick. It is sometimes accompanied with iron pyrites, and is slightly argentiferous, yielding about two ounces of silver to the ton of ore.

Veins containing copper pyrites have been observed in several localities, but the quantity of metal is very inconsiderable; cobalt and nickel also exist in small quantities.

Graphite or plumbago (black lead) is very frequently disseminated in small plates, and also forms veins, some of great richness, which are easily wrought, but being very crystalline and lamellar, cannot be sawn like that of Cumberland, so that it is not suited to the manufacture of pencils. It is, however, largely used in the manufacture of crucibles, &c.

The sulphate of baryta, which is now very much employed in the fabrication of paints, is common in the Laurentian formation. The gangue of the lead veins, that is the substance which over and underlies the metal, often consists of this mineral.

The crystalline limestone near Grenville, furnishes a great quantity of mica in large crystals, capable of being divided into very thin plates, having a length and breadth of from twelve to twenty inches, and perfectly transparent. This locality is already wrought, and the mica is largely employed in the construction of stoves and lanterns.

The Laurentian limestones furnish a white marble, which is often marked with bluish or grayish undulations, as for example, that of Arnprior; or it is mixed with grains of green serpentine, as the marble which is wrought at Grenville. These limestones are fine-grained, but that of Lake Mazinaw may be compared to the marble of Carrara.

Among the minerals in this formation having an economic value, we must not forget the phosphate of lime so precious for agriculture, which is often met with in these crystalline limestones.

As stones capable of being employed for the purposes of ornament, we may cite from this formation a kind of felspar, remarkable for its beautiful reflections of blue, yellow and green, resembling the labradorite. In the township of Burgess, a red variety resembling the ruby, is found in small quantities, and the garnets of Grenville, transparent and of a fine colour, constitute veritable gems.

THE HURONIAN OR CAMBRIAN SYSTEM.

The shores of Lakes Huron and Superior offer a series of sandstones, limestones and conglomerates, interstratified with heavy beds of greenstone, resting upon the Laurentian formation. As these rocks underlie those of the Silurian system, and have not as

yet afforded any fossils, they may probably be referred to the Cambrian system. They are covered by a considerable thickness of trap, upon which repose massive beds of red and white sandstone, which sometimes becomes conglomerate, and contains pebbles of quartz and jasper. Beds of a reddish limestone are often interstratified with these sandstones, which are intersected and overlaid by a second eruption of greenstone of great thickness, and columnar in its structure. This formation, which according to the observations of Sir Wm. Logan, has on Lake Superior a total thickness of about 12,000 feet, is traversed by a vast number of trappean dykes. The formation of the metalliferous veins in this system is recent. The principal minerals are native copper and sulphate of baryta ; these veins are only metalliferous where they traverse the beds of greenstone.

The most important localities of native copper are the islands near Nepigon Bay, Lake Superior. Upon the island of St. Ignace, a vein has been traced from one end of the island to the other. This vein affords, wherever it has been explored, native copper, often finely crystallized and associated with gray copper ore. Native copper has also been wrought on Michipicoten islands, at Maimanse and at Mica Bay, on the eastern shore of the lake, where it is associated with gray copper and copper pyrites. Native silver, often well crystallized, accompanies the copper in all the localities indicated.

The veins as yet examined on Lake Huron do not contain native copper, pyrites being the principal form in which it is found. This Huronian formation is known for a distance of about 150 leagues upon Lakes Superior and Huron, and everywhere offers metalliferous veins. This region will eventually become a source of great wealth to the Dominion. The coal formation of the neighboring State of Michigan will then furnish the combustible required for smelting the ore.

THE PALÆOZOIC FORMATIONS.

On the north of Lake Huron a series of fossiliferous strata is found to repose horizontally upon the inclined strata of the Huronian formation, but further south, they rest directly upon those of the Laurentian system, throughout the whole of their outcrop in the valley of the St. Lawrence. These fossiliferous strata correspond to the oldest rocks of the kind in Europe, designated by Murchison as the Silurian system. To this succeeds the upper Silurian and the Devonian. These groups occupy the whole of the Canadian portion of that great basin bounded to the north by the Laurentian and Huronian systems.

Sir Wm. Logan has shown that the basin thus indicated may be divided into two parts by an anticlinal axis, which following the valley of the Hudson and Lake Champlain, enters Canada near Missisquoi Bay; and thence, running north-west, reaches the St. Lawrence near Quebec. The western portion would then form a subordinate basin containing the Michigan and Illinois coal-fields, while the eastern portion would embrace the coalfields of New Brunswick and Massachusetts. The rocks of these two basins present remarkable differences in their physical and chemical conditions. We will first describe the WESTERN BASIN.

Reposing on the Laurentian and Cambrian rocks is found a sandstone, the fossils of which are few in number, to which the Geologists of New York have given the name of the Potsdam Sandstone. Upon this again reposes a formation known as the calciferous sandstone, divided into the Chazy, Birds-eye, Black River, and Trenton. At Montreal this group has a thickness of about 1,200 feet, and presents at its base massive grayish beds; towards the upper part, the limestone becomes black and bituminous. Towards the west these limestones are less abundant and the divisions not so well marked; upon the Manitoulin islands, their total thickness does not exceed 300 feet. They are often very rich in fossils, which are sometimes silicified.

In the western part of Canada, we find a red argillaceous sandstone, known as the Medina sandstone, and regarded as the base of the upper Silurian system. At the western extremity of Lake Ontario, this sandstone has a thickness of 600 feet, but becomes thinner towards the west, and appears to be wanting in the Eastern basin. It is followed by a series of limestone and fossiliferous shales of no great thickness, known as the Clinton group; and overlaid by massive beds of bituminous limestone, known as the Niagara limestone. This formation presents an elevated plateau at the Falls of Niagara, which following at a little distance the south-west shore of Lake Ontario, is prolonged to Cabot's Head upon Lake Huron, and thence to the Manitoulin islands. To this formation succeeds a formation of shales and limestones, known by the names of the Gypsiferous and Onondaga Salt group. These limestones form the summit of the upper Silurian system, which attains between the Lakes Erie and Ontario, a total thickness of about 1,100 feet. To these rocks succeed black bituminous shales known as the Hamilton group. This is the highest formation met with in Western Canada.

The fossiliferous limestones of Montreal and St. Dominique take a fine polish and are employed as marbles; they exhibit white fossil forms, upon a gray or bluish gray ground. At Missisquoi Bay, and at Cornwall is found a fine black marble, which belongs to the Trenton limestone. St. Lin furnishes large slabs of beau-

tiful reddish gray marble, filled with organic remains, especially with corals, which have a bright red colour. The Chazy limestone contains an argillaceous bed which is largely wrought on the Ottawa, and furnishes the hydraulic cement of Hull, which is much esteemed. At Quebec a black limestone belonging to the Hudson River group, yields also a very valuable cement. The Thorold cement so widely used is derived from the base of the Niagara limestone, while the gypsiferous formation at Cayuga, at Paris on the Grand River, and at Point Douglas on Lake Huron furnishes a cement which hardens very rapidly under water.

The Chazy limestone in the vicinity of Marmora contains beds of superior lithographic stone in large quantities. The same stone may be traced at intervals as far as Lake Couchiching, a distance of about 75 l'ague'.

The gypsum quarries of the upper Silurian rocks are very important, and are found all along the outcrop of the gypsiferous formation. The principal quarries wrought are in Dumfries, Brantford, Oneida and Cayuga. The gypsum is chiefly employed in the country as a manure, or calcined as plaster of Paris. But apart from the domestic consumption, the townships of Oneida and Cayuga furnished last year 7,000 tons for exportation to the United States. The origin of gypsum is supposed to be due to certain springs containing free sulphuric acid, which, acting upon the carbonate of lime through which they came, have changed it into gypsum.

The Hamilton shales are highly bituminous and furnish in many parts of Western Canada, springs of petroleum, as those upon the Thames, and at Enniskillen, where there are several superficial layers of asphalt, which appears to have been produced by the transformation of petroleum. The largest deposit of asphalt covers three acres, and there is another of half an acre, with a thickness in some parts, of two feet. This matter furnishes by distillation, among other products, a great quantity of naptha.

We now come to The Eastern Basin, the most recent formation in which, is the lower portion of the Hudson River group, distinguished by the name of the Richelieu shales. Reposing on these shales we find a series of sedimentary rocks which constitute the upper part of the Hudson River group, but which are entirely wanting in the Western basin, composed of massive grayish sandstone and schist of almost all colours. This series of rocks forms the heights of Point Levi and Quebec, where it has a thickness of 1,000 feet. To this succeed another series which Sir Wm. Logan named the Sillery group. This like the Quebec group is wanting in Western Canada.

Upon the Quebec and Sillery groups, which form the northern shore of the peninsula of Gaspé, repose about 200 feet of fossilife-

rous limestones and shales which represent the upper Silurian system, and to these succeed 7,000 feet of Devonian sandstones. Upon the southern shore of Gaspé the upturned edges of these Devonian strata are overlaid by 3,000 feet of horizontal beds of a sandstone, the mill-stone grit, which forms the base of the New Brunswick coal-field, but they are themselves destituteof coal.

THE METAMORPHIC ROCKS.

The rocks of the Eastern basin have been disturbed by successive foldings and dislocations, and form a series of parallel mountain ranges which belong to the Apallachian system, and traverse the province of Canada in a south-west direction. Some of these mountains attain a height of over 4,000 feet. The rocks of this mountainous region have been very much metamorphosed and rendered crystalline by chemical action, so that the fossils are for the greater part obliterated. The changes which the sedimentary strata have undergone are often very remarkable. The investigations of the Geological Society go to shew that during the changes which these sedimentary rocks have undergone, there has been no introduction of foreign materials, but that on the contrary all the minerals which are found in these crystalline strata, have been produced by the reactions and chemical combinations of the matters already existing in a state of mixture in the sediments. The crystalline strata of these rocks contain many metallic veins which traverse both the upper and lower silurian rocks, and these veins, together with the mineral contents of the metamorphic strata themselves, make this system very interesting in an economic point of view. A series of highly ferruginous slates of the Hudson River group, yield in the townships of Bolton and Brome, beds of iron ore, having a thickness of from six, to fifteen feet, and yield from 20 to 50 per cent of metallic iron. A remarkable locality of magnetic and titaniferous iron occurs in Vaudreuil and Beauce, where the two species intimately mixed, form a bed 50 feet thick in serpentine.

The copper ores of this metamorphic region are found in veins which are generally concordant with the stratification, and are associated with the dolomites of the Quebec formation.

The seigniories of Vaudreuil and St. George, in the valley of the Chaudière, present veins of quartz which traverse slates belonging to the base of the upper silurian limestone, and contain native gold in small quantities, with galena, arsenical sulphuret of iron, cubic and iron pyrites. The debris of these slates and of those of the Quebec formation, have furnished the auriferous sands which cover a large area on the south-east slopes of the metamorphic belt. The gold, which sometimes occurs in masses weighing

several ounces, but more often in the form of small scales and grains, contains from eleven to thirteen per cent of silver. It is not easy to say what proportion of gold is contained in these sands, but experiments on a large scale have shown that the exploration cannot be pursued with profit, with the present price of labour. Cobalt and nickel have been found, in traces only, in these rocks.

Among the economic materials of this region, the roofing slates must not be forgotten. It is now only ten years since the geological commission first signalized their existence, and already large quantities of slates have been placed on the market, and quarries wrought. The quarries of Melbourne, Richmond and Kingsey, belong to the Hudson River group, but those of Westbury and Rivière de Loup, are near the base of the upper Silurian. These slates have a cleavage independently of the stratification, and have shining surfaces. Silicious slates which serve as whetstones, are common in many localities in both of these formations.

Steatite or soapstone which generally accompanies the serpentines of Lower Canada, is abundant in Bolton, Potton, Vaudreuil, Beauce and many other localities. The serpentines throughout their whole extent furnish very beautiful dark green marble, often resembling the *vert-antique*: green serpentines of various shades are mingled with white and grayish limestones, giving rise to many varieties of these marbles, the finest of which are from Broughton and Oxford. Near Philipsburgh the Trenton limestones afford a fine white marble; in their southern prolongation these limestones become more crystalline, and form the white marbles of Vermont, already celebrated. The upper Silurian limestones of Dudswell are grayish and yellowish, with veins and spots of black; they still exhibit on their polished surfaces, the traces of fossils, and often form marbles of great beauty.

The granites which traverse the Devonian system are very fine grained, of a grayish colour, and splitting with facility yield a superior building material; that of Stanstead is the best known. Vaudreuil furnishes a bluish grey variety which is used by the country people for the fabrication of mill-stones.

To the east of the great anticlinal axis which divides in two parts the palæozoic formations of Canada, are the mountains of Brome, Shefford, and Yamaska; these are great masses of an intrusive rock, often having the aspect of granite, and containing generally a white felspar, and a little mica. The mountains of Monnoir, Belœil, Montarville, Montreal and Rigaud, to the west of the same axis, are also formed of intrusive rocks. Belœil which is the most elevated, has a height of about 1,300 feet.

THE QUATERNARY, OR ALLUVIAL DEPOSITS.

We have already indicated the existence in Canada of the palæozoic rocks and the base of the carboniferous system, but with the exception of the post-tertiary deposits, the more recent formations are entirely wanting. The surface of Canada is formed of clays interstratified with sands and clays, and in many parts overlaid by diluvium. These stratified deposits contain the remains of a great many species of marine animals, identical with those now inhabiting the Gulf of the St. Lawrence. The concretions found in a bed of clay near Ottawa, contain in great abundance the remains of the capeling and other fish, and great numbers of exogenous leaves. The skeletons of the Cœtacea and of a species of Phoca have been found in the clays of Montreal, where beds filled with shells exist at a height of 500 feet above the present sea level. Similar stratified clays, but without fossils, have been remarked at an elevation of 1,200 feet. The detached bones of the Elephas primo-genius and of a species of deer have been found in a stratified gravel on the shores of Lake Ontario. In the valley of the St. Lawrence several terraces may be distinguished, marking the different limits of the sea during the deposition of these post-tertiary strata.

The clays of this series form the superficial soil of a great portion of the country; they are often calcareous and constitute a soil remarkably fertile. The alluvium which is spread over but limited areas, has been transported from the north; in the eastern part of the St. Lawrence Valley it consists almost exclusively of the ruins of rocks of the Laurentian system, but in the south-west of Canada the debris of the palæozoic formations are mingled with those of the crystalline rocks.

Among the economic materials of the superficial deposits are clays for the fabrication of bricks and coarse pottery, which are wrought in a great number of places. In the vicinity of London, of Toronto, and Cobourg there are clays which yield white and yellow bricks that are much esteemed. Deposits of shell marl, very valuable as manure, occur often in beds of large extent.

Bog iron ore is widely spread in Canada, and forms superficial deposits often of large extent. The forges of St. Maurice, near Three Rivers, have been supplied for nearly a century with bog ore of that neighbourhood, and a furnace for the smelting of the same ore has lately been established at Champlain in the same vicinity. It is worthy of remark that although the St. Maurice ore contains a considerable proportion of phosphate, it furnishes castings and malleable iron of an excellent quality.

Considerable areas in the eastern part of Canada are covered with marshes which furnish abundance of peat, a combustible

fast coming into use, and very important in a country where coal is wanting, and where wood is already becoming scarce and dear.

MINERAL SPRINGS.

The mineral waters of Canada without exception issue from the unaltered palœozoic rocks, and offer from their number and their various composition a very interesting subject of investigation. They may be divided into two kinds—neutral and alkaline. Both of them contain bromides and iodides in small quantities, as well as bicarbonate of lime and magnesia, often in great abundance. Among those best known are St. Leon, Caxton, Plantagenet, Lanoraie, and Point du Jour, but others equally good are found at Nicolet, St. Genevieve and elsewhere. The quantities of bromides and iodides, and the salts of baryta and strontia contained in several of these springs, give them valuable medicinal properties. The Springs best known, are those of Varennes and Caledonia, which are feebly alkaline and pleasant to the taste.

With some few exceptions, the springs of these two classes rise from strata belonging to the lower silurian system, the waters of the limestones which form its base are generally neutral, while the springs which flow from the schists which cover these limestones are often alkaline. The acid springs as well as a great number of salines, evolve carburetted hydrogen gas, and often in considerable quantities. None of the springs of Canada as far as yet observed, appear to merit the appellation of thermal.

We will now proceed to enumerate the principal substances of the mineral kingdom, known to exist in the country, and the localities where they are found.

Granite of good quality for building purposes is found principally in the counties of Megantic, Sherbrooke, Stanstead, Shefford and St. Hyacinth; gneiss is also found in abundance on the north shore, in different parts of both Ontario and Quebec.

Sandstone for building is also found in different parts of the Province, principally near Quebec, the mouths of the Niagara, and the Ottawa Rivers.

Lime exists in all parts of the country, and hydraulic limestone on the shores of the Grand River, county of Brant; it also exists in the vicinity of Kingston and Ottawa, in the county of Argenteuil, and at Quebec.

Clays of various qualities are found over the whole face of the country. Marbles of a diversity of colours are found in many places, and serpentine, particularly in the districts of Quebec and St. Francis, on the south shore of the river. The combustible substances of the mineral kingdom are very rare; nevertheless peat, naptha, petroleum, and asphalt exist in certain places.

Slate of good quality abounds in the neighbourhood of the River St. Francis, and in the district of Quebec. Millstones of an inferior quality may be procured, but the best are to be had in the district of Gaspé. Whetstones abound in several localities, and very good tripoli has been discovered in the counties of Berthier and Montmorenci.

Earths of different colours are met with in numerous places; for instance white barytes along the north shore, from Lake Superior downwards; yellow, red and brown ochre in Tadousac, and Montmorency, and on the borders of Lake Huron a kind of ferruginous clay, which produces a delicate red.

Lithographic stones are procured in Marmora, which though not of the best quality, may be employed to a great advantage. In the category of precious stones, we can boast of agate, jasper, hyacinths, amethysts and jet. Materials for the manufacture of transparent and opaque glass are abundant, but more especially in the counties of Beauce and Megantic; asbestos is found in Stanstead and Kamouraska, and plumbago abounds in Buckingham and Templeton.

Gypsum is to be had on the shores of the Grand River, near Niagara, and in the islands in the Gulf, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence. Phosphate of lime is met with principally on the Upper Ottawa. The country also contains uranium, chrome, cobalt, manganese, iron pyrites, dolomites, and magnesites, for all which chemistry may find uses.

Gold exists in a native state under ground in sufficient quantities to be worked in the county of Beauce, near Quebec, on the banks of the River Chaudière, and in great abundance at Madoc, Elzevir, Tudor and Marmora. Slight traces of gold in veins have been discovered in the copper mines of Lake Superior and in the districts of St. Francis and Quebec, where native silver is also found.

Nickel and *Cobalt* are met with near Lake Huron, and traces of them are found in other places.

Copper exists on the shores of Lake Huron and Superior, and in the district of St. Francis, Eastern Townships.

Lead is found in the Ottawa and Gaspé districts.

Iron in its various natural states abounds in many parts of Ontario and Quebec, but principally near the River St. Maurice, in the neighbourhood of the Town of Three Rivers. The crystalline schists on the north shore through the whole extent of the country are found to contain masses of iron ore, generally of specular iron.

Many of the above mentioned minerals are scarcely worked yet; but time no doubt will more fully develope our resources, and the value of many of the hidden treasures of the earth, now comparatively unknown, will be appreciated.

CONCLUSION.

In the foregoing pages the author has endeavoured to portray the vicissitudes, as well as the progress of the old Provinces of the New Dominion—this important appendage of the British Crown, now budding into a nationality of its own, yet ever cherishing fond remembrances of the fostering care of Mother-land. Its peace, progress and wealth in the shape of its public works and buildings have been cursorily alluded to, contrasting well with the dismal appearance of things when it was scantily settled, and in those dark days when war stalked through our land. In the Province of Ontario, from its comparatively modern settlement as compared with other portions of the Dominion, but few *old* historical reminiscenses are to be met with, peace and prosperity with but slight intermission having marked it for their own. To the present Province of Quebec, and more specially its "ancient Capital" belongs the palm of legendary lore—the historical ivy of old Stadacona—in other words the cradle and the tomb of French Dominion in the New World. No more applicable conclusion can be given than the words of the Hon. P. O. Chauveau; "History is everywhere around us,—beneath us; from the depth of yonder valleys, from the top of that mountain, history rises up and presents itself to our notice, exclaiming "behold me." She rises as well from these ramparts (Quebec) replete with daring deeds, as from those illustrious plains equally celebrated for feats of arms, and she again exclaims "Here I am"!—If we cannot engrave on bronze the exploits of our forefathers, we can at least inscribe them in the pages of history."

FINIS.

APPENDIX.

Since the foregoing pages were written, the following account of the battle of Chateauguay, by an eye-witness, has been handed to the author, and from its authentic description is worthy of a record in these pages.

BATTLE OF CHATEAUGUAY.

By an eye-witness.

"The American army, stationed at Four Corners, under General Hampton, after having engaged the attention of our troops for so long a time, began at length to draw near the frontier on the 21st Oct. The same day, at 4 p. m., their advance guard drove in our picket, stationed at Piper's Road, to within 30 miles of Chateauguay. As soon as Major Henry, of the Beauharnois Militia, commanding on English River, had received notice of the enemy's approach, he informed Major-Gen. DeWatterville, and immediately advanced Captains Levesque and Debartsch with the flank companies of the five battalions of incorporated militia and about two hundred men from the Beauharnois division. This force advanced six miles that night, and halted at the entrance of a wood, through which it was not prudent to pass. Early next morning they were joined by Lieut.-Colonel DeSalaberry, with his Voltigeurs. At the right of the Canadian regiment under Capt. Ferguson, Lieut.-Col. DeSalaberry marched up nearly three miles on the left bank of the river, and a patrol of the enemy having showed itself at some distance, he halted his little force. The Lieut.-Colonel having had the advantage of reconnoitering the county above Chateauguay during an expedition he had made several weeks previous on the American frontier, knew that the banks of the river could not furnish a better position. The wood being filled with deep ravines, upon which he established four lines of defence, one in rear of the other. The first

three lines were at distances of two hundred paces apart ; the fourth nearly half a mile behind, and on the right bank of the river commanded a ford, on the left side, which it was very important to guard. They threw upon each of these lines a species of breast-work, which extended to some distance in the wood, to cover his right. The breast-work on the first line formed an obtuse angle to the right of the road and ran along the course of the ditch. The first day was passed in strengthening their position, which was not inferior to any that could have been chosen. It had also the advantage of forcing the enemy, if he was disposed to attack, to cross a great space of unsettled country, and to remove himself from his resources, while on the contrary, our troops had all they wished for, and were well supported in the rear. The right branch of the river was covered by a thick wood; and care was taken to place a guard at the ford, and a picket of sixty men of the Beauharnois militia was posted in front of the other.

The Lieutenant-Colonel did not confine his attention to the above works. In order to secure his position still further, he ordered a party of thirty men of the Beauharnois militia to go in front of the first line, to destroy the bridges and make an *abattis*. Consequently all the bridges within the space of four miles and a half were destroyed, and he made a formidable *abattis* in front of the first line, which ran from the bank of the river for three or four acres into the wood, where it joined his right, which rested on an impassable swamp. The four lines were then completely covered. It was well known the enemy had a dozen guns, and that it was impossible for him to bring them up. It was the strength of the position chosen, joined to the heroism of our little army, that obtained for us a brilliant victory.

After Colonel DeSalaberry had made these judicious dispositions, Major-General DeWatterville came to see the camp and approved of all he had done.

Although the *abattis* had been finished the second day, the party of axe-men were kept there to render it more formidable ; a covering party was posted in front to protect them ; there was also in rear a strong picket. At 10 a. m. on the 26th October, an advance guard of the enemy came within musket range of the *abattis*, and Lieutenant Gray, of the Voltigeurs, who was in front with twenty of his men, was forced to retire after having exchanged shots with the enemy, and he was supported by Lieutenant Johnson of the same corps, who commanded the picket in rear of the axe-men, who were obliged to retreat and could not return to work for the remainder of the day.

The moment that Lieutenant-Colonel DeSalaberry heard the firing, he went to the front of the first line. He took with him three companies of Captain Ferguson's Canadian Regiment,

which he deployed to the right in front of the *abattis*; those of Captain J. B. Duchesnay, he ordered to take foot on the left, and that of Captain Taschereau Duchesnay, who, with about fifty or sixty militiamen of Beauharnois, was placed *en potence* to the left of the *abattis*, in such a manner as to take the enemy in flank, if he advanced against the Beauharnois Militia upon the right of the river. There were also twenty Indians, with Captain Ferguson's company, on the right. The Lieutenant-Colonel took post in front of the centre. Between the *abattis* and the first line were placed Captain Ecuyer's company of Voltigeurs, and Captain Debartsch's light company of the fifth battalion of incorporated militia. A large body of Indians, under Captain Lamothe, were distributed through the wood, to the right of Captain Debartsch. Lieutenant-Colonel McDonnell, of the Glengary Light Infantry, marched with a body of his light brigade from the third and fourth lines, to the first and second. All these movements were executed with rapidity.

In the meantime the enemy began to form in a large plain, bordering on the *abattis*. General Hampton commanded in person on the left bank of the river; he had with him the Tenth, the Thirty-first, and other regiments, making about three thousand five hundred men, with three squadrons of cavalry and four guns. Nevertheless, the artillery was not much in the action. A large body of the enemy, amounting to about fifteen hundred men, crossed the wood upon the left bank of the river; it was composed of the Fourth, Thirty-third, Thirty-fourth, and some battalions of volunteer light infantry. The rest of the American army was formed behind the force, which was on the left bank. A little while after Colonel DeSalaberry had made the dispositions described, a large column of infantry marched over the plain in front, and the Colonel seeing that this column was exposed to be taken in flank, an advantage which he had expected for some time, he fired the first shot, and it was perceived that it took effect on a mounted officer—a good augury. Then he ordered the bugles to sound "commence fire," and immediately the companies in front opened a brisk and well-directed fire, which arrested for several moments the advance of the enemy. He remained several minutes at a rest; then facing to the left, formed line and delivered several volleys. Nevertheless, by this manœuvre, the fire from the left of this line was entirely directed upon that part of the woods which was not occupied by our troops; but the fire from the right was sufficiently heavy to oblige our pickets to seek cover behind the *abattis*. The enemy took this movement as the commencement of a retreat, but were deceived, for they could not gain one inch of the *abattis*. Cheers arose from one end to the other of his army, which shouts our troops returned, and the

hurrahs were taken up by those in the rear. Lieutenant Colonel McDonnell, on the first line, ordered the bugles to be sounded in all directions, in order to make the enemy believe we had a large force. This *ruse* had the desired effect, for we afterwards learned from the prisoners that they estimated our force at 6000 or 7000 men. After this clamour on both sides, several volleys were exchanged. The enemy did not once attempt to penetrate into the *abattis*. They continued, however, their fire, which was promptly returned by our left. A little while after, the enemy began to relax their efforts, as if their attention had been directed to the other side of the lines. Then the bugles at the front gave the signal to advance, and Lieut.-Colonel McDonnell, anxious to add more laurels to those which he had already won at Ogdensburg, came from the first and second line, with Captain Levesque's company and another.

Towards the end of the engagement upon the left bank, the enemy, who upon the right had forced back the militia of Beauharnois, commenced a brisk fire upon our left, which was returned by the left of Captain J. B. Duchesnay and the right of Captain Taschereau Duchesnay. Then Lieut.-Colonel DeSalaberry ordered Lieut.-Colonel McDonnell to check the advance of the enemy. Captain Daly, who was chosen for this service, crossed the ford, taking with him the remainder of the sedentary militia from the other side, and advanced with rapidity along the river. The fire of the enemy having almost ceased at the *abattis*, and Lieut.-Colonel DeSalaberry seeing that the action was becoming serious on the right, left his position in the centre of the front and went to the left with the troops thrown behind *en potence*. There he mounted on a large trunk of a tree, and although exposed to the enemy's fire, examined coolly the state of things. Then, he gave his orders to Captain Daly in French, and enjoined him to answer in the same language, in order not to be understood by the enemy. Captain Daly drove the enemy before him for some time; but rallying on their troops in rear, who were nearly in line with the force upon the left bank, they awaited his approach, and received him with a well-directed fire. He was wounded in this attack, but notwithstanding his wound, he pushed on with his company, and at that time, while encouraging his men by word and example, was wounded for the second time and fell.

Captain Bruyere, of the Beauharnois Militia, was slightly wounded at the same time. Their men, being no longer in a condition to resist so superior a force were obliged to fall back, which was done in good order, under the command of Lieutenant Schiller; and the joyous cries of the enemy were again heard, but they were momentary; for the enemy had only come as far as the line *en potence*, which, by order of Lieutenant-Colonel DeSala-

berry, opened upon them a brisk and well-directed fire, which arrested their bold movement, and put them into great confusion. Vainly they tried to resist; they broke ranks and retreated precipitately. It was then about two p. m.; and General Hampton, seeing that his troops upon the right bank could not succeed any better than those on the left bank, ordered the latter to retreat, after having been inactive for an hour, though they were from time to time fired upon by our skirmishers, who were perfectly under cover in the *abattis*. Our troops rested in their position, and slept that night upon the ground they had occupied during the day. The next day, at dawn, they were reinforced by Captain Rouville's* company of Voltigeurs and Captain Levesque's Grenadiers of the fifth Battalion of Incorporated Militia, and sixty men from the division of Beauharnois, all under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel McDonnell. They advanced their pickets two miles further than they had already done. The day passed quietly on both sides. Their pickets were posted in such a way, that twenty of their men fell into our hands on the right bank of the river. We found also on this bank a large number of muskets, drums, haversacks, rations, etc. This showed in what disorder the enemy had retreated. Our troops buried forty of their men, besides those they had buried themselves, and among others, found several officers of rank. They found two dead horses upon the left bank, and the enemy carried away many of their wounded from this side of the river.

On the 28th October, Captain Lamothe, with about 150 Indians, went to reconnoitre the enemy, who, according to Colonel Hughes, of the Engineers, had abandoned their camp the previous day. A party of the Beauharnois Militia, supported by Captain Debartsch, burnt and destroyed the new bridges made within a mile of the enemy, who had pitched their camp about a mile and a half from Piper's Road, that is to say, six miles from his first position.

Captain Lamothe penetrated into the woods with his Indians, and, notwithstanding the inferiority of his force, engaged in a skirmish with the enemy, who had one man killed and seven wounded.

On the 30th October, a party of Indian chasseurs, under Capt. Ducharme, gave information that the enemy had abandoned their camp at Piper's Road on the 29th, in great disorder, and retreated to the cross roads.

From all the information obtained from the prisoners, it appears that the intention of the enemy was to advance by the Chateauguay river to the banks of the St. Lawrence, to wait there for the

* Brother-in-law of Colonel DeSalaberry.

co-operation of Gen. Wilkinson, who had taken Kingston in his downward march.

"*Rusticus expectat dum defluat amnis.*"

It was learned from the prisoners that the force of the enemy amounted to 7000 infantry, 400 cavalry, and 10 or 12 guns. The Canadian force engaged did not exceed 500 men, the remainder of the army being in reserve.

It may here be observed that the whole of the American force was not engaged, not more than 1000 men being under fire.

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