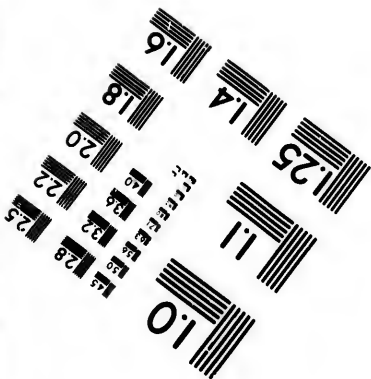
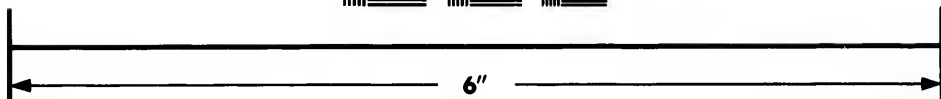
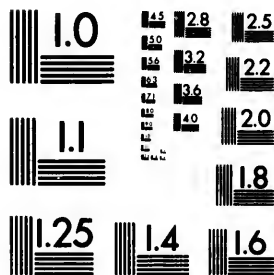


**IMAGE EVALUATION  
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic  
Sciences  
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET  
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580  
(716) 872-4503



**CIHM/ICMH  
Microfiche  
Series.**

**CIHM/ICMH  
Collection de  
microfiches.**



Canadian Institute for Historical Microreproductions / Institut canadien de microreproductions historiques



**© 1982**

Technical and Bibliographic Notes/Notes techniques et bibliographiques

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

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

- Coloured covers/  
Couverture de couleur
- Covers damaged/  
Couverture endommagée
- Covers restored and/or laminated/  
Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée
- Cover title missing/  
Le titre de couverture manque
- Coloured maps/  
Cartes géographiques en couleur
- Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black)/  
Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)
- Coloured plates and/or illustrations/  
Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur
- Bound with other material/  
Relié avec d'autres documents
- Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin/  
La reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure
- Blank leaves added during restoration may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming/  
Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.
- Additional comments:/  
Commentaires supplémentaires:

- Coloured pages/  
Pages de couleur
- Pages damaged/  
Pages endommagées
- Pages restored and/or laminated/  
Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées
- Pages discoloured, stained or foxed/  
Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées
- Pages detached/  
Pages détachées
- Showthrough/  
Transparence
- Quality of print varies/  
Qualité inégale de l'impression
- Includes supplementary material/  
Comprend du matériel supplémentaire
- Only edition available/  
Seule édition disponible
- Pages wholly or partially obscured by errata slips, tissues, etc., have been refilmed to ensure the best possible image/  
Les pages totalement ou partiellement obscurcies par un feuillet d'errata, une pelure, etc., ont été filmées à nouveau de façon à obtenir la meilleure image possible.

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

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

The copy filmed here has been reproduced thanks to the generosity of:

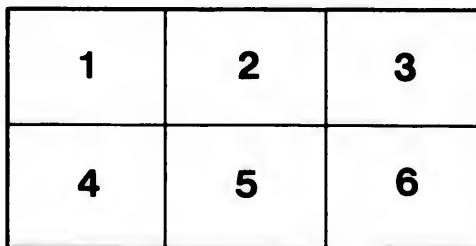
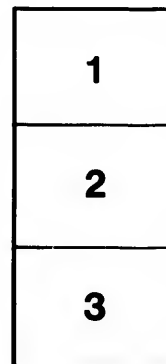
Library of the Public  
Archives of Canada

The images appearing here are the best quality possible considering the condition and legibility of the original copy and in keeping with the filming contract specifications.

Original copies in printed paper covers are filmed beginning with the front cover and ending on the last page with a printed or illustrated impression, or the back cover when appropriate. All other original copies are filmed beginning on the first page with a printed or illustrated impression, and ending on the last page with a printed or illustrated impression.

The last recorded frame on each microfiche shall contain the symbol  $\rightarrow$  (meaning "CONTINUED"), or the symbol  $\nabla$  (meaning "END"), whichever applies.

Maps, plates, charts, etc., may be filmed at different reduction ratios. Those too large to be entirely included in one exposure are filmed beginning in the upper left hand corner, left to right and top to bottom, as many frames as required. The following diagrams illustrate the method:



L'exemplaire filmé fut reproduit grâce à la générosité de:

La bibliothèque des Archives  
publiques du Canada

Les images suivantes ont été reproduites avec le plus grand soin, compte tenu de la condition et de la netteté de l'exemplaire filmé, et en conformité avec les conditions du contrat de filmage.

Les exemplaires originaux dont la couverture en papier est imprimée sont filmés en commençant par le premier plat et en terminant soit par la dernière page qui comporte une empreinte d'impression ou d'illustration, soit par le second plat, selon le cas. Tous les autres exemplaires originaux sont filmés en commençant par la première page qui comporte une empreinte d'impression ou d'illustration et en terminant par la dernière page qui comporte une telle empreinte.

Un des symboles suivants apparaîtra sur la dernière image de chaque microfiche, selon le cas: le symbole  $\rightarrow$  signifie "A SUIVRE", le symbole  $\nabla$  signifie "FIN".

Les cartes, planches, tableaux, etc., peuvent être filmés à des taux de réduction différents. Lorsque le document est trop grand pour être reproduit en un seul cliché, il est filmé à partir de l'angle supérieur gauche, de gauche à droite, et de haut en bas, en prenant le nombre d'images nécessaire. Les diagrammes suivants illustrent la méthode.

ire  
détails  
es du  
modifier  
er une  
filmage

ées

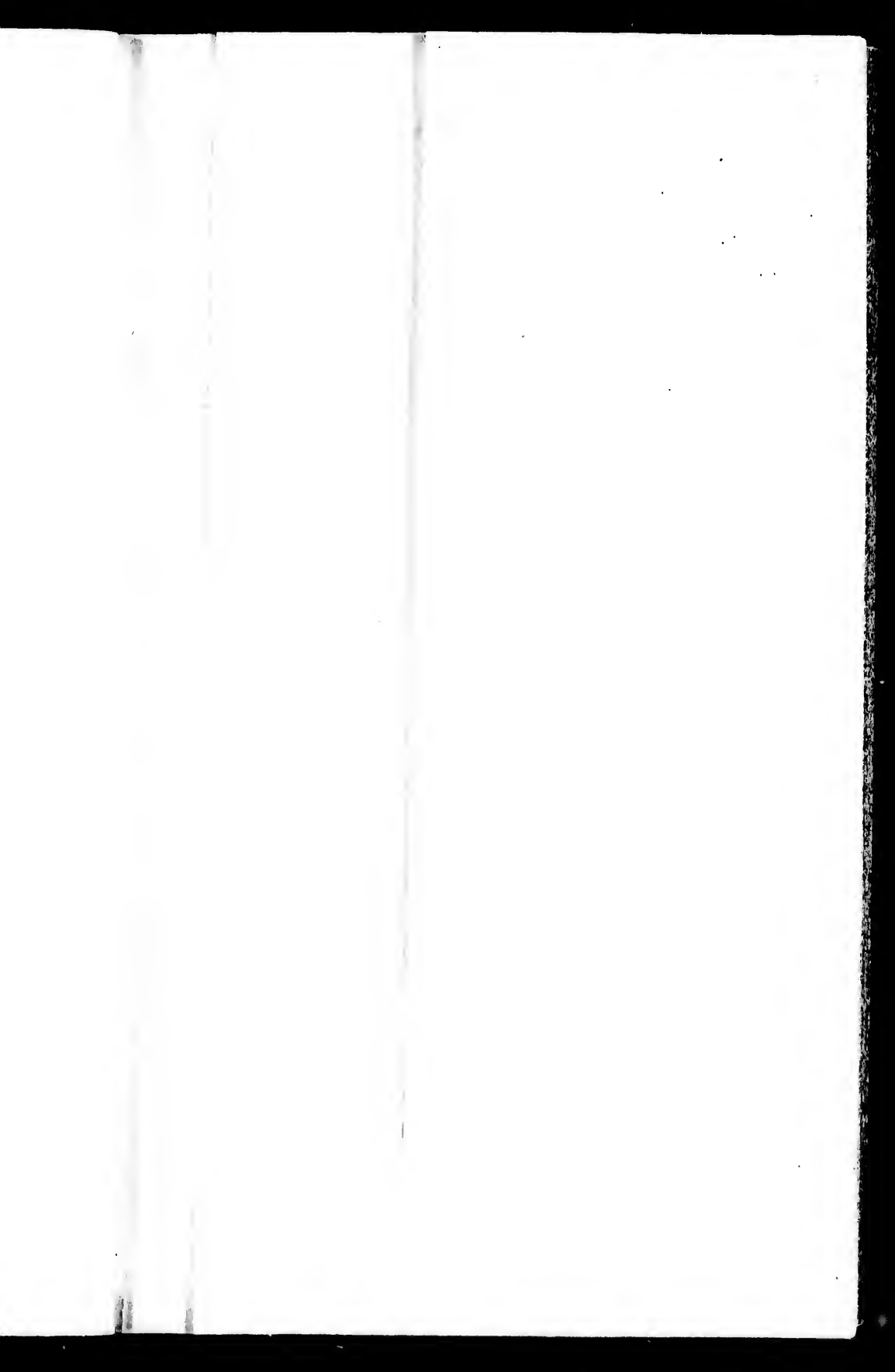
re

y errata  
d to

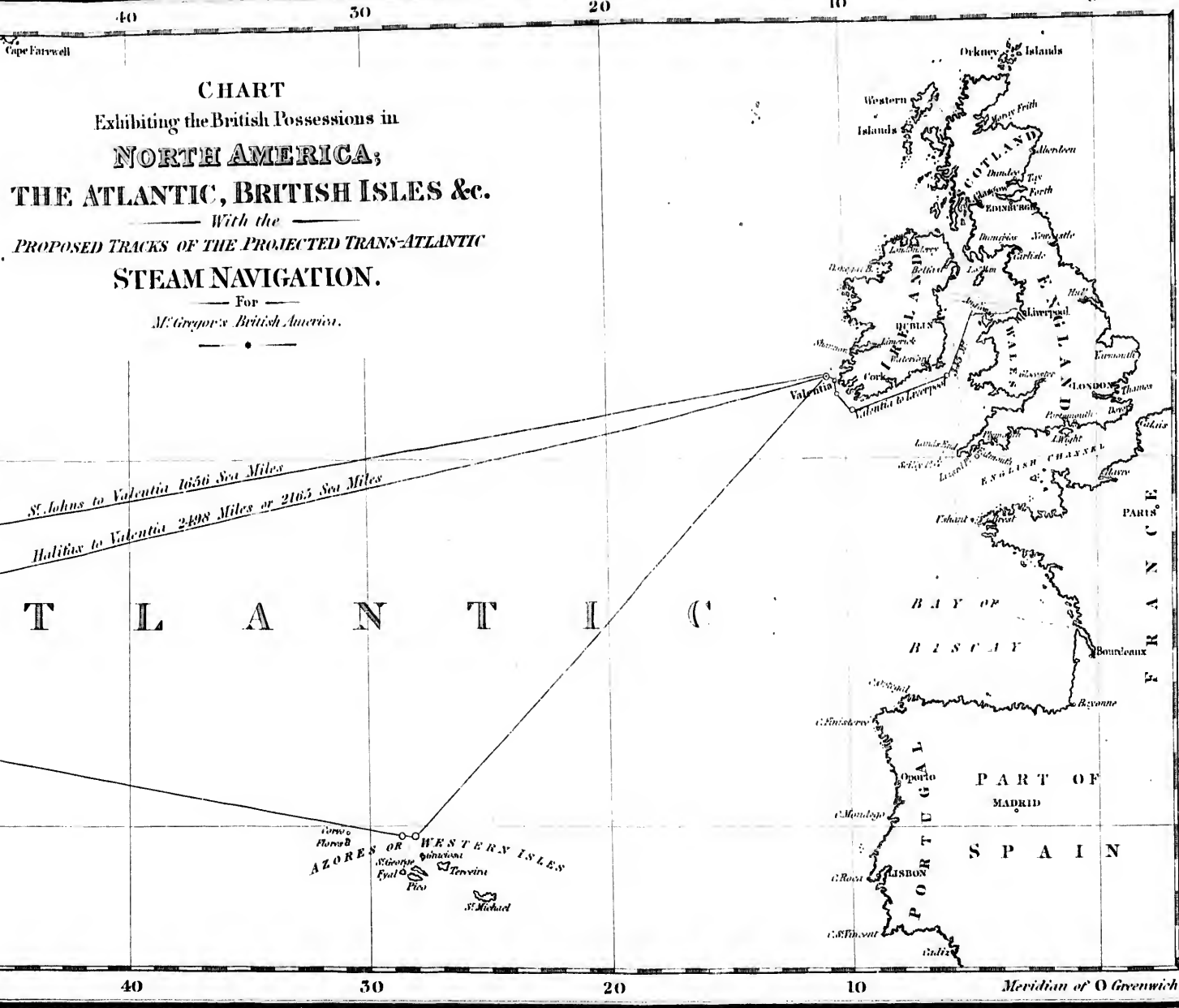
nt  
ne pelure,  
çon à











Cape Farwell

**CHART**  
 Exhibiting the British Possessions in  
**NORTH AMERICA;**  
**THE ATLANTIC, BRITISH ISLES &c.**  
 With the  
**PROPOSED TRACKS OF THE PROJECTED TRANS-ATLANTIC**  
**STEAM NAVIGATION.**  
 For  
*M<sup>r</sup> Gregory's British America.*

*St. John's to Valentia 1656 Sea Miles*

*Halifax to Valentia 2498 Miles or 2165 Sea Miles*

A T L A N T I C

50  
 PARIS  
 ENGLISH CHANNEL  
 BAY OF BISCAY  
 40

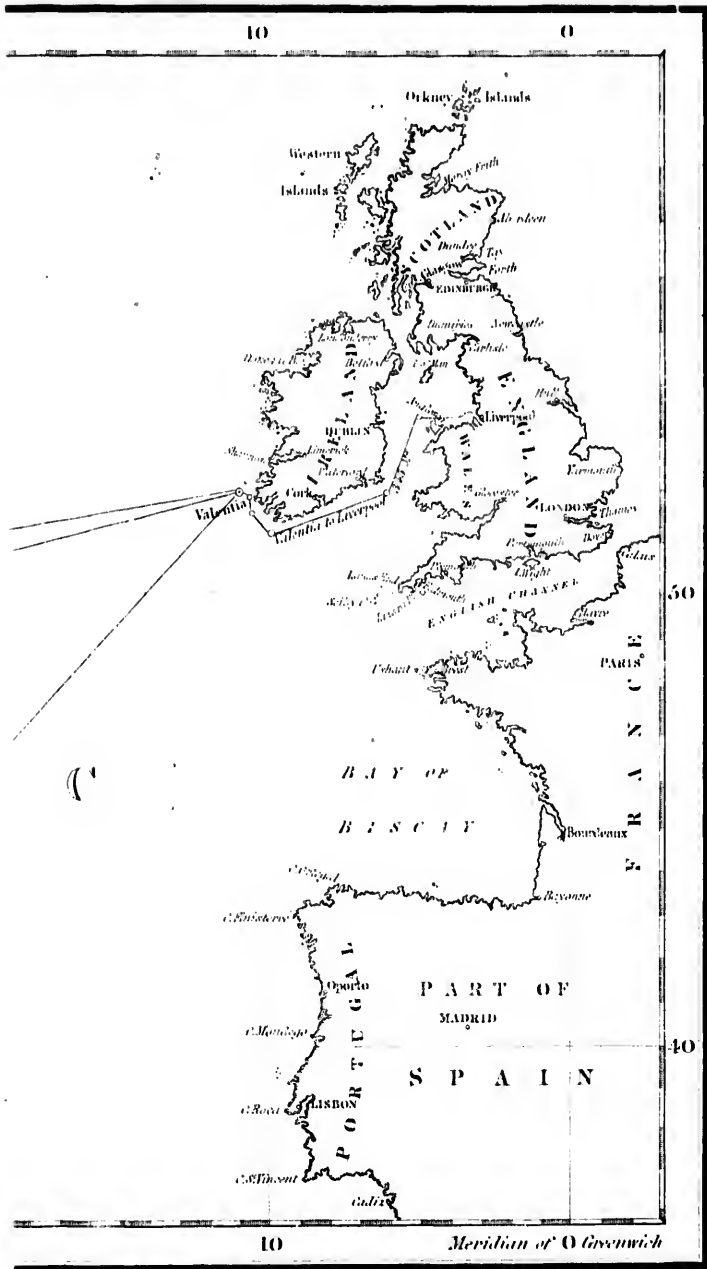
Azores or  
 AZORES OR WESTERN ISLES  
 Flores  
 S. George  
 S. Michael  
 S. Terrence  
 S. Vincent  
 S. Peter

Orkney Islands  
 Western Islands  
 Shetland  
 SCOTLAND  
 Aberdeen  
 Dundee  
 Perth  
 Edinburgh  
 Glasgow  
 Liverpool  
 LONDON  
 THAMES  
 ENGLISH CHANNEL  
 BAY OF BISCAY  
 BOURGONNE  
 PORTUGAL  
 LISBON  
 PART OF MADRID  
 SPAIN  
 Cadix

Meridian of 0 Greenwich

Eng<sup>d</sup> by W. H. Lizars





Eng<sup>d</sup> by W.H. Lizars

# BRITISH AMERICA.

By JOHN M'GREGOR, Esq.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

*Acc. No. 36853*

WILLIAM BLACKWOOD, EDINBURGH; AND  
T. CADELL, STRAND, LONDON.

MDCCCXXXII.

PUBLIC  
OF

50  
518°  
E  
R  
A  
N  
C  
E  
40  
wich  
The W.H. Lister

PAP  
EC  
51  
M13  
v.1

EDINBURGH:  
PRINTED BY BALLANTYNE AND COMPANY,  
PAUL'S WORK, CANONGATE.

362.5

nar  
the  
was  
for  
per  
labo  
grat

Bo

TO  
HIS MOST GRACIOUS MAJESTY,  
WILLIAM THE FOURTH.

SIRE,

YOUR MAJESTY having been the only British Monarch who ever visited that interesting portion of the Empire which I have attempted to describe, I was emboldened to solicit your Majesty's Patronage for my Work. For the gracious manner in which permission was granted me to dedicate my humble labours to your Majesty, I beg to offer my very grateful and respectful thanks.

I have the honour to be,

SIRE,

Your Majesty's

Very dutiful, and very loyal Subject,

JOHN M'GREGOR.

BOTANIC VIEW, NEAR LIVERPOOL,  
*2d January, 1832.*

pr  
re  
aff  
co  
th  
to  
tic  
fo  
an

in  
se  
wa  
all  
po  
all  
po  
ati  
ing  
ne

## PREFACE.

---

THE materials of the following Sketches were principally collected during my travels, and while residing for several years in America. My pursuits afforded me the most favourable opportunities of becoming acquainted with the regions least known in these kingdoms ; and I have zealously endeavoured to describe whatever came under my own observation, and to form conclusions according to the information communicated to me by others, without any bias.

Every thing convinced me that the British Empire in North America was imperfectly known ; and, consequently, that the just value of that vast territory was not understood. I was also convinced that nearly all the errors committed in treating with foreign powers concerning his Majesty's colonies, as well as all the blunders which have occurred in our colonial policy, have been the results of the *meagre* information possessed by our government, and not, according to a prevalent opinion, the effects of intentional neglect on the part of his Majesty's ministers.

In order to give a general, historical, and descriptive view of British America, I have briefly noticed the early settlement, advancement, and the causes that led to the independence, of the old colonies ; and also the constitution, policy, military and naval force, and the public institutions of the United States. I have, at the same time, endeavoured to exhibit impartially the general characteristics of society in that extraordinary Republic ; in which, although there may be much to condemn, there is assuredly much more to admire : particularly among those who, from their education, superior abilities, and wealth, naturally give a tone to public manners, and, at the same time, openly or silently govern the people.

If, in my reflections on the advantages which American negotiators have obtained from the British government, either in respect to commercial privileges, or the boundaries of territory, my remarks appear too severe, they must be attributed to the necessity of showing the impolicy of yielding them, unnecessarily, commercial privileges to the prejudice of British trade, and a greater extent of territory than they have any right to.

The descriptive parts of the work are principally from personal observation ; or, when I was prevented from visiting any of the places that I have described, I have had recourse to the best resident authorities ; whose statements and accounts I have carefully ex-

amined and compared, before introducing their substance into this work.

The materials of the historical sketches I have taken from various old records, particularly those of Massachusetts Bay, relative to the early settlement of our colonies; from Hakluyt; the *Lex Mercatoria*; Anderson on Commerce; Lescarbot, Charlevoix; Raynal; La Hontan; Pepperal's Journal; Journal of the Jesuits; and various manuscript records and letters, which I collected in America.

To many gentlemen of high standing in the colonies, I have gratefully to acknowledge the obligations I owe them, not only for personal civilities, but for the excellent information which they have afforded me. For a great portion of the facts I required, in drawing up statements relative to the trade of the colonies, I am indebted to the Chamber of Commerce of Halifax, the best repository of commercial information in America; and the benefits of which were extended to me by the courtesy of the gentlemen who form its members having resolved, at a general meeting, when I was last at Halifax, "that the books in which their transactions were registered should be sent me, with liberty to make such extracts as I thought proper."

In whatever I have read on emigration, there appeared to me either a prejudice or an interested bias



for or against the question. The information collected for the Emigration Committee, and the observations founded on that information, by the Right Honourable Wilmot Horton, as far as regards emigration on a grand scale, afford, it is true, correct details; but they are not within the reach of general readers, nor to be obtained by persons in humble life, who emigrate at their own expense. The valuable work of the late Lord Selkirk would form another exception to the above observation, if it detailed as fully the difficulties that attended, as it does, the causes that, in Scotland, led to emigration. It is no *common-day business*, but a most serious consideration, for a man with his family to remove from the place in which he was born and brought up, and from occupations to which he has been trained and habituated from his childhood, to a country far distant, and, in many respects, different from his own, and in which he must assume pursuits, and acquire ideas, to which he is a perfect stranger. I have therefore endeavoured to point out, occasionally in the descriptive pages, and concisely in the Sixth Book of the first volume, the advantages and the difficulties which may be expected to attend emigrating from the United Kingdom and settling in America.

The establishing of steam-vessels between the United Kingdom and British America, touching at

the points marked in the general chart, would not only connect both countries much more intimately than at present, but the resources of each would be greatly augmented in value, and the importance of the British colonies would also be much better appreciated. I may observe, that the province of Nova Scotia alone, if possessed by the United States, would render that Republic independent of all Europe; and, in the event of another war, when steam-ships will become terrible to all others, the Americans would be enabled, by possessing the exhaustless coal and iron mines of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, to defy the united naval force of all Europe on the shores of the western world.\*

At present the Americans have no coal within themselves that we know of, except the remarkably *slow kindling anthracite*, which is useless for the immediate fire required in the furnaces of steam-engines, while Great Britain now possesses the most valuable treasures of the most useful of all minerals, coal and iron, in the parts most convenient for immediate use, both in her home and colonial dominions.

The British North American colonies are, comparatively speaking, still in their infancy. To be convinced of this, we have only to compare what the old

\* See the first chapter of the last Book of this volume.

colonies now forming the United States were when they declared their independence, with their present condition, and then draw a parallel between their condition at that time, and the present state of the British North American colonies.

In 1772, the European population of the old colonies was little more than 2,000,000. At present, the population of the United States is about 13,000,000. In 1783, all the European inhabitants of the present British North American possessions only amounted to 193,000. They now contain a population of 1,350,000. When we therefore consider that these colonies, by cultivation and improvement, are capable of supporting at least 30,000,000 of inhabitants; and including the countries west of the great lakes, probably more than 50,000,000, and that the soil of those countries will produce all the crops that ripen in England, with Indian corn, and other productions, in a climate equally salubrious as that of Britain, we will have little difficulty in concluding, that the men who plant themselves in those regions must rapidly increase their numbers; and becoming, from interest and inclination, attached to the land of their adoption, they, and their offspring, will for ever maintain possession of vast and valuable territory, which, from well known causes, will give the power that holds dominion over it the umpirage of the Western World.

It has been urged, as an argument in support of the inutility of our colonies, that the United States of America have taken more British manufactured goods since, than before their independence. Never was there a more false inference made by men who commit blunders from not examining facts. The increased consumption of British goods in the American republic, is the natural consequence of a rapidly increased population; for that the people of the United States have not augmented the demand for British fabrics, in the same ratio as their numbers have multiplied, is satisfactorily proved by various unexceptionable authorities.\*

This arises in consequence of the political bond between the United Kingdom and the United States being severed, having turned the attention of the republican legislators to home manufactures; and, in order to foster them, to impose heavy restrictions by an obnoxious tariff on the importation of goods, as a measure which they consider politically wise. Vast quantities of French, and other continental manufac-

\* See the excellent pamphlet of Major-General Sir Howard Douglas, Baronet, On the Value and Importance of the British North American Colonies, p. 7. See Mr Cambreleng's Report, p. 28. See Reports of Congress, 1825 and 1827. See Watterton's American Statistics. See three intelligent pamphlets, by Henry Bliss, Esq. barrister, on Colonial Policy. See also Recapitulation of Trade and Population, in the last chapter of the second volume of this work.

tures, as well as Asiatic fabrics, have also been annually consumed in the United States since they became independent ; while the present British North America and West Indian colonies receive nearly all their manufactured supplies from the United Kingdom.

There are, we know, men who have (either from ignorance, interest, or, more frequently, in order to support some *fondling theory*, and sometimes for the purpose of attracting a share of public notice) clamoured against the retention of her colonies by England. But let us only consider, that if Great Britain lose her present possessions in North America, they must either merge into the government of the United States, or, if they be left independently to themselves, interest and safety would induce them to form a league, offensive and defensive, with at least the Northern States ; and should such a separation, and such a compact ever be formed, who can say that the splendid magnificence of England will not be tarnished—that her naval glory will not decline—and that her political consequence among the nations of the earth, will not diminish, along with the loss of the colonies of the West ?

Admitting, on the ground of argument, that the colonies are to be abandoned by Great Britain, will they be conquered by the Americans ? Certainly not.

During the last war, the progress the latter made towards conquering Canada, was little more than trifling desultory attacks, although the defence of the country depended chiefly on the bravery of the Canadian militia. The British colonies can now raise an effective militia of at least 150,000 men, equally brave and well disciplined as any troops the Americans can bring against them ; and if ever the American Republic and the British North American colonies unite under one government, it must be by mutual consent, and from considerations of mutual benefit and protection. In respect to Lower Canada, however, if relinquished by Great Britain, it is much more likely that the inhabitants of that province would, from motives that will ever influence the human race, cleave to France, and not to America. We have already re-established the French, by treaty, at the entrance of the St Lawrence ; and it must not be forgotten, that the Canadian seigneurs, clergy, and peasantry, are the descendants of the noblesse and peasantry who adored the Bourbons and the Cardinal de Richelieu ; that they would have the same church, now richly provided for, to defend, if separated from Britain, and left to themselves ; that the seigneurs and the clergy do not, as is often stated, want either education, talent, or wealth ; and that, as knowledge and wealth constitute power,

the physical strength of the colony will always be under the direction of the gentry and clergy; the latter would, assuredly, owing to the mighty privileges, in respect to religion, and the feudal rights which they now enjoy, rather throw themselves under the protection of the French than of a republican government. What the consequence would be to Great Britain, if the French banners again waved over the citadel of Cape Diamond, I leave the theorists to unravel. Practical men require no explanation.

The retention of our colonies is, however, an object of such vital importance to the power and prosperity—to the trade, manufactures, and safety of the United Kingdom—that the very idea of abandoning them cannot be for one moment defended, either on just or political grounds. Wanting colonies, and, consequently, a commercial navy, the manufactures and military navy of France began to languish from the day that the battle which Wolfe fought on the plains of Abraham, destroyed the power of France in America. Had England wanted her colonies during last war, her importance in the scale of nations would be very different from the magnificent and powerful state which she has maintained amidst all the eventful changes of that period.

always be  
 energy; the  
 right privi-  
 lal rights  
 ves under  
 republican  
 ould be to  
 raved over  
 teorists to  
 ation.  
 ver, an ob-  
 and pros-  
 fety of the  
 bandoning  
 either on  
 onies, and,  
 manufactures  
 quish from  
 ght on the  
 of France  
 onies du-  
 of nations  
 ificent and  
 amidst all

CONTENTS  
 OF  
 VOLUME FIRST.

---

BOOK I.

HISTORICAL SKETCH, INTRODUCTORY TO THE WHOLE.

CHAPTER I.

	PAGE
Discovery and Settlement of North America, . . . . .	1

CHAPTER II.

Slow Progress of the Settlements and Countries which Great Britain acquired by the Conquest of Louisburg and Quebec. Extraordinary Sufferings endured by the early Settlers. Prosperity of the New England and Southern States. Character of the Inhabitants. Favourable condition in which England placed her Colonies, ensured their Prosperity,	10
--	----

CHAPTER III.

Causes of Discontent in America. Restrictions on Trade. Prohibition of the Illicit Trade with Spanish America. Licentiousness of the <i>Guarda Costas</i> . Failure of Remittances for British Manufactures in consequence. Peace of 1763. Measures which led to the Stamp Act. Complaints of the Colonists. Their extraordinary Proceedings. Resist the Tea Act, and throw overboard the Cargoes of the Company's Ships. Repeal of the Stamp Act. Conduct of the Ministry, . . . . .	18
---	----



CHAPTER IV.		PAGE
The Court of France intrigues with the Colonists to bring about a separation from Great Britain. Character of the Colonists who conducted the Revolution. Remonstrances to the King and People of England. Conciliatory Plan of Earl Chatham. Mr Burke's Motion in Parliament. Independence of the United States, &c. . . . .		27

CHAPTER V.		
Condition of the United States at the Peace of 1783. Washington. Constitution and Laws. Resources. Characteristics of the People, &c. . . . .		35
NOTES TO BOOK I. . . . .		58

BOOK II.

VIEW OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL BOUNDARIES AND NATURAL HISTORY OF BRITISH AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.		
General View of British America. Configuration. Physical Aspect, &c. . . . .		73

CHAPTER II.		
Forests. Principal Trees, &c. . . . .		79

CHAPTER III.		
Wild Animals. Birds. Reptiles. Insects. Fishes, &c. . . . .		92

CHAPTER IV.		
Theory of the Climate of North America, . . . . .		122
NOTE TO BOOK II. . . . .		140

PAGE

to bring . . . . . 27

r of the

nstances

y Plan of

t. Inde-

. . . . . 27

. Wash-

character-

. . . . . 35

. . . . . 58

D NATURAL

Physical

. . . . . 73

. . . . . 79

es, &c. . . . . 92

. . . . . 122

. . . . . 140

BOOK III.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

CHAPTER I.

PAGE

General Description of Newfoundland. Mr Cormack's Journey across the Interior Country. Climate. Soil. Natural Productions, &c. . . . . 141

CHAPTER II.

Sketch of its History, . . . . . 151

CHAPTER III.

Government, and Administration of Justice. Laws. Expenses of the Colony. Value of its Commerce, &c. . . . . 175

CHAPTER IV.

Description of St John's, and other Settlements, . . . . . 186

CHAPTER V.

Strait of Belle Isle. Continent of Labrador. Anticosti. Magdalene Islands, . . . . . 205

CHAPTER VI.

Characteristics of the Inhabitants. Pursuits, &c. Manner of Killing Seals. Shore Fishery. Bank Fishery, &c. . . . . 216

CHAPTER VII.

Fisheries of British America. Rise, Progress, and Present State of these Fisheries. French and United States Fisheries on the Coast of Newfoundland, Labrador, and the Gulf of St Lawrence. Vast importance of these Fisheries, if exclusively possessed by Great Britain, . . . . . 234

CHAPTER VIII.

PAGE

Enquiry relative to the Aborigines of Newfoundland. Natives, called Red Indians, seen by Cabot, Cartier, and others. Whitbourne's Narrative. Scott's Adventure. Governor Montague and Captain Duff's proclamations respecting them. Female Red Indian brought to St John's, and sent back with presents. Lieutenants Spratt and Buchan sent by Government in search of them. Mr Cormack's Expedition, and result, . . . . . 252

NOTES TO BOOK III. . . . . 279

BOOK IV.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

CHAPTER I.

Geographical Position of Prince Edward Island. General Aspect of the Country. Counties, and Lesser Divisions. Description of Charlotte Town and the Principal Settlements, . . . . . 283

CHAPTER II.

Climate. Soil. Natural Productions. Wild Animals, &c. 308

CHAPTER III.

Agricultural Productions. Seed-time. Harvest. Horned Cattle. Sheep. Swine. Horses. Scotch Highlanders slovenly Farmers. Manner of Clearing and Cultivating Forest Lands. Consequence of Fires in the Woods. Manures. Agricultural Society. Habitations of New Settlers, &c. . 319

CHAPTER IV.

Trade, &c. . . . . 332

CONTENTS.

xxi

CHAPTER V.

PAGE

Society. Amusements. Pursuits of the Inhabitants. English Settlers. Scotch Highlanders. Irish American Loyalists. Acadian French. Micmac Indians, &c. Religion. Education. Administration of Justice. Prospects for New Settlers, &c. . . . . 339

CHAPTER VI.

Sketch of its History. Condition under the Government of France. Settlement by the British. Erected into a distinct Colonial Government. Governors Patterson, Fanning, Desbarres, Smith, Colonel Ready, . . . . . 352

NOTES TO BOOK IV. . . . . 367

BOOK V.

CAPE BRETON.

CHAPTER I.

Geographical Situation. Configuration and General Description. Sketch of its History, . . . . . 371

CHAPTER II.

Description of Sydney and other Principal Settlements, &c. &c. 386

CHAPTER III.

Population. Characteristics and Pursuits of the Inhabitants. Agriculture, Trade, &c. . . . . 406

CHAPTER IV.

Description of St Paul's Island, and of the Isle of Sable, . . 413

NOTES TO BOOK V. . . . . 421

PAGE

Natives,  
l others.  
nor Mon-  
ng them.  
ent back  
sent by  
pedition,  
. . . . 252

. . . . 279

General  
Divisions.  
l Settle-  
. . . . 283

als, &c. 308

ned Cat-  
slovenly  
g Forest  
Manures.  
s, &c. . 319

. . . . 332

BOOK VI.

CHAPTER I.

PAGE

Remarks on Intercolonial and Transatlantic Steam Navigation, 423

CHAPTER II.

PRACTICAL REMARKS ON EMIGRATION.

In America, Industry secures Independent Circumstances. Prospects of Emigrants generally sanguine, and seldom realized. Necessary considerations before Emigrating. Causes of Emigration. Love of Adventure. Poverty. Discontent. Early Marriages and Pauperism in Ireland. Emigration at the Public Expenses. Respective Advantages of the several Colonies. Classification of Persons to whom America affords Inducements to Emigrate. Necessary Articles required by New Settlers. Precautions as to engaging Passages. "White Slave Trade." Disease and consequent Calamity on Board of Passenger Ships. Irish Emigration to Brazil. Directions to Emigrants after landing. Various Means of Employment pointed out. Plans to raise Passage Money. General Condition of the Inhabitants of British America. Prospects which Industrious Settlers may realize, &c. Notes, . . . . . 439

NOTES TO BOOK VI. . . . . 470

Chas  
T  
Map  
Map  
Map  
Map  
  
Map  
Map  
Map  
Map

Navigation, 423

instances.  
 dom real-  
 Causes  
 discontent.  
 migration at  
 f the se-  
 America  
 icles re-  
 ing Pas-  
 nsequent  
 migration  
 Various  
 e Passage  
 of British  
 y realize,  
 . . . 439  
 . . . 470

### DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER.

#### VOL. I.

- Chart of the Atlantic and part of Europe and America, to face the Titlepage of Vol. I.
- Map of Newfoundland, to face page 141.
- Map of Prince Edward Island, to face page 283.
- Map of Cape Breton, to face page 371.
- Map of Louisburg, to face page 381.

#### VOL. II.

- Map of Nova Scotia, to face the Titlepage.
- Map of New Brunswick, to face page 217.
- Map of River St Lawrence, to face page 329.
- Map of Upper Canada, to face page 521.

**Th**  
so g  
by t  
I  
new  
pear  
sent  
New  
and  
mor  
v

SKETCHES  
OF  
BRITISH AMERICA.

---

BOOK I.

HISTORICAL SKETCH, INTRODUCTORY TO THE  
WHOLE.

---

CHAPTER I.

*Discovery and Settlement of North America.*

THE history of the world does not afford an epoch so glorious and important as the discovery of America by Columbus in 1492.

It formed, as is well known, an era that gave a new and adventurous direction to the views of European nations; and, while the passion of enterprise sent bold and resolute spirits to the vast regions of the New World, fresh discoveries enriched the sciences, and geography, astronomy, and navigation, became more satisfactorily known.



Half a world, with all the climates under heaven, abounding in fertile soils, precious minerals, forests of the most valuable timber, and innumerable tribes of wild animals, was to be explored, the natives exterminated or subdued, and the countries discovered to be added to the possessions of the European nations that sent forth men to discover and conquer them.

Of all the various principles on which right of soil has been founded, there is none superior to immemorial occupancy. The right of the Indians to the country they inhabited was founded in nature. The tenure by which they held it was the free and bounteous gift of Heaven, and such as no man had a right to question, or any nation either a legal or equitable pretence to destroy.

The dark superstition of the times regarded the Deity as the partial God of Christians. The Spaniards made this doctrine, under the sanction of the pope, their measure of right, in wresting the rich countries of South America, and the Island of Cuba, from the natives. Even our Queen Elizabeth and King James, although they denied the authority of the pope, yet, from the principle of avarice, and the passion of ambition, they adopted the fanciful distinction of Christian and heathen right, so far as to make it the measure of justice by which they claimed the countries discovered by their subjects.

Europeans at first subdued with little difficulty the uncivilized Indians, who were ignorant of the use of fire-arms, or scientific warfare, and who re-

garded their invaders as supernatural spirits sent down by the gods of thunder.

Before they discovered the fatal delusion, the critical period for defending their country had passed away; and they did not ascertain that white men were vulnerable until they became their conquerors.

The cruelty and treachery of the Spaniards, until they completely subjugated the natives, and became masters of their fine and rich country, admit of no parallel in the annals of civilized nations, and afford a powerful argument to redeem the savage state of man from being considered more cruel, base, and unprincipled, than that of refined society.

The Spaniards having thus, by priority of discovery, and by force, injustice, cruelty, and treachery, possessed themselves of the richest territories, the English, and other European nations, had either to make farther discoveries, or be content with their dominions in the Old World. The ambition and pride of England would not, however, allow her to remain inactive, while the Portuguese succeeded in finding a new way on the ocean to the East Indies, and while Spain made the glorious discovery of a new hemisphere.

Henry VII., accordingly, in 1496, granted to John Cabot, or Gabotta, a Venetian, a commission to navigate all parts of the ocean, for the purpose of discovering islands, countries, and provinces, either of *Gentiles* or *infidels*, which had been hitherto unknown to all Christian people, with power to set up

his standard, and take possession of the same, as vassals of the crown of England.

Thus began the history of English discoveries; and Cabot this year, with two ships, reached the coast of Labrador. He made a voyage the following year, and, on the 24th of June, discovered Bonavista, in Newfoundland. He then, with his son Sebastian, traversed the coast of America from Davis' Straits to Cape Florida.\*

In 1502 Sebastian Cabot, under English auspices, arrived at Newfoundland, and was the first European who entered the Gulf of St Lawrence. He explored part of its coasts, and carried from St John's Island, (now Prince Edward's,) which he discovered, three natives to England.

It was twenty-one years after Sebastian Cabot discovered the Gulf of St Lawrence, that Francis I. of France dispatched Verazani, who coasted the shores of America from 28° to 50° north latitude. This adventurous navigator was shipwrecked, and perished, on his third voyage.

Jacques Cartier of St Maloes, in 1534, sailed from France on a voyage of discovery, and entered the Gulf of St Lawrence on the festival of that saint, to which it owes its name.

The following year, he sailed up the great *Hosh-laga*, which he called the St Lawrence, and wintered in Canada, which he named New France.

\* There appears some uncertainty as to whether Sebastian alone, or accompanied by his father, made the two latter voyages.

The first attempt at settlement made by the English was in 1579, when Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from Queen Elizabeth to plant Newfoundland, in which he was unsuccessful, and returned home after losing one of his ships. France discovered Carolina in 1562, which the discoverer, Renie Laudénier, so called, in honour of Charles IX.

Florida had been discovered in 1513; and the whole of that part of America, and the coast to an indefinite distance northward, was known by that name until 1584, when Sir Walter Raleigh and Adrian Gilbert obtained a patent from Queen Elizabeth, by virtue of which they took possession of Virginia.\* This was long the name by which the English designated all North America.

During the following year, Sir Walter Raleigh stationed one hundred people at Roanoke, in Virginia, who endured the most incredible hardships. Many of them perished, and the remainder were carried back to England by Sir Francis Drake.

Sir Richard Grenville, however, a fortnight after the departure of Sir Francis Drake, arrived with a fresh colony, and left fifty men to establish a settlement; and in 1587, Sir Walter Raleigh, by no means discouraged by his former failure, sent another company to Virginia under Governor White.

On the arrival of Governor White, he found that all the old company had either perished by famine,

\* So called by the courtly Raleigh, in honour of the Virgin Queen of England.

or were exterminated by the savages. Notwithstanding this deplorable circumstance, he determined on planting a third colony, and left 115 people at the settlement. On the 13th of August this year, Manteo, the first Indian who became a Christian in Virginia, was baptized; and on the 18th of the same month, Mrs Dare was delivered of a daughter, whom she called Virginia. This was the first child born of English parents in America. What this colony suffered must have been truly distressing; for, when Governor White returned in 1590 with necessary supplies for them, not an individual was to be found. They must either have perished for want of food, or they were more probably put to death, under the most horrible tortures, by the Indians.

Hitherto, every attempt made by any European nation to settle America, proved unsuccessful, except no the part of Spain; and in 1602, there was not an European in all North America. Two years afterwards, De Monts succeeded in forming a settlement in Nova Scotia, which was the first that became permanent. Companies were formed in London and Plymouth, under patent from King James I., to plant colonies in America; and Mr Percy, brother of the then Duke of Northumberland, went out to Virginia, in 1606, and discovered James's River. In the following year, the London Company sent to Virginia three vessels under the command of Captain Christopher Newport, who gave the name of Cape Henry to the most southerly point, and began a settlement at James's River.

This was the first permanent settlement, named James's Town, made by the English in America; and Captain Newport left 104 persons there, with Edward Wingfield as president. The Plymouth Company, also, sent two ships, under Admiral Gilbert, to North Virginia, with 100 planters, 45 only of whom remained; and during this year a few huts were built on the north bank of the St Lawrence, by a colony sent from Dieppe and St Maloes, at the expense of a company of French merchants.

Notwithstanding all the efforts made by the English to settle America, their attempts were on the point of utter ruin in 1610. Sir George Somers, this year, on his way to Virginia, was wrecked on the islands of Bermuda, where he wintered; and on arriving the following spring in Virginia, he found the colony reduced from 500 to 60, who embarked with him for England, and broke up the settlement. Fortunately, they were met, the day after they sailed, by Lord De la Warre, who was appointed, under a new patent, governor of South Virginia. He persuaded them to return; and from this period we may date the settlement of North America by England.

In 1614, the Dutch settled New York; and New Jersey was settled in 1620 by the Puritans, part of Mr Robinson's congregation; and New Hampshire, in 1623, at Pisquataqua River, by a small English colony. A colony of Swedes and Fins made a purchase from the Indians of the lands between Cape Henlopen and the falls of the Delaware, which they

called Swedeland, and on which they made settlements, and built forts.

The first settlement in Massachusetts Bay was formed in 1628, by Captain John Endicot, who settled there with his wife. Plymouth, which was annexed in 1691, was previously a separate colony. Lord Baltimore, who established a colony at Newfoundland some time before, commenced settling Maryland in 1633. Settlements were also formed in North Carolina in 1628 ; in Connecticut and Rhode Island in 1635 ; in New Jersey (part of New Netherlands) and in Vermont about 1664.

In the year 1669, plantations were made in South Carolina ; and the celebrated Mr Locke drew up a system of laws for its government.

A regular, just, and prudent plan of colonization was commenced by William Penn, in 1682, under the right of a royal charter.

He purchased the land from the Indians, whose attachment he secured ; and his colony, which he named Pennsylvania, prospered more rapidly, and with more certain security of success, than any previously attempted. His measures were wise and just, and his character and example will ever be regarded with esteem and admiration.\*

From this period the settlement of America proceeded with astonishing rapidity. Multitudes of men, stimulated by the spirit of adventure, expatriated themselves in order to find in distant countries those

\* Note A.

things, or those enjoyments, which they either wanted in reality, or of which they fancied themselves destitute; and, from the first permanent settlement of those parts of America now forming the United States, the stream of emigration continued to flow into them with little interruption. For, according as men were driven from England, Scotland, or Ireland, either by the pressure of poverty, or by disabilities on account of their religious scruples, or whether they were allured from home by the golden visions of gain, it was natural, or at least common, for them to remove to those parts of America, where some of their friends or acquaintances had previously gone. Urged by these motives, and to escape also from the oppressive tyranny of the times, thousands emigrated annually to those colonies.

The dread of arbitrary power, either in a political or religious form, was, certainly, the predominant cause of the emigrations that peopled North America. Its settlement was occasioned as much by religious intolerance, which drove thousands of Puritans from England, as by the enterprising passion of adventure, or the more powerful motives which urge men to escape from the evils of poverty. Those very Puritans, however, were no sooner established in the New England States, than they in their turn persecuted the Quakers with all the rage of spiritual fanaticism.\*

\* Note B.



## CHAPTER II.

Slow progress of the Settlements and Countries which Great Britain acquired by the Conquest of Louisburg and Quebec—Extraordinary Sufferings endured by the early Settlers—Prosperity of the New England and Southern States—Character of the Inhabitants—Favourable condition in which England placed her Colonies, ensured their Prosperity.

It was not until after the reduction of Cape Breton and the conquest of Canada, which added nearly the whole of North America to the British empire, that adventurers, stimulated by the spirit of enterprise, left the mother countries, and established themselves in the newly conquered territories. These were generally persons in trade. Farmers or others, who expected to derive their subsistence from cultivating the soil, directed their course to that part of America now forming the United States.

The American revolutionary war, it is true, arrested the spirit of emigration; but no sooner was the independence of the American Republic acknowledged by England, than the majority of those who left Great Britain and Ireland for America, were, as formerly, fascinated into the United States. This arose, in a great measure, from the mighty resources of the British possessions being nearly altogether unknown in the United Kingdom.

Some Scotch, and a few Irish families, together with a few German and Swiss Protestants, found their way before this time to Nova Scotia and Prince Edward's Island (then called St John's.) A few Highlanders, also, many of whom were disbanded soldiers, settled at Glengarry, and other places above Montreal. It was not, however, until after the American revolutionary war that emigration to our colonies, of any great consequence, took place. From that period to the present time, notwithstanding the vast swarms that have continued annually to flock to the United States, not less than from eight to eighteen thousand settlers have arrived yearly in British America from England, Scotland, and Ireland, while their departure from the United Kingdom has scarcely been observed.

From the best authenticated accounts, the privations which the early colonists endured, and the hardships to which circumstances, connected with a wilderness country, subjected them, were severe in a degree of which those who now plant themselves in America have scarcely a conception. They had not only to suffer the miseries of hunger, and the want of almost every convenience to which they had been accustomed, but they could scarcely enjoy even that relief from toil which sleep usually affords, from the dread of being burnt in their habitations by the Indians, or of becoming victims to the murderous tomahawk or scalping knife of those savages.\*

\* Before the surrender of Louisburg, rewards were given by the French to the Indians for every English scalp they produced, in much the same way as premiums are at present paid by some of the

In the countries which now form British America, with the exception of Nova Scotia, the colonists were not so often doomed to experience the vengeance of the bloody spirit of the Indian tribes; yet the hardships they had to encounter and overcome in other shapes were almost incredible. The winters were either much more severe than at present, or the sufferings of the first settlers made them describe the frosts as more intense, the snows deeper, and the duration of cold longer.

The non-existence of roads, the want of boats, or even for some time of canoes, and the emigrants' entire ignorance of managing the latter, rendered it a business of great difficulty to pass from one part to another of a country covered with thick forests, and intersected with rivers, lakes, and branches of the ocean. The use of the axe also, or the art of chopping, is an acquirement quite indispensable in a wooded country, with which most new settlers are unacquainted. With this tool, a gun, one or two hoes, and a pot, an American back-woods-man will make his way through, or plant himself and family in the midst of, a most dreary forest, and secure, at the same time, the means of subsistence.

Innumerable, indeed, were the miseries which the emigrants had to reconcile themselves to for several

colonial governments for the snouts of bears, to encourage the destruction of those animals. The terrible ferocity of the savages was also most wickedly encouraged during the American war; and it was disgraceful to the British authorities at the time to encourage and reward such cruelties.—See article *Indians*.

years after the early settlements of our colonies ; and it certainly required in them more than ordinary resolution and fortitude to establish themselves, in defiance of not only real but imaginary difficulties.

Natural obstructions have in all countries been only removed by the industry and fearless intrepidity of man. Such formidable obstacles to settlement and cultivation as the New World at first presented, and which still characterise the remote districts, existed at one period in Britain, and in all the kingdoms of Europe ; and in the same progressive ratio as the settlement and cultivation of any wilderness country proceeds, do natural obstacles disappear : those, therefore, of the most disheartening character to men accustomed to plough the long cultivated lands of Britain and Ireland, are vanishing gradually in North America. Leading roads are opened through the different provinces ; by-roads lead to the settlements ; the communication between different places, by means of craft of various descriptions, is attended with but little inconvenience ; the necessaries, and even the luxuries of life, are to be obtained in abundance at moderate prices, and at no great distance from the most remote settlement.

Although the British possessions in America were, in some respects, naturally inferior to those of the other Europeans, yet the security of property, and liberal treatment on the part of government, advanced their prosperity on a more solid foundation.

The majority of the first settlers consisted of hardy yeomen, and men of education, rank, and enterprise,

who, in leaving England, forsook their homes, and those comforts that are only found in long settled countries, and also those attachments that are most dear to the human bosom. But these circumstances alone are not sufficient to do justice to their courage and magnanimity. The victories they obtained over all the complicated hardships that can assail the heart, and stagger the fortitude, of man, raised their character in the estimation of those who value facts, rather than military splendour, to a level with the bravest people recorded in history.

They carried with them to America resolute hearts and intelligent understandings, and that unconquerable spirit of perseverance which surmounts the numberless difficulties that await all great undertakings.

The success attending the actions of such men astonished Europe. Their industry and indefatigable activity ensured their prosperity; their improvements in all the useful arts did honour to their ingenuity; and it must not be forgotten, that, notwithstanding their peculiar circumstances, and the occupations they followed, from the first foundation of their settlements, they were particularly careful to provide for the education of their children.

Their position was favourable to commerce; and their natural turn and temper, ever aiming at new discoveries, and incessantly employed in the search of whatever might better their circumstances, carried them into every quarter from whence profit could be obtained. There was hardly a port or spot in the American hemisphere, in which business could be

transacted, where they were not to be found. Without living in European luxury, they secured all the substantial and comfortable enjoyments of life, with many of its elegancies and refinements.

They in reality became a rich and flourishing people; and if ever any country might have been considered the seat of human felicity, British North America, previously to the sad story of colonial oppression, must unquestionably have deserved the appellation.

England fostered and protected her colonies with parental solicitude, and only secured in return the exclusive right of their trade. Spain and Portugal not only claimed the commerce of their colonies, but, governing them with despotic tyranny, seized the greatest share of their riches for the benefit of the crown, or for the purpose of upholding the splendour of a church, whose terrible power, aided by the superstition of the age, kept the human mind in servile degradation, and the personal liberty of man under rigorous control.

Holland and France sold the commercial property of their colonies to trading companies; who, in order to make the most of their privileges, took all the advantages that the spirit of monopoly could devise. They not only fixed the value of the articles they sold to the colonists, but they also established the lowest prices for the produce of their lands, and prevented them from growing any more than could be disposed of at an unreasonable profit in Europe.

The British colonies did not experience such un-

gracious and illiberal treatment. Satisfied with the general profits of their commerce, England left it open to every individual in her dominions; and did not either confine it to particular ports, like Spain and Portugal, nor sell it, as France and Holland did, to a company of traders.

With the exceptions of the northern climes of Europe and the East Indies, the British colonists were permitted to trade with all parts, in a variety of articles. In all the American hemisphere, in Africa, along all the coasts of the Mediterranean, Portugal, and Spain, the vessels of British America enjoyed a lucrative commerce; and they had the amplest liberty of trading with the English West India islands. Rum, sugar, with the produce of their fisheries, they were allowed to carry to all the markets to which they traded; so that, although a number of articles were exclusively appropriated to an importation to Great Britain, yet there was enough left for the colonies, particularly when we consider that the countries they possessed gave them so much occupation at home.

England, on planting the American colonies, granted them the full privilege of governing themselves, and the right of forming such laws as the wisdom of their respective legislatures should consider necessary; and, in giving them such ample powers to provide for their interest and prosperity, only reserved the political connexion under the same sovereign, with the general benefit resulting to the empire from their trade.

In short, the conduct of Great Britain in her colonial management, from their first settlement to the year 1755, exhibits a lesson of wisdom to those powers who either possess, or who are disposed to plant colonies.

But after that period, those who wish for the partition of great empires, will learn useful instruction by studying the history of the measures that led to the independence of the United States.



## CHAPTER III.

Causes of Discontent in America—Restrictions on Trade—Prohibition of the Illicit Trade with Spanish America—Licentiousness of the *Guarda Costas*—Failure of Remittances for British Manufactures in consequence—Of Peace 1763—Measures which led to the Stamp Act—Complaints of the Colonists—Their extraordinary Proceedings—Resist the Tea Act, and throw overboard the Cargoes of the Company's Ships—Repeal of the Stamp Act—Conduct of the Ministry.

AMONG the first causes of discontent and complaint in the British colonies, were the restrictions which discouraged manufactures, by confining every province to the use of its own, and prohibiting the reciprocal importation of their respective fabrications. To prevent a whole people from following any branch of industry, is certainly a measure which human nature cannot bear with tame submission; and the severity of the regulation cannot be denied, even on the ground that the articles prohibited could be imported cheaper from England. The injury felt by the prohibition was not, at the time, of much consequence; but the regulation was in itself considered a kind of insult to the understanding, more intolerable than pecuniary oppression.

The discontent arising from this restriction would, in all probability, have passed away, had it not been succeeded by a deprivation of a most serious nature

to the colonies, and equally injurious to the interests of England.

For more than a century, a very lucrative branch of trade had been carried on between the British West Indies and the Spanish settlements in South America. For many years the North American colonies engrossed, also, a great share of this advantageous commerce. To the British, it was a pursuit of clear gain, and prodigious value. It consisted of an exchange of vast quantities of all kinds of British commodities for the precious metals, which were all remitted to England. The Spanish monarchy, sensible that the trade was ruinous to them, and that the immense advantages of it were on the side of Britain, stationed *guarda costas* to scour the coasts, and to seize every vessel that approached near them. The indiscriminate license with which they executed their orders, provoked the war of 1739, between Great Britain and Spain.

Although it was by no means the business of England to prevent this trade, yet a system was adopted, and pursued, as if a convention had been entered into for the purpose. The British cruizers, as if they had received their commissions and their pay from Spain, acted so effectually, that in a short period they completely destroyed the trade.

In the year 1755, these measures, with some others which restricted the importation of foreign goods, as formerly, free of duty, from Great Britain to North America, produced loud discontent, both in England and America.

The annihilation of the trade with Spanish America was, however, the most grievous. It was from it that the colonists drew the supplies of gold and silver, that enabled them to make such large remittances to England, and to provide a circulating specie for the internal use of the colonies. The prohibition of so profitable a commerce shook the vitals of American prosperity, and distressed the manufacturers and merchants of England. The servile complaisance of Great Britain to Spain, and the unwise policy of oppressing its own subjects to oblige foreigners, were complained of by the people of England, as well as by the Americans, but not listened to by ministers.

The peace of 1763 terminated a war which was both advantageous and glorious to Great Britain. The treaty of Paris, besides ceding to her several islands in the West Indies, and establishing her power in the East, gave her the sovereignty of the vast continent of America from the Mississippi to the Arctic Sea. The expense of the war, however, was immense, and severely felt in Britain. Resolutions were soon after taken by ministers to tax the colonies, in order to pay, in a direct and explicit manner, a share of the public burdens.

Their ability was not doubted, and it was considered equitable that they should contribute largely for the advantages they possessed. The colonies were however fully persuaded, whatever might be the necessities of the mother country, that, exclusive of the restrictions laid, during late years, on their commerce,

the sole enjoyment of their trade was a tax in itself more in proportion than all that were levied on the people of Britain.

The right of taxing them, without their being represented in the British Parliament, they denied, as resolutely as their ancestors did the payment of ship money to Charles I. ; while they claimed also the privilege of being represented, as their undoubted birthright.

Ministers expressed astonishment on hearing such language from the colonists, and charged them with ingratitude and disloyalty, and with being solicitous only to profit by the generosity of the mother country. The Americans repelled this unfounded charge with indignation. They gloried in calling Britain their mother country ; they never disgraced the title ; they always obeyed her just and lawful commands ; and they submitted to heavy burdens to ease her. During the last war, they raised twenty thousand men, and maintained them at their own expense ; and they fitted out the expedition that took Louisburg in 1745. Antecedent to which, they supplied the British expeditions, against Spanish America, with several thousands of their best men, and exerted themselves with equal bravery against the French in North America.

They assured the king in their petition, that, notwithstanding their sufferings, they retained too high a regard for the kingdom from which they derived their origin, to request any thing that might be inconsistent with its dignity or welfare. " These," said they, " related as we are to her, honour and duty,

as well as inclination, induce us to support and advance." "At the conclusion of the last war," they go on to observe, in one of their addresses to the king and people of Great Britain, "the Genius of England, and the spirit of wisdom, as if offended at the ungrateful treatment of her sons, withdrew from the British councils, and left the nation a prey to a race of ministers, with whom ancient English honesty and benevolence disdained to dwell." "They did not complain of Parliament, for it had done them no wrong, but solely of the measures of ministers."

The complaints of the colonists have always been acknowledged temperate and well founded, until the conduct of ministers convinced them that nothing but passive obedience to any measure of taxation, would be satisfactory.\* That they afterwards, at their countless popular assemblies, but more especially in their public prints, used language both violent and licentious, can neither be denied nor defended; and the outrageous conduct of the populace was not only unjustifiable, but often highly indecorous. Their bitter invectives against the British people, who long wished them success in *resisting* acts which were solely those of ministers, cannot easily be forgotten.

In all countries, however, we meet with frequent examples of such violent conduct among the populace, and in none more frequently than in England. It is, therefore, unjust to stigmatize a whole people, by

\* Note C.

charging them with what should only be considered the clamours of turbulent individuals.

The editors of their public prints were too often guilty of writing that which could only be intended to keep alive the passions of the vulgar and ignorant herd of the people ; and such language as filled the greater portions of the American newspapers, must certainly have disgusted such men as Washington and Franklin. Violent commotions always attend the measures that entirely change the constitution of a country ; but the excesses of the American populace resembled, throughout, the uproar of those who, with Oliver Cromwell, subverted the government of England ; and the colonists were altogether guiltless of such atrocities as disgraced the French Revolution.

In 1764, a bill was framed, laying heavy duties, payable into the British treasury, in specie, on all articles imported into the colonies from the French and other islands in the West Indies. Another act followed, restraining the currency of paper money. The injustice and absurdity of these laws excited fresh murmurs.

How could they pay duties in specie, when deprived of the means of obtaining it ? Then followed the famous Stamp Act, which was the prelude to the most tremendous and destructive quarrel which had befallen Britain in the course of ages. This act was styled, the " Folly of England, and ruin of America."

The colonists were now completely roused ; but they, at the same time, conducted their measures with great wisdom, perseverance, and resolution. They

united in a general opposition to the views of ministers, who disregarded their petitions and the statements of their agents; and although some acts favourable to the commerce of the colonies were passed, the people became suspicious, and placed no reliance on the good-will of the British ministers. Meetings were held, and resolutions were taken to make no farther importations from Great Britain; and they, at the same time, encouraged to the utmost their own manufactures. So far did they persevere in this object, that they laid aside the use of elegances, and even abstained from eating lamb, in order to increase the growth of wool.

In England, this measure excited the general indignation of the manufacturers against the ministry.

The suspension of the trade with America some time after, was followed by a resolution of the colonists not to allow the exportation of provisions; which was seriously injurious to our West India islands, and of severe consequence to the fisheries of Newfoundland.

The opposition to the Tea Act, and the resistance to the landing, and the throwing overboard, of the cargoes of the East India Company's ships, was another alarming proof of resolute determination on the part of the colonists. They then urged, that, until the Stamp Act was repealed, no remittances should be made to England, nor any suit for debt allowed on the part of a resident of Great Britain. It was also threatened that the exportation of tobacco should be stopped; which, if carried into effect, must have cut

off  
in  
re-  
7  
per  
of  
Bri  
effe  
7  
tax  
wit  
equ  
por  
But  
Par  
the  
Bri  
thei  
fam  
such  
colo  
tate  
Bri  
her  
all  
of  
defe  
was  
the  
ord  
opp

off the immense revenue derived from its consumption in Great Britain, and the vast benefits gained by its re-exportation to other parts of Europe.

The Americans, in fact, could not possibly have persevered in measures to render the ruling powers of England more obnoxious to the people of Great Britain, or to attract the attention of all Europe more effectually, than those they adopted.

The remonstrances made by the colonies against taxation, were listened to by the ruling powers only with anger and indignation; and ministers were equally chagrined and astonished to find that a great portion of the nation espoused the cause of America. But the ministry were proof against all opposition in Parliament, the remonstrances of the colonists, and the numerous petitions from the principal towns in Britain, and madly proceeded in the prosecution of their schemes, as if regardless of consequences. The fame and grandeur of Great Britain were, indeed, such at this period, that it was never imagined the colonies would presume to dispute any measure dictated by ministers. The splendid triumphs of the British nation in all parts of the world, had extended her power to such greatness as excited the jealousy of all Europe; and the idea of the colonies risking a trial of prowess with those armies and fleets which had defeated the combined strength of France and Spain, was considered presumptuous and visionary. It was, therefore, matter of astonishment to learn the extraordinary and resolute conduct of the Americans, in opposing the restrictions on their commerce, and the



operation of the Stamp Act. The British government were, however, struck with alarm at their behaviour, and determined to subdue them by force.

“The British colonies,” it was contended, “had advantages which those of no other nation ever had.” This was certainly true; and the liberality they had so long experienced, rendered the attempts at taxation, and the restrictions on their trade, the more obnoxious. Tithes and poor-rates were unknown; protection they always received; and they enjoyed another advantage which they could only derive from England. This was the constant course of credit given them, without which they never could have risen to that extraordinary opulence which excited the admiration of Europe. “Would they relinquish these solid advantages, by increasing the displeasure of England, and disclaiming the authority of the parent state, and stand against the consequent peril?” It was also considered, “that the people of America, unacquainted with the intrigues that agitated the courts of Europe, and ignorant of the secret designs that were lurking in the cabinets of ministers, were incompetent to the business of preventing or conquering difficulties, or shunning danger.” That no opinion could have been more egregiously wrong than this, was too truly exemplified in the talents of the great men who acted so conspicuous a part, during the revolutionary war, and in all their negotiations.

The C  
from  
lutio  
Plan  
of t

In  
Fran  
ratio  
the a  
they  
tiona  
erful  
could  
them

TI  
vince  
stubb  
enjoy  
retai  
autho  
of E  
supp  
Ame  
TI  
bers

## CHAPTER IV.

The Court of France intrigues with the Colonists to bring about a Separation from Great Britain—Character of the Colonists who conducted the Revolution—Remonstrances to the King and People of England—Conciliatory Plan of Earl Chatham—Mr Burke's Motion in Parliament—Independence of the United States, &c.

It was a fact well known, that from the time France lost Canada, secret intrigues were put in operation by that government, for the purpose of shaking the allegiance of the British American colonists. That they aided in effecting and carrying on the revolutionary war, is certain ; but other causes, more powerful than all the address and assistance of France could bring about, governed the colonies, and enabled them finally to establish their independence.

The inhabitants of the four New England provinces were principally the descendants of those stubborn republicans who fled from England to enjoy their own ideas of politics and religion. They retained the hatred of their ancestors to kingly authority, and the strongest aversion to the Church of England. These people were the life and prime support of that opposition, which did not abate until America was lost to Great Britain.

The inhabitants of the other colonies, though numbers of them were of foreign extraction, were more

moderate, but not less regardless of their privileges. Many of them, it is true, particularly the descendants of the felons sent from England, were men of a licentious, audacious spirit, which was not to be awed by the deference due to civil authority; but a great number also, especially in Virginia and Maryland, were men of respectable rank and character, hitherto of a loyal turn, and warmly attached to the mother country.

In fact, the colonies were chiefly peopled with spirited, intelligent, and enterprising individuals, of all denominations, who, at the peace of 1763, were flushed with uncommon prosperity in their commercial pursuits, and by the brilliancy of their military transactions.\* Their disposition prepared them for great undertakings; and it was difficult to limit their hopes and expectations. It must, at the same time, be remembered, that they used all the means that ingenuity, guided by interest, could suggest, in their remonstrances to the ruling powers, and in their petitions to the king and Parliament, before they assumed the language of defiance, or set up the standard of revolt.

But ministers disregarded their representations, and treated their petitions with disdain; and a reconciliation was only at last seriously attempted, when the colonists had gained such extraordinary advantages as ensured their independence.

The debates in both Houses of Parliament on the

\* Note D.

state of America, during the war, will probably never be excelled in splendid diction, powerful arguments, or persuasive eloquence. The language of the colonists, in their petitions to the king, in their appeals to the people of Britain, and in their speeches in Congress and in their separate assemblies, as well as in the pulpit orations of their preachers, was equally remarkable. They certainly did not, for a long time, wish for any thing more than a redress of grievances. The thoughts of independence were foreign to their feelings and their wishes.\* "Place us," said they, "in the same situation that we were in at the close of the last war, and our former harmony will be restored."

On the shutting up of the port of Boston, which they considered as a prelude to the destruction of the commerce of other towns they state, "we will endeavour, therefore, to live without trade, and recur for subsistence to the fertility of our soil, which will afford us all the necessaries and some of the conveniences of life."

One of their delegates to the Continental Congress, in a famous speech, urging the necessity of their taking up arms, which was repeated all over America, and published in Europe, exhibited a strong specimen of the animation and force which governed the resolutions of the colonists. "The great God," said he, "who is the searcher of all things, will witness for me, that I have spoken from the bottom and purity of my

\* Note E.

heart. It is an arduous consideration we are now upon; and surely we have considered it earnestly. I may think of every gentleman here as I know of myself. For seven years past this question has filled the day with anxious thoughts, and the night with care. The God to whom we appeal must judge us. If the grievances of which we complain did not come upon us unprovoked and unexpected, when our hearts were filled with respectful affection for our parent state, and with loyalty to our king, let slavery, the worst of human evils, be our portion. Nothing less than seven years of insulted complaints and reiterated wrongs could have shaken such rooted sentiments. Unhappily for us, submission and slavery are the same; and we have only the melancholy alternative left of resistance or of ruin.

“The last petition of the Congress to the king contained all that our unhappy situation could suggest. It represented our grievances, implored redress, and professed our readiness to contribute, for the general wants, to the utmost of our abilities, when constitutionally required.” After adverting to the unfortunate fate of that petition, and stating the necessity of taking up arms, he concluded in the following words:—“Our sufferings have been great—our endurance long; every effort of complaint and patience has been exhausted. Let us, therefore, consult only how we shall defend our liberties with dignity and success. Our parent state will then think us worthy of her, when she sees that, together with her liberty, we inherit her rigid resolution of main-

tail  
dre  
giv

the  
min  
the

alr

wo

hos

per

ver

the

tior

nat

ext

C

the

obj

vol

the

form

sequ

decl

jur

I

\*

try v

John

to be

taining it against all invaders. She calls us her children; let us, by the spiritedness of our behaviour, give her reason to pride herself in the relationship."

Every appeal and remonstrance being disregarded, the evil star of Britain gained the ascendancy, and ministers involved the country in a war that shook the vitals of both hemispheres.

The details of this eventful period, which has already filled many volumes, it is not the object of this work to dwell upon. From the commencement of hostilities to the peace which acknowledged the independence of the United States, the energy, perseverance, and wisdom of the republican leaders, and the strange mixture of obstinacy, weakness, vacillation, and folly of the British councils, which lost the nation the fairest portion of the empire, are equally extraordinary.\*

Of all the measures of ministers, the employing of the Indians during this unnatural war was the most objectionable, or at least the most unwise, and revolting to humanity. The atrocity and cruelty of the savages exasperated the colonists beyond any former sense of injury, and thousands flocked in consequence to the standard of the States, who now declared themselves free and independent, and abjured their allegiance to Great Britain.

It is the opinion of many, that the conciliatory plan

\* It would almost seem reasonable to conclude, that the ministry were governed by feelings similar to those expressed by Dr Johnson, when he said, "Sir, they are a race of convicts, and ought to be thankful for any thing we allow them short of hanging."

proposed by the Earl of Chatham would have saved America ; but the famous bill, which he framed for this great purpose, was overthrown by a formidable ministerial majority. They went even so far, in order to give it a most marked and decided rejection, as not to let it remain even on the table. This must have been a severe mortification to such a giant in legislation and government—a man whose abilities had raised the nation to such unexampled grandeur,—who had made such a splendid figure as a statesman,—who had directed the measures that wrested Louisburg and Quebec from France, and whose opinion and judgment had once been considered the oracle of the country.

The celebrated plan of Mr Burke, supported by his eloquent and sound arguments, together with the appeals of the people, were equally disregarded ; and New England, with all the southern states, effected their independence.

The revolutionary war in America produced men, or rather brought their great talents into action, who may justly be classed with the celebrated heroes and statesmen of ancient and modern times. They gave life and strength to the war ; directed the councils of the country with wisdom and firmness ; organized armies, and raised funds to support them ; planned a system of finance, and formed a constitution for the government of the people.

They received, it is true, assistance from France, and they were countenanced by thousands in every part of Europe. These circumstances may be readi-

accounted for. Liberty, although not generally understood, is so truly the just right of mankind, that even they who neither have enjoyed its blessings, nor even expect to possess them, still appreciate its value. The idea of public freedom also, is so gratifying to the human mind, that whoever takes up arms either to recover or defend it, is not only certain of the approbation of those who dare to declare their opinions, but also the secret good wishes of all those upon whom arbitrary power enjoins silence.

The assistance, however, afforded the Americans by France, was from far different motives. Any attempt to abridge the supremacy of an European government over her colonies, was any thing but agreeable to the ideas always entertained at the court of Versailles. On this occasion, their grand policy was to humble the power of Great Britain. The consequence, however mortifying to England, was disastrous and terrible to France ; and laid the train which exploded in all the horrors of the Revolution, and opened a theatre for the splendid victories, and finally the downfall of Napoleon.

The officers sent to America by France, carried back high revolutionary principles and feelings, which were ingrafted on the philosophy of Voltaire and the *Academy*. These materials soon unfolded themselves, by subverting the whole royal government and constitution, accompanied by outrages and calamities which shocked and disquieted all the nations of Europe and America.

England, on the contrary, was still in a glorious



and powerful condition. Her arms were triumphant in all parts of the world except on the continent of America; and although the treaty by which England acknowledged the independence of the United States, was at that time considered the termination of British grandeur, this prophecy has happily proved false. Great Britain, notwithstanding the unexampled expenses of two long wars, possessed greater resources than any power on earth; and the ministers who lost America, were supplanted in the royal councils by men of ability and spirit. England, it was true, had lost many of her American colonies, but she still retained others, probably the most important to her as a nation. An impartial and correct account of these, is the principal object of this work. I shall previously, however, in the following chapter, take a brief view of the condition of the United States.

Condit  
t

A  
Unit  
cons  
whic  
nions  
error

It  
indep  
natio  
trolle  
powe  
disse  
tutio  
ence

Th  
differ  
exist  
peopl  
who  
solid  
retica  
natio

## CHAPTER V.

Condition of the United States at the Peace of 1783—Washington—Constitution and Laws—Resources—Characteristics of the People, &c.

AT the general peace of 1783, the condition of the United States of America, and the durability of the constitution which they adopted, formed a subject which gave rise to a multiplicity of speculative opinions, most of which experience has since proved erroneous.

It was contended, that when the colonies became independent, they would lose the respect of foreign nations ; that when left to themselves, and not controlled by the mother-country, or awed by foreign powers, their energies would relax ; and that civil dissensions would divide them, and subvert a constitution, which, according to its form, and the experience of mankind in all ages, must inevitably fall.

The condition of America was, however, very different from all the republics that had previously existed, either in ancient or modern times. The people were generally intelligent ; and the great men who conducted their assemblies possessed abilities, solid rather than brilliant, practical rather than theoretical ; and they had the good sense and discrimination to adopt the constitution and laws of the most

free government on earth, as the groundwork of theirs : making a royal and hereditary chief magistrate, a nobility, and a national church, the exceptions of any consequence. Their immense territory, extending along a vast length of sea-coast, abounding with numerous harbours, rivers, woods, fisheries, minerals, rich soils, and almost every climate under heaven, placed all natural advantages in their immediate possession. They enjoyed, also, the benefit of all the knowledge and literature of England, without the labour of translating the language, or paying for the copyright of books ; and they had the first advantage of our discoveries in the arts, without restrictions as to the right of patents. They had, in short, the knowledge and experience of all ages and countries to guide them, without being shackled by hereditary rights or established usages.

With such extraordinary advantages, as no other people ever possessed, they were enabled to avoid most of the blunders committed by nations, whose constitutions grew up with them ; and they had, besides, the peculiar good fortune, at that period, of being governed by honest men.

Of these personages, the greatest was George Washington. He was appointed to the chief command of the army, solely on account of his personal merit and military abilities. He had served as an officer, in the former war against France, with much well-earned distinction. At the peace, he retired to his patrimonial estate, where he lived as a respectable private gentleman, endeared to all who knew him,

by  
talit  
of t  
talen  
whic  
elect  
disin  
utili  
in vi  
but  
disti  
judic  
his d  
were  
occas  
the a  
In  
as he  
reign  
a resp  
ed all  
he wi  
ment.  
ject, a  
“ I se  
gover  
wish  
high  
in pr  
public

by his amiable character, and unostentatious hospitality, until called on to take the supreme command of the army. During the war, his whole heart and talents were honourably devoted to the great charge which he undertook ; and, when he was afterwards elected President of the United States, his policy was disinterested, liberal, just, and moderate. Truth and utility were the great objects which he had always in view. The powers of his understanding were solid, but not brilliant ; and sound judgment was his best distinction. In his deliberations, neither passion, prejudice, partyspirit, nor interest, had any weight ; and his decisions, influenced by a good heart and wise head, were always sound and judicious. On many great occasions, which involved the fate of the country and the army, his judgment alone saved both.

In private life he appeared as amiable and good, as he was great and sublime in the exercise of sovereign power or military command. He was, besides, a respectable gentleman of the old school, and retained all the observances and dignity at his levees which he witnessed in early life under the British Government. Mr Jefferson once talked to him on this subject, and Washington replied with his usual candour, " I see we must one day or other come to a form of government approaching to that of England, and I wish to prepare the minds of the people for it." The high example of his own character, particularly in private life, certainly gave a different tone to public manners, from that which appeared during the

administrations of the presidents who succeeded him.\*

We must not, however, forget, that all his successors are considered to rank among good men, and some of them, particularly Mr Jefferson, as great men ; but it must, at the same time, be admitted, that they committed many egregious blunders in their commercial policy ; and that the last war with this country was not only rash, but impolitic and unprovoked.

It has been popular, and even fashionable, in Europe, to think lightly of the Americans. Both French and English travellers, influenced by early associations and customs, have seldom done justice either to the people or to the country. To form a just estimation of both, we must search into the great national resources of that vast region, and examine the intellectual and physical energies of the people ;—we must ask, what have the Americans done since they became an independent nation ? and not measure their capabilities, or stamp their character, by frivolous peculiarities of language, or habits that have differed from ours merely through the agency of local circumstances. These may afford materials to a strolling comedian to excite vulgar merriment ; but it is certainly unworthy the attention, and beneath the dignity of a respectable traveller, to fill his journals with the *cant* language and provincialisms of individuals whom he may accidentally meet with in a stage-coach

\* An exception appears in Mr Madison. He was at heart fond of grandeur, and the effect which splendour gives to a court.

or at an inn. No gentleman, who is commonly polite, will meet with any thing but kind hospitality and treatment in America ; and as to the peculiarities of their tongue, I need only observe, that I have never met with an American, however humble, whose language was not perfectly plain and intelligible to me ; while I can scarcely understand half of what the country people say, within a few miles of me, in Lancashire. It is also common to believe, that the Americans cherish a bitter hatred to the people of England. Many circumstances have certainly planted sentiments of dislike to England, or more properly to the government, pretty generally among the citizens of the United States ; but they are, notwithstanding, more kind to Englishmen individually, than to the people of any other country. I may also observe further, that there is much truth in a reply made to me by a member of the legislature of Maine, when conversing with him on this subject : “ Sir,” he said, “ if I were to punish men for abusing countries, I would first knock down the person who stigmatized my own, and immediately after, the one that abused yours ; and you may depend upon it, sir, that this feeling is more general among us than even we ourselves think.” The truth is, that their literature, their language, and even their history, except for the last sixty years, are all so purely English, that they cling unconsciously, by association and habits, more closely to England and Englishmen, than to any other country or people.

A fertile and principal excuse of any hatred felt by

the Americans against England, arises out of the writings of English travellers, many of whom, even by their own admission, received the most disinterested attentions and kindness from the people of America. These courtesies they have repaid, by publishing all the foibles they could discover; ridiculing the oratory of the public men; and speaking contemptuously of their government and institutions.

The democratic form of the American government arose, perhaps, as much from necessity, as from any predilection which the leading men of the time cherished for it. There was no one who could assume a claim to sovereign right, and the wealth of the country was too equally divided to give any one person an overwhelming share of power. Washington, Hancock, Franklin, Jefferson, Adams, indeed all the distinguished men and heroes of the revolution, were well aware of this circumstance, and they were all too honest and patriotic, to allow ambition, or the love of power, to interfere with the real interests of the nation.

The constitution and laws were, however, as nearly accommodated as possible to the former mode of administering the government.

The different States retained their respective representative governments, much the same as before the revolution, with the power of passing laws for their internal administration; but all the States were united under one general federal government.\* This

\* Note F.

head was divided into three estates or branches, consisting of the President, Senate, and House of Representatives.

The last consists now of 118 members, or about one for 40,000 inhabitants. They sit two years, when another general election takes place by universal suffrage. The State legislatures have no share, except by party influence, in the general elections. They, however, have each the privilege of sending a member to Congress, where he is entitled to sit and speak, but not to vote.

The Senate, again, is elected by the legislatures of the respective States; each sending two members, which now make forty-eight. The members of the Senate, which may be considered the aristocratic body, must be thirty years old; they sit for six years, but a third are changed every two years.

The president is elected by a body of distinct electors, chosen from within each State. These votes are sent under seal to Congress, who have the right of electing the president, if the candidate has not more than half the number of votes in his favour.

The powers of the president are very extensive. He has the supreme command of the military and naval forces; and, with the approbation of two-thirds of the Senate, the patronage of, and appointments to, all civil and military offices. He cannot give a negative to a law, but he can suspend its operations, until it be again presented to him, with the votes of two-thirds of both houses in its favour. He is elected for four years, and may then be re-elected.



The powers vested in the central government extend to all negotiations with foreign nations; maintaining and organizing the naval and military forces; the sole regulation of foreign trade; and all matters connected with the general revenue and finances.

The *Judiciary* of the United States, or the Supreme Court of Judicature, controls the whole government, so far as to have the power of declaring not only the legislative acts of any particular State, but even those of Congress, unconstitutional, and consequently invalid. For, the people of the republic having declared the constitution to be the supreme law of the land, it is, therefore, considered entitled to implicit and general acknowledgment throughout the Union.

The Supreme Court of the republic, in which a chief-justice and six associate justices preside, holds one annual term only at the seat of government; but the whole country is divided into seven great districts or circuits, in each of which two courts are held during the year; one of the assistant judges from the Supreme Court, and the particular justices of the districts, presiding.

The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court extends to all matters in law and equity arising within the Union; to the treaties, regulations, as well as general and particular laws of the republic; to questions affecting public ministers and consuls; to all cases of maritime or admiralty pleas; to controversies between one State and another, or the individuals of different States; to pleas between citizens and foreign subjects; and to all controversies where the United States are

generally interested. Each State having superior and inferior courts, appeals are made from these to the Supreme Federal Court, from which there is no appeal.

The Judges of the Supreme Court are appointed by the president, with the concurrence of the Senate, and hold their offices during good behaviour. In the several States the judges are appointed, in some by the governor, in others by the governor and council, and in the rest by the legislature.

Chancery Courts are established in some States; but in others the Supreme Courts are empowered with the jurisdiction to make decrees agreeable to Chancery practice.

The particular laws of the respective States, passed to answer local objects, frequently differ from those of neighbouring States, and create, in consequence, much confusion, which is not easily adjusted, except by the Supreme Court. The common law of England was adopted by the republic after the revolution; and although it has been much altered and modified since that period, it may still be considered the text-book of the American lawyer.

The people of the United States are accused of being litigious—they certainly are so; and the same charge applies with equal truth to the inhabitants of all British America. The reason is obvious. The people, inveigled by low attorneys, or excited by private jealousies or quarrels, fly to litigation on the most trivial occasions. Law is nominally cheap; and the dignity of the courts destroyed by admitting,

with little scruple, as an attorney or barrister, any one who has served a few years' apprenticeship to any enrolled attorney.

By this system, a mere amanuensis is placed on a par with gentlemen of extensive legal learning and experience. Next to the cheapness of ardent spirits, what is called "law," is the bane of all North America, applying with equal truth to the United States and the British colonies.

At the bar of the courts there is, however, much splendid talent. The Supreme Court, in particular, is the great school of oratory, in which most of their statesmen have been trained. There is, both in the United States and British America, a great superabundance of lawyers. One-third the number, which would probably include all those who have any pretensions to ability, would be quite sufficient for every legal and necessary purpose. By their having a fair share of business, the profession would be more generally respectable ; trifling cases would be rejected, and the country gradually purged of a ruinous system of litigation.

The fees of the lawyers are by no means high ; they are, on the contrary, rather low, even on the principle that "the labourer is worthy of his hire;" and this *cheap law* is itself a great evil, inasmuch as it encourages many to litigate that otherwise would not, and who do not take the value of their time into account.

The judges of all the courts are generally grave,

honest  
decisive

The  
men  
dispr  
In m  
ness  
the a  
for p  
coun

Th  
vided  
L.40  
dinner  
emin  
open  
fortn  
with

Th  
L. 10  
judge  
depar  
court  
How  
to liv  
officer  
ment

Th  
20,00  
is chi  
from

honest, and impartial men ; and their opinions and decisions are usually upright and just.

The salaries of those who administer the government, and preside in the courts, are generally thought disproportionate to their services and responsibility. In many cases they appear to be so, even to meanness ; but they seem, however, to do very well with the allowances granted them ; and the competition for public appointments is unequalled in any other country.

The president is far from being respectably provided for. His salary is only 25,000 dollars, about L.4000 sterling. He is expected out of this to give dinners twice a-week to the members of Congress, eminent foreigners, all public officers, and also to open a building, called the " Whitehouse," once a fortnight, to receive all classes, and often to associate with the lowest of the *profanum vulgus*.

The vice-president receives 5000 dollars, about L. 1000. The chief justice, about L.4000. Inferior judges, about L.1000. Other officers at the heads of departments, about L.1100. Ministers of foreign courts, about L.800 ; which last is certainly too little. How can they be properly respected, when compelled to live so meanly ? The Americans, however, pay the officers of their navy much better than our government does.

The general revenue of the United States is about 20,000,000 dollars, about L.4,000,000. This amount is chiefly derived from the customs, and very little from the sale of lands, as has been supposed ; the

expense of the last absorbing nearly the amount that lands sell for.

The public expenditure is, about 2,000,000 dollars to pay the whole civil list,—4,000,000 to maintain the military,—3,700,000 to support the naval establishments. Three millions dollars of the revenue go to pay the interest of the public debt, and the remaining seven millions are made a sinking fund of, to reduce the debt.

These sums, to conduct the affairs of so great a country, are astonishingly small; but we must not forget that each of the States have their separate and respective public departments, revenues, and expenditures, the maintaining of which altogether requires great sums.

The military force of America consists chiefly of the militia, which now amount to 800,000 men capable of bearing arms, who would, no doubt, defend their property and country with great bravery; but they would, from want of training and subordination, form a most awkward and unmanageable army. In skirmishing, or in small parties, however, the general use of firelocks makes them deadly marksmen. The government has lately established military schools; from which great improvement in the discipline and training of the militia is expected.

There is also a regular force of about 10,000 infantry. These men are by no means trained like European soldiers; and consist chiefly of the most worthless, indolent, and spiritless people in the country, who, being too lazy to cultivate the soil,

or w  
in th  
TH  
ent;  
be eq  
ships,  
and  
after  
despis  
They  
we ca  
them  
Th  
consis  
gun fr  
frigat  
others  
last w  
The  
vessel  
can be  
land.  
The  
much  
and m  
as a s  
all ma  
contro  
ment

or work among the farmers, enlist, for a subsistence, in the army.

The condition of the navy is, however, far different ; the regulation and discipline of which, can only be equalled by that of England. The beauty of their ships, distinguished for solid construction, excellent and convenient arrangements, have astonished us, after being accustomed to hear their *fir-built* vessels despised, and talked of with sneering contempt. They have as durable wood in their "live oak," as we can find in England, and let us beware of treating them with indifference.\*

The present naval power of the United States consists of twelve heavy ships of the line, one sixty gun frigate, twelve frigates of forty-four guns, three frigates of thirty guns, several smaller vessels, and others on the stocks. At the commencement of the last war, they had only seven frigates.

Their commercial ships are the most beautiful vessels in the world ; and in durability and number, can be equalled by no power on earth but by England.

There is no national church in the United States ; much is argued for and against this circumstance, and many regret the want of a church, countenanced, as a standard of faith, by the constitution ; but in all matters where the conscience of man should alone control his belief, we must admit, that the government of that country act wisely in not interfering

\* Note G.

with religious matters. There is, however, no want of religion, of churches, or of places of worship; although too great a portion of the preachers are raving enthusiasts, the heroes of camp-meetings, and the most prolific cause of nervous complaints among delicate women, whom they frighten into *hysteria*, by their unmerciful and unreasonable extravagances.

Unitarianism is the most prevailing denomination of Christians; then follow the Congregationalists, who have the service of the Church of England, cleared of the parts obnoxious to Puritans; Quakers, Catholics, Independents, Presbyterians, Baptists, Methodists, &c., indeed all Christian sects that we know of, are met with in the United States. Government recognise none; nor are any liable to political disabilities on the score of religion.

There is more general knowledge diffused among the people of the United States, than in any kingdom in Europe. Yet there is not among them the same proportion of men celebrated in literature and science, as in many other countries. The Americans are a young, active, and enterprising people. General knowledge, and a practical education, are absolutely necessary for them, in order to follow their adventurous pursuits; but they seldom have leisure to apply themselves to the tedious labours of literature and science. A few, however, have entered the avenues of literature, and the labyrinths of science and art, of whom America may most justly boast.

Franklin, Jefferson, West, Silliman, Irving, Cooper, Leslie, Martin, Turnbull, and some others, must

rank  
sopher  
The  
the U  
and th  
Th  
partic  
upwar  
throug  
a vast  
lar wo  
ported  
astonis  
public.  
The  
which  
(being  
Lake C  
been co  
advance  
volution  
conjectu  
height o  
its powe  
the Alle  
and no  
navigati  
known  
possesse

rank high in their respective departments, as philosophers, authors, and artists.

The colleges, and other seminaries of learning in the United States, are respectable and numerous; and the diffusion of knowledge extensive and liberal.\*

The Americans are certainly a reading people, particularly of ephemeral productions. There are upwards of eight hundred newspapers circulated throughout the United States, besides reviews, and a vast number of magazines. Nearly all the popular works published in this country, and some imported from France and Germany, are reprinted with astonishing celerity, and dispersed all over the republic.

The public works of the United States, among which we may notice Erie canal as the greatest, (being in length, with that branching from it to Lake Champlain, above four hundred miles,) have all been conducted with spirit; and from the rapid advances which the republic has made since the revolution, we are only the more deeply involved in conjecture, the more we enquire into the probable height of its splendour, before it reach the acme of its power and grandeur. Those vast regions beyond the Alleghany mountains, the most extensive, fertile, and most eminently blessed with a natural inland navigation, of any country in the world, were scarcely known before the revolution. That country now possesses a great population, and all the rudiments

\* Note H.



of a mighty empire. The population of the republic has already increased to twelve millions, or more. The city of New York, in 1790, had only 30,000, it has now more than 200,000. Philadelphia, and many other towns, have, since then, more than quadrupled the number of inhabitants.

The institutions of the republic, the state prisons in particular, are deserving of much attention; but that which distinguishes the Americans from most other people, is their restless spirit of enterprise. To every part of their own country where any gain can be acquired, and, in their ships, to every part of the habitable globe, do they resort. This character of them as a nation has been the great cause of their prosperity, both before and since the revolution; and according to all probability and experience, it will continue until their gigantic territory has a superabundant population, or until great individual wealth, and consequent luxury, produce the usual effects caused by indolence, voluptuousness, and degeneracy.

The cool indifference, but calculating determination, with which an American moves from the seaboard, or the Old States, to the back countries, where he can secure plenty of land for his children to settle around him, is remarkable. Nothing, however, is more common. A whole colony sometimes depart together; and, on arriving at the spot in the wilderness that answers their views, immediately commence the operations of cutting down the trees, and erecting houses; and a town, with its streets, and all the component parts of an American embryo settlement,

such  
mill,  
bank  
a few  
It  
Amer  
lence  
case,  
it. Y  
zens  
happy  
govern  
imagin  
of ver  
to este  
As  
people  
no tit  
ranks,  
of equ  
nation  
than th  
ditary  
and kn  
countri  
termed  
people  
talente  
the lea  
ments;  
chants

such as a meeting-house, blacksmith's forge, saw-mill, corn-mill, shops, and taverns, appear on the banks of a river, where a forest occupied the ground a few months before.

It is remarked by almost all travellers, that the Americans are perpetually boasting of the excellence of their constitution. This is certainly the case, and Englishmen do not like generally to hear it. Yet we boast of ours, and why not let the citizens of the United States, if they find themselves happy and blessed under their republican form of government, enjoy its full benefit, whether real or imaginary? At farthest, we can only make it a charge of very pardonable national vanity, which we ought to esteem rather than blame them for.

As to the state of society and the manners of the people of America, we must not, although there are no titles, believe that there is no distinction of ranks, and that the people live on a perfect footing of equality. There is, in fact, a more nice discrimination of classes created by the people themselves, than the lines of demarcation marked out by the hereditary titles of our English aristocracy. Wealth and knowledge, which, together, form power in all countries, constitute what, in a moral point, may be termed the aristocratic rights of America. These people consist of the respectable families of the talented men who figured in the revolutionary war; the leading men of Congress, and of public departments; gentlemen of the learned professions; merchants of education and property; and all others of

wealth and respectable talents. These people, all over the United States, naturally associate with each other, and as naturally avoid mixing with the next class, which consists of tradesmen, small shopkeepers, tavern-keepers, and others of much the same standing. These, again, shun those beneath them, as the *canaille* of society. Exceptions to this general observation are, however, not infrequent.

As to the manners of the Americans, no one can detail justly their characteristics. The materials are as heterogeneous as can be well imagined, but, at the same time, greatly modified by circumstances. In general, but especially in the New England States, the men are graver, and, as respects language and carriage, more decorous than in the United Kingdom. The Virginians have been compared to country squires in England. The American ladies are more formal than with us—this arises from an idea of propriety, and not from a natural coldness, as is often supposed. Assemblies and private parties are as frequent as with us. At the first, the ladies are certainly more reserved; and, although this arises from the fear of doing or saying any thing indecorous, or rather unfashionable, it deprives not only themselves, but the gentlemen, of the pleasurable chit-chat which we enjoy at our balls in this country. The large assemblies are certainly cold and formal enough, but their private parties are by no means so; and a stranger, after a little acquaintance, finds himself both easy and comfortable. Both ladies and gentlemen dress fashionably, somewhat between the English

and E  
in the  
beaut  
of ha  
their  
charm  
tenanc  
the ea  
cannot  
ficient  
tionate  
posses  
habits.  
men fo  
lences  
strange  
*enfant*

The  
left the  
ners w  
and by  
of Euro  
and ed  
material  
give a n  
The co  
tainly c  
feel safe  
not so i  
are nev  
their be

and French styles. Among the ladies, particularly in the Northern States, we observe some of the most beautiful women on earth, and as great a proportion of handsome women as in England; but they lose their bloom soon; and those which have the most charming complexions, and most fascinating countenances and graceful figures, become too frequently the early victims of consumption. An Englishman cannot for some time know the American ladies sufficiently well to appreciate justly their kind, affectionate, and amiable virtues. These they assuredly possess in a high degree; but being of more retired habits—which they may blame the American gentlemen for—"they often bloom unseen," and their excellences are only known to their friends, or to those strangers whose merit obtains them admittance, as *enfants de la maison*, with the family.

The United States, peopled at first by persons who left these kingdoms when the state of public manners was very different from what they now are, and by the adventurous of all classes from other parts of Europe, must retain much of their original habits and education. Time alone will amalgamate these materials, and create a standard which will eventually give a more marked tone to public and private society. The country people of America are blunt, but certainly civil, although often accused of rudeness. I feel safe in considering them not so rude, and certainly not so ignorant, as the peasantry of England. They are never obsequious, it is true, and this arises from their being usually independent in their circumstances.

They are, in short, neither polite nor rude, but always civil, unless we assume an authoritative tone. If we do, as some Englishmen are accustomed to through habit, without meaning any assumption, the Americans will, certainly, neither comply with our requests, nor reply to us in any thing like gentleness of spirit.

The impertinent curiosity with which the people of America are branded, must be considered only applicable to the lower classes in the remote settlements.

In the large towns, the hotels are splendid, and the attendance good, but the waiters are far from being as polite or obsequious as in England. This is certainly a drawback on our ideas of comfort, as we, in this country, consider a hotel, or an inn on the road, much in the same light, for the time being, as we do our own house, and the waiters as our servants. At the inns also on the road in America, we have not much attention shown us as travellers, but we generally find abundance of good things to eat and drink.

Many people object to the table d'hôte, which is customary at all the hotels in the United States and British America; but I have always found them very agreeable, and I consider them the very best places for travellers to dine at.

The residents who dine at these tables, always rise, and fly to their business, immediately after dinner; but there are generally intelligent strangers who remain, whose conversation is agreeable, and from whom much information may be obtained. It is also very wrong to say, as some writers have, that "a guest

cannot  
for it  
d'hôte  
only in  
but he  
and di  
higher  
of leav  
consider  
no add  
respect  
carriage  
as ours  
the spl  
are far

The  
entertain  
some vi  
tive ena  
of the  
have be  
best act  
some na

Balls  
to the f  
are othe  
ever, pe  
interest

They  
which,

cannot have a collation, ever so slight, when he wishes for it, but must wait the regular hour of the table d'hôte." A gentleman at any of the hotels may not only have any thing to eat and drink when he wishes, but he may, if he chooses, have a room to himself, and dine when he pleases, though, certainly, by paying higher. It is seldom, however, that any one thinks of leaving the table d'hôte; and doing so would be considered an affectation of greatness, that would gain no additional attendance from the servants, nor any respect from others. The public post and other carriages in America, are by no means so comfortable as ours, but the inland navigation of the country, and the splendid accommodations of their steam-vessels, are far superior to any thing of the kind in Europe.

The public amusements are principally theatrical entertainments, which were at last established, after some violent struggles to repeal the absurd legislative enactment that prohibited them. The managers of the principal theatres, and the public patronage, have been sufficiently liberal to induce many of our best actors to visit that country; and they have also some native actors of very fair talents.

Balls, pic-nic parties, water excursions, resorting to the fashionable springs of Saratoga and Balston, are other sources of pleasure. Horse-racing is, however, perhaps the amusement that excites the greatest interest all over the United States.

They have also some barbarous diversions, one of which, "Gander-pulling," is considered peculiar to

them; but it was long ago a vulgar amusement in England and Scotland.

In the remote countries, and among the raftsmen and lumberers, drinking, fighting, swearing, and gambling, are common vices. The brutal operation of gouging is not, at least at present, often known, although some travellers have most falsely stated, that every fifth man in Kentucky was deprived of an eye in consequence.

It is rather surprising that, in a republic like America, duels should be more frequent than in Europe; but such most certainly is the case.

Among the blemishes which blot the constitution, and affect the national character of the Americans, the frequency of elections is the most prominent. Every second year, the whole country is agitated with politics and the intrigues of party. The indecent licentiousness of the press, in particular, seems to have no bounds; and their newspapers are at these periods truly disgusting. A fair representation is a great blessing, and a mighty bulwark to uphold the liberty of a nation; but the evils of unlimited universal suffrage are pregnant with formidable dangers to the constitution of the United States. Slavery may be considered another evil which may lead to the subversion of the government; but in this case, the only remedy must be gradual emancipation. No measure could be more cruel to the negroes themselves than granting them immediate liberty. It would, in fact, be depriving them of subsistence, by

cast  
prov  
A  
of th  
to sa  
tion  
pass  
gove  
T  
man  
indu  
the e  
laid  
Ame  
their  
Nort  
in the  
sure  
It  
natur  
and t  
libera  
the re  
now

casting them loose, without the capacity or means to provide the primary necessities of life.

As to the constitution itself, or the administration of the government, it would be presumptuous indeed to say that either were faultless, even if the constitution and laws were in themselves perfect, while the passions of men, in republican as well as monarchical governments, influence their public conduct.

The impolicy of the late tariff, intended to force manufactures at the expense of all other branches of industry, is a blunder only equalled in this age by the embargo which the federal government formerly laid on the exportation of the fruits of the soil. The Americans complain of our government prohibiting their intercourse with the West Indies, and our North American colonies; but their own illiberality, in the burdens imposed on our ships, led to this measure in the British councils.

It is, however, the interest, and ought to be the natural desire, of both countries, that Great Britain and the United States should regard each other with liberal and amicable feelings, free from jealousy, or the recollections of former aggravations, which should now be forgotten as mere family quarrels.



## NOTES TO BOOK I.

## NOTE A, page 8.

OF all those that planted colonies, the fame of William Penn shines the brightest, whether we view him as negotiating with the Indians, or giving a constitution to Pennsylvania. On the latter occasion he says—"Whatever be the form of a government, the people always are free when they share in the legislative power, and are governed only by the laws."

It is alleged against him, that the value of what he gave to the Indians was trifling in proportion to the vast territory he received from them. This may be true, but it must not be forgotten, that the bargain was fair and amicably entered into; that the use of those articles given by Penn to the Indians, was to them of immense importance; that the lands, on the other hand, were of no value to them but for hunting grounds; and that a large tract of country was thus obtained with the free consent and good-will of the original possessors. His conciliatory treaties with the Indians, and the measures he adopted to secure their confidence, were so satisfactory to them, that they never have "lifted the tomahawk against the race of William Penn."

Mr Duncan found a paper in the United States, containing what was said to be Penn's treaty. It stated, "that for all the land between the two rivers, as far as a man could ride in two days with a horse," Penn was to give the Indians "20 guns, 20 fathoms matchcoal, 20 fathoms stroudwater, 20 blankets, 20 kettles, 20 pounds powder, 100 bars lead, 40 tomahawks, 100 knives, 40 pairs stockings, 1 barrel beer, 20 pounds red lead, 100 fathoms wampum,

30 g  
pipe  
30  
skep  
100  
100

T  
huma  
land.  
wors  
impr  
banis  
So  
on M  
wear  
script  
procla  
decla  
the fa  
hair g  
perso  
introd  
of Go  
for an  
We, t  
do de  
zealon  
exert  
care t  
A  
Bosto  
held n  
the w  
expect

30 glass bottles, 30 pewter spoons, 100 awl blades, 300 tobacco pipes, 100 pounds tobacco, 20 tobacco tongs, 20 steels, 300 flints, 30 pairs scissars, 30 combs, 60 looking-glasses, 200 needles, 1 skepple salt, 30 pounds sugar, 5 gallons molasses, 20 tobacco boxes, 100 Jew's harps, 20 hoes, 30 gimblets, 30 wooden screw-boxes, 100 strings of beads."

## NOTE B, page 9.

THE extravagances into which fanaticism will lead or drive the human passions, were never more conspicuous than in New England. The laws of this colony punished witchcraft, blasphemy, worshipping of images, &c., with death. The Quakers were first imprisoned, then most cruelly and severely whipped, and afterwards banished.

So far did those fanatical Puritans, men who would "hang a cat on Monday, for killing a mouse on Sunday," go, that for men to wear their hair long was considered not only indecent and anti-scriptural, but a most offensive abomination to the Deity. A proclamation exists among the records of Massachusetts, which declares, that "We, the magistrates, in our zeal for the purity of the faith, expressly condemn the impious custom of letting the hair grow, as indecent, *dishonest*, and horrible to sober-minded persons, inasmuch as it corrupts good manners, and as a custom introduced into England by the Papists, in *sacrilegious* contempt of God, who declares in his holy word, that it is a shameful practice for any man, who has the least care for his soul, to wear long hair. We, therefore, being justly incensed against this scandalous custom, do desire, advise, and earnestly request, all elders of our continent, zealously to show their aversion from this odious practice, and to exert their utmost powers to put a stop to it, and especially to take care that the members of their church be not infected with it."

A Mrs Hutchison, the heroine of the female fanatical society of Boston, and at whose house meetings for theological disputes were held nightly, declared in her preachings that a "*radical change*" in the worship of God was absolutely necessary before the colony could expect the smallest blessing, or the least favour, from the Deity.

She maintained, that the doctrine of good works was rather an impediment, than necessary to obtain salvation; and that "the covenant of works is a mere broken reed, which is useless and dangerous, and must be expelled by the impression of the Spirit." These were the darling themes of this fair Antinomian.

Her enemies hatched a story against her which travelled rapidly over the country, and which enabled them to expel her from the colony. It asserted, that she had at one birth brought forth thirty monsters, answering in hideousness and number to the abominable errors she had promulgated.

She was accordingly banished to Rhode Island. This unfortunate woman, driven from her house during an inclement season, miscarried, and suffered great misery on the occasion. The pressure of poverty or ill treatment drove her afterwards to a Dutch settlement in the state of New York, where she was, with all her family, butchered by the Indians.

During this religious calamity, the ladies were pretty anxious to establish the right of absolute rule in theological discussions. The wives, in fact, influenced their husbands, and the young women their lovers, so completely, that they generally maintained the chain they arrogated.

The excesses which the belief in witchcraft produced were, if possible, still more extraordinary. This horrible superstition first appeared in the house of a minister at Salem. He had two daughters, who, after the ages of twelve years, were afflicted with hysterical convulsions. The father thought them bewitched; and, fixing his suspicions on an Indian woman, who lived in the house, by the severest whipping he extorted from her the confession of being a witch.

This poor savage was accordingly hanged, and her body exposed to birds of prey. Other women, seduced by the pride of exciting public attention, immediately brought themselves to believe that *hysteria*, which proceeded only from the nature of their sex, was owing to the influence of infernal agency. Three persons were consequently suspected by them of sorcery, and most speedily imprisoned, condemned, hanged, and their bodies, agreeably to the law of the colony, exposed to wild beasts and birds of prey. Fifteen

or s  
them  
Th  
infat  
sions  
due t  
itself  
amon  
Ch  
denuc  
cent  
aged  
the pu  
guilty  
howev  
religio  
of foll  
and by  
in sho  
ceased  
for the  
sensibl  
genera

AT  
offered  
bution  
years,  
mothe  
parts o  
to the  
posaf  
and dr  
to the  
also J

or sixteen others, with the lawyer who refused to plead against them, were hanged a few days after.

There was, in short, no possible security for a time against the infatuated suspicions of persons influenced by wild visionary delusions. The innocence of youth, the infirmities of, and the respect due to age, the most dignified employments, virgin modesty, virtue itself, afforded no protection against the mad bigots who figure among the annals of Massachusetts.

Children of ten years of age were put to death. Girls were denuded, and the signs of witchcraft searched for with most indecent curiosity. Spots, which appear as the effect of scurvy on aged men, were considered undeniable signs of infernal power. If the public functionaries refused to punish, they were consequently guilty of the infernal crime of *soꝛcery*. The most active accusers, however lamentable the circumstance, were the very ministers of religion. Dreams, apparitions, and fear, increased these prodigies of folly and wickedness. Fanaticism seized its victims at pleasure, and by the most cruel tortures extorted confessions. The colony, in short, was likely to be destroyed, when this terrible malady ceased, almost suddenly, and the consequent remorse and repentance for the wicked and horrible crimes of which the people were now sensible of having been guilty, were manifested by a solemn and general fast.

NOTE C, page 22.

AT the beginning of the troubles of 1775, the united colonies offered to maintain their own civil list, and to give a clear contribution of one hundred thousand pounds per annum for one hundred years, in aid of a sinking fund to pay the national debt of the mother country, with a proviso only of being treated like the other parts of the empire. The contumelious treatment, however, shown to the colonial agents by the ministry, prevented this liberal proposal from being formally made. The state papers, still on record, and drawn by Congress, is distinctly expressive of their sentiment to the above effect.—Franklin's *Miscellaneous Pieces*, p. 257. See also Jefferson's *Correspondence*.

## NOTE D, page 28.

THERE existed among the first circles in America, at the period immediately before the revolutionary war, a fashionable grandeur in the state of society and manners, which the revolution has certainly extinguished. The manners of the present day, it is true, are very different, both in America and Europe, from those which prevailed sixty years ago. In both hemispheres there is less dignity, but more brilliancy, than formerly; yet the splendour of the "mischianza," or fête, which was prepared and conducted with such extraordinary magnificence at Philadelphia, on the departure of General Howe, and part of the British army and fleet, would certainly dazzle and astonish us, even at the present period.

The following account of it, which was first, and yet only, printed in the Colonial Herald, at Halifax, Nova Scotia, may be considered a "curiosity." I copy it, with the editor's introductory remarks:

"As our summer amusements are approaching, it may not be uninteresting to our readers to glance over the details of the most splendid spectacle that has ever been exhibited in any of the British colonies on this continent, and which are given with great apparent accuracy in the following letter, written to a friend in England, by a person connected with the army under General Howe. It has never before appeared in print, and we publish it as a curiosity. It would have given us more pride had the letter borne evidence of the watchfulness, hardihood, and prudence of the officers who commanded the British forces during that momentous period, had it shown the correctness of their acquaintance with the people, and the country against which they were to act, instead of exhibiting a scene of mere parade and extravagance, however splendid and imposing. The general to whom the fête was given, was perhaps as brave a man as ever went into the field, and certainly beat the enemy on almost every occasion in which he met them; but he was rash and dissipated, and rashness and dissipation were unfortunately but too general among our forces during the whole of the American war, and often rendered of little avail the valour which would have been resistless, if tempered with prudence and discretion.

*“ Philadelphia, May 23, 1778.*

“ That our sentiments might be the more universally known, it was resolved amongst us, that we should give General Howe as splendid an entertainment as the shortness of the time and our situation would allow us. For the expenses the whole army would have most cheerfully contributed; but it was requisite to draw a line somewhere, and twenty-two field-officers joined in a subscription adequate to the plan they meant to adopt. I know your curiosity will be raised on this occasion, and I shall therefore give you as particular an account of our ‘*mischianza*’ as I have been able to collect. From the name, you will observe it was made up of a variety of entertainments; four of the gentlemen subscribers were appointed managers,—Sir John Wrottesley, Colonel O’Hara, Major Gardiner, and Montrossoff, the chief engineer. On the tickets of admission, which they gave for Monday 18th, was engraved in a shield a view of the sea, and on a wreath the words, ‘*Luce discedens, aucto splendore resurgam.*’ At top was the general’s crest, with ‘*Vive vale!*’ All round the shield ran a vignette; and various military trophies filled up the ground. A grand regatta began the entertainment. It consisted of three divisions; the first was the Ferret galley, having on board several general-officers, and a number of ladies. In the centre was the Hussar galley, with Sir William and Lord Howe, Sir Henry Clinton, the officers of their suite, and some ladies. The Cornwallis galley brought up the rear, having on board General Knypphausen and his suite, three British generals, and a party of ladies. On each quarter of the galleys, and forming their division, were five boats lined with green cloth, and filled with ladies and gentlemen. In front of the whole were three boats, with a band of music in each; six barges rowed about each flank, to keep off the warms of boats that covered the river from side to side. The galleys were dressed out in a variety of colours and streamers, and in each boat was displayed the flag of its own division. In the stream, opposite the centre of the city, the Fanny man-of-war, magnificently decorated, was placed at anchor, and at some distance a-head lay his majesty’s ship Roebuck, with the admiral’s flag at the fore-topmast head. The transport ships, extending in a line the whole length of the town, appeared with colours flying, and crowded with spectators, as were also the open-

ings of the several streets on the shores, exhibiting the most picturesque and enlivening scenes the eye could desire.

“The rendezvous was at Knight’s wharf, at the northern extremity of the city. By half after four, the whole company were embarked; and the signal being made by the Vigilant’s manning ship, the three divisions rowed slowly down, preserving their proper intervals, and keeping time to the music that led the fleet. On arriving between the Fanny and the Market wharf, a signal was made from one of the boats a-head, and the whole lay upon their oars, while the music played ‘God Save the King,’ and then three cheers given from the vessels, were returned by the multitude on shore.

“By this time, the flood-tide became too rapid for the galleys to advance; they were, therefore, quitted, and the company disposed of in the different barges. This alteration broke in upon the order of procession, but it was necessary to give sufficient time for displaying the entertainment that was prepared on shore. The landing-place was at the old fort, a little to the south of the town, fronting the building prepared for the reception of the company, about a hundred yards from the water, by a gentle ascent.

“As soon as the general’s barge was seen to push for the shore, a salute of seventeen guns was fired from the Roebuck, and, after some interval, the same number from the Vigilant. The company, as they disembarked, arranged themselves into a line of procession, and advanced through an avenue formed by two lines of grenadiers, and a line of light horse supporting each file. This avenue led to a square lawn of 150 yards on each side, lined with troops, and properly prepared for the exhibition of tilt and tournament, according to the customs and ordinances of ancient chivalry. We proceeded through the centre of the square; the music, consisting of all the bands of the army, moved in front; the managers, with favours of blue and white ribands in their breasts, followed next in order. The general, admiral, &c., and the rest of the company, succeeded promiscuously.

“In front appeared the building, bounding the view through a vista formed by two triumphal arches erected at proper intervals, in a line with the landing-place. Two pavilions, with rows of benches rising one above another, and serving as the advanced wings of the

first to  
ranged  
seat of  
ladies  
their  
several  
arrange  
heard a  
of whit  
soned in  
by their  
order:—

“Four  
small pe  
tunic wa  
motto, ‘

“Lor  
as chief  
drawers  
their nec  
his stirr  
Captain  
other his  
motto, ‘  
Miss Au

“Then  
his squire

“First  
White. S

‘Lore an

“Seco  
Squire, L

‘Without

“Thir

André,) i  
device, tw

“Four

VOL.

first triumphal arch, received the ladies; while the gentlemen ranged themselves in convenient order on each side. On the front seat of each pavilion were placed seven of the principal young ladies of the country, dressed in Turkish habits, and wearing in their turbans the favours with which they meant to reward the several knights who were to contend in their honour. These arrangements were scarce made, when the sound of trumpets was heard at a distance, and a band of knights, dressed in ancient habits of white and red silk, and mounted on grey horses, richly caparisoned in trappings of the same colours, entered the lists, attended by their esquires on foot, in suitable apparel, in the following order:—

“Four trumpeters, properly habited, their trumpets decorated with small pendant banners. A herald in his robes of ceremony; on his tunic was the device of his band, two roses intertwined, with the motto, ‘We droop when separated.’

“Lord Cathcart, superbly mounted on a managed horse, appeared as chief of these knights; two young black slaves, with sashes and drawers of blue and white silk, wearing large silver clasps round their necks and arms, and their breasts and shoulders bare, held his stirrups. On his right, walked Captain Hazard, on his left, Captain Brownlow, his two esquires; one bearing his lance, the other his shield. His device was, Cupid riding on a lion, with the motto, ‘Surmounted by love.’ His lordship appeared in honour of Miss Auchmutty.

“Then came, in order, the knights of his band, each attended by his squire, bearing his lance and shield.

“First knight, honourable Captain Cathcart, in honour of Miss N. White. Squire, Captain Peters; device, a heart and sword; motto, ‘Love and Honour.’

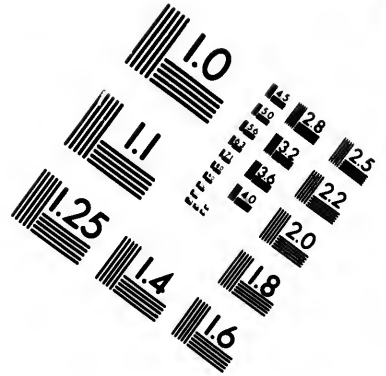
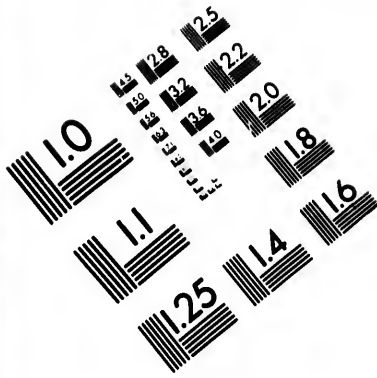
“Second knight, Lieutenant Bygrove, in honour of Miss Craig. Squire, Lieutenant Nichols; device, Cupid tracing a circle; motto, ‘Without end.’

“Third knight, Captain André, (afterwards the unfortunate Major André,) in honour of Miss D. Chew. Squire, Lieutenant Andrew; device, two game-cocks fighting; motto, ‘No rival.’

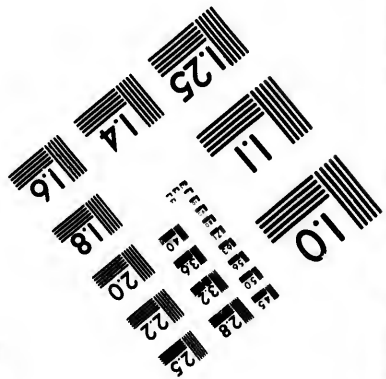
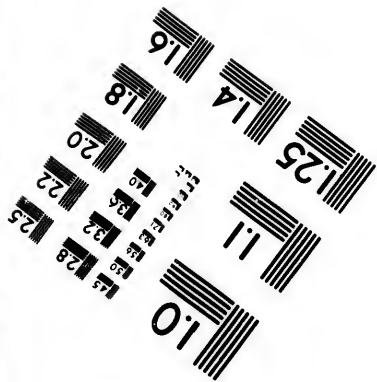
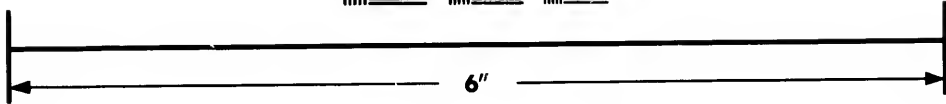
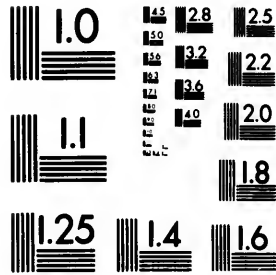
“Fourth knight, Captain Horneck, in honour of Miss N. Redman.







**IMAGE EVALUATION  
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic  
Sciences  
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET  
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580  
(716) 872-4503

1.8  
2.0  
2.2  
2.5  
2.8  
3.2  
3.6  
4.0  
4.5  
5.0

1.0  
1.1  
1.2  
1.5  
1.8  
2.0

Squire, Lieutenant Talbot; device, a burning heart; motto, 'Absence cannot extinguish.'

"Fifth knight, Captain Mathews, in honour of Miss Bond. Squire, Lieutenant Hamilton; device, a winged heart; motto, 'Each Fair by Turn.'

"Sixth knight, Lieutenant Sloper, in honour of Miss S. Shepen. Squire, Lieutenant Brown; device, a heart and sword; motto, 'Honour and the Fair.'

"After they had made the circuit of the square, and saluted the ladies as they passed before the pavilion, they ranged themselves in a line with that in which were the ladies of their device; and their herald advancing into the centre of the square, after a flourish of trumpets, proclaimed the following challenge:—'The Knights of the Blended Rose, by me, their herald, proclaim and assert, that the ladies of the Blended Rose excel in wit, beauty, and every accomplishment, those of the whole world; and should any knight, or knights, be so hardy as to dispute or deny it, they are ready to enter the lists with them, and maintain their assertions by deeds of arms, according to the laws of ancient chivalry.' At the third repetition of the challenge, the sound of trumpets was heard from the opposite side of the square; and another herald, with four trumpeters dressed in black and orange, galloped into the lists. He was met by the herald of the Blended Rose; and, after a short parley, they both advanced in front of the pavilions, when the black herald ordered his trumpets to sound, and then proclaimed defiance to the challenge in the following words:—'The Knights of the Burning Mountains present themselves here, not to contest by words, but to disprove by deeds, the vainglorious assertions of the Knights of the Blended Rose, and enter these lists to maintain that the ladies of the Burning Mountains are not excelled in beauty, virtue, or accomplishments, by any in the universe.'

"He then returned to the port of the barrier through which he had entered; and shortly after the Black Knights, attended by their squires, rode into the lists in the following order:—Four trumpeters preceding the herald, on whose tunic was represented a mountain sending forth flames, motto, 'I burn for ever.' Captain Watson of the Guards, as chief, dressed in a magnificent suit of black and orange silk, and mounted on a black managed horse, with trappings

of the  
and a  
with a  
the sa  
Lord  
obeisa  
and th  
of the  
then r  
their a  
gracefu  
and, e  
second  
fourth,  
spurrin  
bat, till  
them,  
and Bu  
love, an  
knights  
their m  
bat. C  
their re  
filed off  
passing  
alternat  
they ga  
" A  
knights,  
the first  
This are  
fronts in  
naval tr  
trident  
with a d  
" Th  
wing, an  
et alma

of the colours of his own dress, appeared in honour of Miss Franks, and attended in the same manner as Lord Cathcart ; device, a heart, with a wreath of flowers ; motto, ' Love and Glory.' Six knights in the same order, with appropriate devices and mottoes, as those of Lord Cathcart. After they rode round the lists and made their obeisance to the ladies, they drew up opposite the White Knights ; and the chief of these having thrown down his gauntlet, the Chief of the Black Knights directed his squire to take it up. The knights then received their lances from their squires, fixed their shields on their arms, and making a general salute to each other, by a very graceful movement of their lances, turned round to take their career, and, encountering in full gallop, shivered their spears. In the second and third encounter they discharged their pistols. In the fourth, they fought with their swords. At length, the two chiefs, spurring forward into the centre, engaged furiously in single combat, till the marshal of the field (Major Gwynne) rushed in between them, and declared that the fair damsels of the Blended Rose and Burning Mountains were perfectly satisfied with the proofs of love, and the signal feats of valour, given by their respective knights ; and commanded them, as they prized the future favours of their mistresses, that they would instantly desist from further combat. Obedience being paid by the chiefs to this order, they joined their respective bands. The White Knights and their attendants filed off to the left : the Black Knights to the right. And, after passing each other at the lower side of the quadrangle, moved up alternately, till they approached the pavilions of the ladies, when they gave a general salute.

" A passage being now opened between the two pavilions, the knights, preceded by their squires and bands of music, rode through the first triumphal arch, and arranged themselves to the right and left. This arch was erected in honour of Lord Howe. It presented two fronts in the Tuscan order ; the pediment was adorned with various naval trophies, and at the top was the figure of Neptune, with a trident in his right hand ; in a niche on each side, stood a sailor with a drawn cutlass.

" Three plumes of feathers were placed on the summit of each wing, and in the entablature was this inscription, ' Laus illi debetur et alma gratia major.' The intervals between the two arches was an

avenue of 300 feet long, and 34 broad. It was lined at each side with a file of troops; and the colours of all the army, planted at proper distances, had a beautiful effect in diversifying the scene. Between these colours the knights and squires took their stations. The bands played several pieces of martial music, while the company moved forward in procession, with the ladies dressed in Turkish habits in front. As they passed, they were saluted by their knights, who then dismounted and joined them. In this order, we were all conducted into a garden that fronted the house, through the second triumphal arch dedicated to the general. This arch was also built in the Tuscan order.

“On the interior of the pediment was planted a plume of feathers, and various military trophies. At the top stood the figure of Fame, and in the entablature this device,—‘I, bone, quo virtus tua te vocet, I pede fausto.’ On the right hand was placed a bomb-shell, on the left a flaming heart. The front next was adorned with preparations for a firework.

From the garden we ascended a flight of steps, covered with carpets, which led into a spacious hall, the panels of which were painted in imitation of Sienna marble, enclosing festoons of white marble, with the surbase and all below black. In this hall, and in the adjoining apartments, were prepared tea, lemonade, and other cooling liquors, to which the company seated themselves; during which time the knights came in, and, kneeling, received their favours from their respective ladies.

“One of these rooms was afterwards appropriated for the use of the pharoh table. As you entered it, you saw, on a panel over the chimney, a cornucopia exuberantly filled with flowers of the richest colours. Over the door as you went out, another presented itself, shrunk, reversed, and emptied. From these apartments we were conducted to a ball-room, decorated in a light, elegant style of painting. The ground was a pale blue, panelled with a small gold bead; the interior filled with dropping festoons of flowers in natural colours. Below the surbase, the ground was of rose-pink, with drapery festooned in blue. These decorations were decorated with eighty-five mirrors, decked with rose-pink silk ribands, and artificial flowers; and in the intermediate spaces were thirty-four branches with wax-lights, ornamented in a similar manner.

On t  
refres  
the b  
“  
danc  
open,  
Thes  
and c  
direct  
beaut  
arch v  
bursti  
variety  
wings,  
appear  
ing th  
immor  
conclu

“A  
doors,  
discov  
with th  
ceiling  
a light  
bright,  
orname  
hundred  
manner  
lights,  
Three  
were 4  
Orienta  
lines, b  
the sal  
blage o  
ascent,

“To  
his hab

On the same floor, were four drawing-rooms, with side-boards of refreshments, decorated and lighted in the same style and taste as the ball-room.

“ The ball was opened by the knights and their ladies ; and the dances continued till ten o'clock, when the windows were thrown open, and a magnificent boquet of rockets began the fireworks. These were planned by Captain Montessor, the chief engineer, and consisted of twenty different exhibitions, displayed under his direction, with the happiest success, and in the highest style of beauty. Towards the conclusion, the interior part of the triumphal arch was illuminated amidst an uninterrupted flight of rockets and bursting balloons. The military trophies on each side assumed a variety of transparent colours. The shell and flaming heart on the wings, sent forth Chinese fountains, succeeded by fire-pots. Fame appeared at top, spangled with stars, and from her trumpet blowing the following device in letters of light,—‘ Les lumières sont immortel.’ A *sauter* of rockets bursting from the pediment, concluded the *feu d'artifice*.

“ At twelve o'clock, supper was announced ; and forged folding doors, hitherto artfully concealed, being suddenly thrown open, discovered a magnificent saloon of 210 feet by 40, and 22 in height, with three alcoves on each side, which served for sideboards. The ceiling formed the segment of a circle, and the sides were painted a light straw colour, with leaves and festoon flowers, some in a bright, some in a darkish green. Fifty-six large pier-glasses, ornamented with green silk, artificial flowers, and ribands. One hundred branches, with three lights in each, trimmed in the same manner as the mirrors. Eighteen lustres, each with twenty-four lights, suspended from the ceiling, and ornamented as branches. Three hundred wax tapers were disposed along the table, on which were 430 covers, and 1200 dishes. Forty-four black slaves, in Oriental dresses, with collars and bracelets, were ranged in two lines, bending to the ground as the general and admiral approached the saloon. All these formed together the most brilliant assemblage of gay objects, appearing at once, as we entered by an easy ascent, and exhibiting a coup d'œil beyond description magnificent.

“ Towards the end of supper, the herald of the Blended Rose, in his habit of ceremony, attended by his trumpeters, entered the

saloon, and proclaimed the king's health, the health of the queen, and of the royal family; then the army and navy, with their respective commanders, the knights, and the ladies in general. Each of these toasts was followed by a flourish of music; and after supper we returned to the ball-room, where we continued to dance till four in the morning.

"Such, my dear friend, is the description, though a very faint one, of the splendid entertainment given by our army to their general."

NOTE E, page 29.

WHEN the crisis at length arrived which brought the Americans to abjure their allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, it is well known, that many who were most vigorously opposed to the measures of ministers, experienced the strongest feelings of affection for the country of their ancestors, when the sense of duty to the cause they engaged in, and to the land they lived in and obtained their subsistence from, influenced them to act contrary to the inclination of their hearts.

NOTE F, page 40.

IT is usually believed, that the first Congress which assembled in America, was on occasion of the troubles that brought on the war of independence. A Congress was, however, held half a century before, and occasionally afterwards, for the purpose chiefly of planning measures to defend the frontiers against the Indians. In 1754, a Congress met, under the suggestion made by the Lords Commissioners for Trade and Plantations, in order to consider the best means of defending the colonies against the French.

NOTE G, page 47.

WE have, by conceding a participation in our valuable fisheries to the Americans, given them the most effectual means of increasing

their  
book

Tr  
the U

WH

Ins

WH

Alu

Alu

Min

Gra

Unc

S

S

Stud

Stud

Stud

Med

Law

Volu

Volu

The

Congre

2 are E

Reform

educate

funds o

whole m

35,960;

various

of the st

Maine

New

Verm



their naval power.—See Account of the British American Fisheries, book iii. chap. vii.

## NOTE H, page 49.

THE following is a general statistical summary of the colleges in the United States:—

Whole number of colleges in the United States . . . . .	43
Instructors in 32 colleges . . . . .	217
Whole number of alumni in 28 colleges . . . . .	20,520
Alumni living in 23 colleges . . . . .	11,866
Alumni, ministers of 20 colleges . . . . .	4,335
Ministers living in 19 colleges . . . . .	2,814
Graduates in 30 colleges, in 1828 . . . . .	632
Under-graduates in 33 colleges, 1828-9	
Seniors 670, Juniors 646	} . . . . . 2,509
Soph 660, Freshmen 533	
Students professing religion in 22 colleges . . . . .	587
Students assisted by college funds in 15 colleges . . . . .	321
Students ditto by Education Society in 14 colleges . . . . .	148
Medical students in 7 colleges . . . . .	590
Law students in 3 colleges . . . . .	23
Volumes in 80 college libraries . . . . .	121,118
Volumes in 25 students' libraries . . . . .	66,780

The number of theological seminaries is 18; of which 3 are Congregational; 4 are Presbyterian; 2 are Baptist; 1 is Unitarian; 2 are Episcopal; 2 are Evangelical; 3 Lutheran, and 1 is German Reformed. Since the commencement of their operations they have educated 1526 students. Of these 140 have been aided by the funds of the seminaries, and 151 by education societies. The whole number of volumes in the libraries of the seminaries is 35,960; besides which, there are 3720 volumes in the libraries of various societies belonging to these institutions. The residences of the students now at the seminaries are as follows:

Maine . . . . .	15
New Hampshire . . . . .	35
Vermont . . . . .	48

Massachusetts . . . . .	76
Rhode Island . . . . .	3
Connecticut . . . . .	63
New York . . . . .	94
New Jersey . . . . .	9
Pennsylvania . . . . .	55
Maryland . . . . .	12
Delaware . . . . .	2
Virginia . . . . .	17
District of Columbia . . . . .	2
North Carolina . . . . .	18
South Carolina . . . . .	8
Georgia . . . . .	4
Alabama . . . . .	2
Mississippi . . . . .	1
Tennessee . . . . .	6
Kentucky . . . . .	8
Ohio . . . . .	11
Indiana . . . . .	1
Michigan Territory . . . . .	5
Foreign Countries . . . . .	9

G  
 TH  
 isla  
 wa  
 Sec  
 of I  
 I  
 Un  
 in  
 coa  
 at i  
 and  
 whi  
 into  
 Com  
 rive  
 the  
 Iro

BOOK II.

VIEW OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL BOUNDARIES AND  
NATURAL HISTORY OF BRITISH AMERICA.

---

CHAPTER I.

General View of British America—Configuration—Physical Aspect, &c.

THE British possessions in North America, are, the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, and Anticosti; the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Canadas; the region of Labrador, and the territory west of Hudson's Bay.

By the treaty of 1783 with the republic of the United States, the construction of which is involved in much ambiguity, the river St Croix, on the sea-coast, and a line due north from a monument erected at its source, to the highlands, (evidently Mars Hill,) and from thence, dividing the waters of the rivers which fall into the St Lawrence, from those that fall into the Atlantic, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence, down the middle of that river, to the 45th degree of north latitude; from thence, by a line due west, until it strike the river Iroquois, and thence, down to the St Lawrence,

following the middle of that river, and the great lakes to the head of Lake Superior, &c., leaving all the lands north of this line to the Crown of Great Britain.

The commissioners appointed on the part of Great Britain, agreeably to the treaty of Ghent, seem to have been most unaccountably ignorant of the natural configuration of America, and they do not even appear to know which river was, in reality, meant for the St Croix, but took for granted the one named by the American agents.

If we examine a map of the country lying between the Atlantic and the St Lawrence, we will have little difficulty in concluding, that the Penobscot was the St Croix understood at the treaty of 1783. It is also well known, that the general name of St Croix was given to all the rivers falling into the Atlantic, from Massachusetts Bay to the river St John, from the French having, on first frequenting the country, erected crosses along the coast, which, from this circumstance, long obtained the name of Terre du St Croix, or Country of the Holy Cross.

As the country claimed by the United States is of vast importance to the power that may possess it, the final adjustment of the boundary line is an object that will likely be attended with considerable difficulty.\*

The physical aspect of British America presents, along the Atlantic coasts, with but few exceptions,

\* Note A.

a broken, rugged configuration : in some parts thickly wooded to the water's edge, or to the utmost verge of the most perpendicular cliffs ; in others, as along the greater part of Newfoundland, the south-eastern shores of Nova Scotia, and the whole of Labrador, rocks, with dwarfish trees growing thinly among them, predominate. Within the Bay of Fundy, the coast, that of Nova Scotia in particular, is fertile and beautiful ; and the features of Prince Edward Island, and the greater part of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, situated within the Gulf of St Lawrence, are soft, luxuriant, and picturesque, with trees growing almost uninterrupted, along the coasts and over the country.

Along the river St Lawrence, from the Bay de Chaleur to Quebec, and for some miles upwards, the country is of a bold mountainous character, and covered with dense forests. After passing the high lands above Quebec, the lands on each side of the St Lawrence are low, fertile, and in most parts of alluvial formation. The country, with few interruptions, maintains this appearance until we reach Queenstone Heights, close to the falls of Niagara ; above which, again, along the lakes, a flat country prevails. Wherever cataracts occur, the surface of the adjoining country is unequal. We observe this at Niagara, and at all the falls and rapids of the St Lawrence, and other rivers. The districts lying intermediate between cataracts, are usually flat, and of alluvial formation.

The geological structure and mineralogy of the

North American regions, are, as yet, but very imperfectly known.\* A great chain of mountains, known by the general name of the Alleghanies, rises abruptly out of the Gulf of St Lawrence, at Percé, between Bay de Chaleur and Gaspé, and following nearly the course of the river St Lawrence, until opposite Quebec, bends to the southward, and entering the United States, divides the Atlantic coast from the basin of the Ohio. The mountains of North America are generally covered to their summits with trees. They have also a greater continuity in their ridges, and more regularity of outline, than those of Europe. They are, besides, far from being so high as those of Europe, Asia, or South America.

The loftiest part of the Alleghanies is but 2958 feet above the level of the sea. Kellington Peak, Vermont, 3866 feet. The Kaatskill Mountain, 3550. The White Mountains, in New Hampshire, 6800 feet. Neither the Algonquin, nor any other mountain north of the St Lawrence, is considered much above 2000 feet high.

The nucleus of the Alleghany chain appears, and

\* I regret being unable to give a more satisfactory account than will be found in this work, of the geology and mineralogy of America; my knowledge of these interesting subjects being chiefly confined to what I have observed on the banks of rivers and lakes, on the faces of cliffs, and on the shores of the sea. Although America affords to the naturalist a rich field for enquiry, yet it is a task of no ordinary difficulty to surmount the obstacles common to a wilderness country, rendered almost impassable by dense forests, fallen trees, swamps, rocks, mountains, and water-courses:

is generally considered to be, granite, which extends from those mountains, and forms the prevailing basis, with some exceptions, however, of all the countries lying between them and the Atlantic, and north of the river Hudson. These territories are also considered to have been frequently convulsed by earthquakes, while those west of the Alleghanies have remained undisturbed.

Limestone, generally in horizontal strata, prevails to the westward of the Alleghany chain, as far as the St Lawrence and the lakes. On the north of the St Lawrence, and throughout Labrador, granite predominates; and Sir Alexander M'Kenzie remarks, in his travels, that the great lakes of North America are in a line of contact between vast chains of granite and limestone.

Volney observes, that the granitic range of the Alleghany chain may be said to terminate southward, (or, more properly, loses itself to observation,) at West Point, river Hudson, on the opposite side of which sandstone commences, and prevails from the Kaatskill Mountains to the angle of Georgia.

Those vast inland seas, the great lakes, form, with the St Lawrence and other magnificent rivers, most gigantic features in the geography of North America; to which we may also add the Gulf of St Lawrence—a Mediterranean—bounded by our territories; the Bay of Fundy, with its extraordinary tides; and the icy bay of Hudson, which divides rocky, inhospitable Labrador from the north-western, or frozen regions of the transatlantic hemisphere.

The surface of the extensive countries of British America, with the exception of the sterile parts of the north, the savannahs, and where towns and settlements have been formed along the sea-coasts, and on the banks of rivers, is still covered with dense and almost limitless forests, which commence at the sea-coast, and extend to the banks and lakes of the St Lawrence; beyond which they are succeeded by others of equally gigantic growth, that terminate, with the occasional interruption of a buffalo prairie, only at the shores of the Pacific.

In many of the most extensive districts, we still discover no signs of civilization, nor any marks of the progress of improvement; and the scenery, in its primeval wildness and natural luxuriance, exhibits what the whole of North America was about two centuries ago, when none but the Indian tribes traversed its woods, and the bark canoe of the savage alone navigated the waters of its Atlantic shores, or those of its rivers and inland seas.

T  
Am  
Wo  
I  
Am  
mag  
the  
gene  
M  
birch  
bran  
river  
and s  
moun  
It  
of th  
pared  
Tw  
autun  
empin  
rich  
crims  
fir tri



## CHAPTER II.

## Forests—Principal Trees, &amp;c.

THE magnificent splendour of the forests of North America, is peculiar to that division of the Western World.

In Europe, in Asia, in Africa, and even in South America, the primeval trees, how much soever their magnitude may arrest admiration, do not grow in the promiscuous style that prevails in the great general character of the North American woods.

Many varieties of the pine, intermingled with birch, maple, beech, oak, and numerous other tribes, branch luxuriantly over the banks of lakes and rivers, extend in stately grandeur along the plains, and stretch proudly up to the very summits of the mountains.

It is impossible to exaggerate the autumnal beauty of these forests: nothing under heaven can be compared to its effulgent grandeur.

Two or three frosty nights in the decline of autumn, transform the boundless verdure of a whole empire into every possible tint of brilliant scarlet, rich violet, every shade of blue and brown, vivid crimson, and glittering yellow. The stern, inexorable fir tribes alone maintain their eternal sombre green,

All others, in mountains or in valleys, burst into the most glorious vegetable beauty, and exhibit the most splendid and most euchanting panorama on earth.\*

The forest trees in North America are exceedingly numerous, but in this work it will only be possible to describe briefly the principal timber-trees; among which, those of the pine family claim the first rank.

Michaux describes fourteen species of pine, and there are probably more varieties. Pines do not often grow on fertile soils, at least not in groves; low, sandy, and poor, but not stony lands, are most congenial to their growth.

The yellow long-leaved pine (*pinus strobus*) is the most generally useful; and the great bulk of the timber of commerce exported from America, is of this kind. It grows in great abundance in Canada and New Brunswick, and was formerly in great plenty in the other colonies. It is a magnificent tree, frequently fifteen feet in circumference near the ground, free of branches for seventy or eighty feet, and often more than one hundred and twenty feet in height. Some trees, after being hewn square, and the limbs, with twenty to thirty feet of the top cut off, have measured eight to nine tons, of forty solid feet each.

The pitch pine (*pinus Australis*), also long leaved, and valuable on account of its durability, but more so from its producing principally the turpentine and tar of America. It delights in higher ground than

\* I consider that these metamorphoses are caused by the action of frost at this period, on the acids contained in the leaves.

the  
cur  
tree  
It i  
into  
logs  
be i  
a gr  
this  
It i  
purp  
othe  
H  
two  
are v  
from  
apt t  
or, a  
often  
holds  
used  
ally  
bette  
is ren  
eithe  
grow  
feet i  
Fiv  
excep  
creeps  
VO

the yellow pine, and seldom exceeds six feet in circumference.

The red pine (*pinus sylvestris*) is often a tall tree, but seldom more than four or five feet in girth. It is the same in kind and quality as the fir imported into the United Kingdom from Norway, in square logs. Until this tree be sufficiently matured, or if it be in a situation where it grows rapidly, it contains a great proportion of *sap wood*, and it is only when this part is hewn away, that the red pine is durable. It is much used in ship-building, and many other purposes, but it is much more rare than any of the other pines.

Hemlock spruce (*abies Canadensis*.) There are two varieties of the hemlock, the red and white; both are very durable. The lath-wood, imported in billets from America, is principally hemlock. The red is apt to split too freely, and is remarkably full of cracks, or, as the Americans term it, *shakey*. The white is often apt to splinter, but it is close-grained, hard, holds nails or *tree nails* well, and it is now much used in ship-building. Its bark is used very generally in America for tanning. There is no wood better adapted for mining purposes or piles; and it is remarkable that iron driven into it will not corrode, either in or out of water. Hemlock-trees generally grow in dry hollows, in groves, and from two to three feet in diameter, and sixty to eighty feet high.

Five varieties of the spruce fir are abundant in all except the northernmost regions; and the dwarf spruce creeps as far north as any tree. The black, grey,

white, and red spruce firs, called so from the colour of their respective barks, are the same as those of Norway imported into England for masts, yards, &c. These trees grow to a great height. The black spruce (*pinus abies*) is frequently observed in the distance like a black minaret or spire, towering twenty or thirty feet above all other forest trees. The spruce firs of rapid growth are not durable, but those growing in bleak situations, or near the sea-coast, are hard and lasting. The wood of all the species is white.

The American silver fir (*abies balsamiferæ*) is that from which the transparent resin, known as Canada balsam, is procured. This balsam is the best possible application to fresh wounds. The Indians use it also as a remedy for several internal complaints. The timber of this tree is seldom used in America except for fencing rails.

The celebrated essence of spruce, is extracted from the black spruce. When the branches are used to make the beer, so common in America, merely by boiling them in water, and adding a few hops and a certain portion of molasses, those of the dwarf trees are preferred.

The haematack, or larch, (*pinus larix*), called also in America, tamarac, and juniper, is considered the most durable of the pine family. In some parts, but not generally, it is very plentiful. It attains frequently a great height, but rarely more than two feet in thickness. Its wood is heavy, tough, and becomes hard by seasoning. It burns with difficulty,

and  
hem  
P  
ceda  
Am  
only  
prov  
thre  
vent  
the  
to ot  
T  
in th  
is fo  
seldo  
Amer  
berry  
in ma  
natur  
it thr  
Th  
other  
the U  
bility  
alba.)  
bably  
down  
firmne  
wedge  
stone

and does not readily absorb water. In these respects, hemlock resembles it most.

Both red cedar (*juniperas Virginiana*) and white cedar (*cupressus thyoides*) are met with in British America, but not in abundance. The former is found only in Upper Canada, the latter grows in the lower provinces. The largest trees that I have seen, about three feet in diameter, were on the banks of Bonaventure river, in the district of Gaspé, at which place the Acadian French use the white cedar, in preference to other wood, for house and ship-building.

The common juniper, which yields the berry used in the arts, and which takes two years in ripening, is found in most cold situations, where other trees seldom grow. A creeping variety of fir, called, in America, ground spruce, producing a delicious red berry, and on which cattle delight to browse, grows in many places in great plenty. It differs in its nature from all other varieties of firs, inasmuch as it thrives only in fertile soils.

The oak in England claims the precedence of all other trees; but not so in America. The people of the United States boast much, it is true, of the durability and excellence of their white oak (*quercus alba*.) It is certainly a tough, durable wood, and probably equal to the greater part of the oak now cut down annually in Great Britain; but no more in firmness and durability to be compared to the "unwedgeable and gnarled oak of England," than sandstone is to granite. The wood growing in the south-

ern parts, which they term "live oak," is, however, very firm, and remarkably durable.

The grey, or more properly, white oak of Canada, is a tolerably close-grained and lasting wood, and much used in ship-building. It is the same, or differs very little from that of the United States: and it resembles very closely the *quercus pedunculata* of the continent of Europe, and is probably as durable.

The quercitron oak (*quercus tinctora*) is considered, in the United States, of very lasting quality. The bark also contains a great portion of tannin, but imparts a yellow colour to the leather, and is therefore objected to.

The red oak of America is the most plentiful, but of very porous and indifferent quality. It is, however, frequently made into staves, and its bark is valuable for tanning.

The beech-tree (*fagus sylvatica*) thrives abundantly, but always on fertile soils. It is, in America, usually a beautiful, majestic tree, and sometimes three feet in diameter. It is useful for the same purposes to which it is applied in England; under water it is remarkably durable, and it affords a great quantity of potashes. Its bark contains a fair portion of tannin, and it produces, every second year, heavy crops of *mast*, or nuts, which are pleasant to the taste, and on which partridges, squirrels, mice, &c., feed; the hogs of the settlers ramble through the woods as soon as the beech-nuts begin to fall, and fatten so rapidly on them, that they acquire one to three inches

in thickness of additional fat—not very firm, it is true—in a few weeks.

Two or three varieties of the elm (*ulmus campestris*) are met with in America. It attains much about the same size as the beech-tree, and its quality is fully equal to the best that grows in England. Elm, however, is not abundant in America.

Ash (*fraxinus*.) Of this tree there are many varieties, but the common grey ash only, generally called white ash in America, is durable or useful.

The mountain ash (*pyrus aricuparia*) grows in all parts of North America. It is not, however, of the ash, but rather of the birch tribe. It is, in fact, Sir Walter Scott's "rowan-tree." Its foliage and berries make it a pretty ornamental tree.

Of the birch tribe (*betula*) we met with eight, or probably more varieties, known in America by the names of black, white, yellow, grey birches, &c.

The common white birch (*betula alba*) is the most hardy tree that we know. The dwarf white birch grows farther north than any other tree; and, where the rigour of the climate prevents its growing upright, it creeps along the ground, affording food and shelter to birds that resort in summer to high latitudes.

Between the latitudes of forty and forty-eight, we find, in valleys, or where it grows among other timber, the white birch, a fine majestic tree, fifty to sixty feet in height, often two feet in diameter, and for twenty or thirty feet without branches. When growing in this manner, it is known to naturalists as *betula papyracea*, which, however, although differ-

ing in appearance, is by no means a different variety from the common white birch, which merely assumes a tall, spreading, or dwarfish character, according to the situation and soil in which it grows.

The white birch, although the wood, except under water, be not durable, is still a most valuable tree. It is clean, close-grained, easily worked, and useful for common turners' work. Its fibres are split open, and worked by the Indian women into baskets, ropes, brooms, &c. Its inner bark contains excellent tannin, and of the outer bark of the large trees are made the *canoes* used by the savages and Canadian voyageurs.

The yellow birch differs only from the white in its outer bark, which is yellowish, being too thin for any useful purpose, and its wood being somewhat tougher; neither will it grow in exposed situations, nor on barren soils. The grey birch seldom attains more than eight or nine inches in diameter. It is hardy, and differs only from the dwarf white birch in the colour and texture of the outer bark.

The black birch of America (*betula nigra*) is a magnificent tree, often fifteen to eighteen feet in circumference; its outer bark is rough and dark, the inner bark thick, and full of tannin. The wood is finely shaded and variegated, susceptible of as high a polish as mahogany, and furniture made of choice trees is equally beautiful. It is imported in large square logs from America, and used in this country for many purposes. It makes excellent planks for ships' bottoms; but if exposed to the weather, it is not dura-

ble  
firs  
T  
from  
gar  
it b  
T  
prep  
the  
very  
by t  
mon  
T  
Tho  
T  
fibre  
mapl  
beau  
same  
T  
know  
mapl  
mapl  
like  
rally  
a hig  
may  
of th  
T  
the g  
and c



ble. This might not probably be the case if it were first well seasoned.

The sap drained in March and April, by incision, from all the varieties of birch, makes excellent vinegar, and a pleasant weak wine may be obtained from it by boiling and fermentation.

The Russia leather, used for binding books, is prepared with the empyreumatic oil obtained from the outer bark of the white birch. This bark is very inflammable, and used for torches or flambeaux by the Indians and others, when fishing for eels, salmon, &c. at night.

There are many varieties of the maple (*acer*.) Those generally known in America are—

The white maple, which is straight and close in its fibres, elastic, and slow in burning. The waved maple, which resembles Zebra-wood, is exceedingly beautiful, admits of a very fine polish, and is the same as that generally used for the backs of violins.

The great maple (*acer pseudo platanas*), generally known in America by the different names of rock maple, from its being hard and tough; bird's eye maple, from its being frequently beautifully mottled like birds' eyes; curled maple, from its being generally curled in the fibres, and richly shaded. It takes a high polish; and beautiful specimens of this wood may be seen in the ornamental work of the cabins of the American packets that come to Liverpool.

The sugar maple (*acer saccharinum*) differs from the great maple in its fibres being generally straight and coarser, its wood not being so hard or compact,

and its sap granulating more perfectly. From its juice, principally, is made the maple sugar, although all the varieties of maple that we know of, if we class them agreeably to the saccharine matter contained in their saps, might be called sugar maples.

The process of obtaining sugar from the sap of the maple is simple. In the early part of March, at which time sharp frosty nights are usually followed by bright sun-shining days, the sap begins to run.

A small notch or incision, making an angle across the grain, is cut in the tree, out of which the juice oozes, and is conveyed by a thin slip of wood, let in at the lower end of the cut, to a wooden trough or dish, made of bark, placed below on the ground.

The quantity of sap thus obtained from each tree varies from one pint to two gallons per day. Those who follow the business, fix on a spot where maple-trees are most numerous, and erect a temporary camp or lodging. When they have as many trees tapped as can be attended to, the sap is collected once or twice a day, and carried to a large pot or boiler hung over a wood fire near the camp. It is then reduced by boiling until it granulates; and the sugar thus obtained is rich and pleasant to the taste. An agreeable sirup is also made of maple sap.

The maple ground occupied by a party is termed a "sugarie;" and those who first commence tapping the trees, consider that possession for one year constitutes right for those years that follow. They often receive, without having any tenure themselves

of  
oth  
del  
dw  
bee  
r  
gen  
mo  
con  
abo  
wa  
E  
app  
kno  
it w  
Ind  
and  
of s  
Nor  
ralis  
S  
cina  
are  
vege  
intr  
  
\*  
which  
not d  
have  
recov

of these lands from the crown, a consideration from others for the right of possession.

There are three or four varieties of poplar, which delight, as in Europe, to grow in low soils. A dwarfish kind abounds where the original wood has been destroyed.

The white walnut, or hickory, (*juglans alba*), generally called butternut-tree in America, is common on intervale or alluvial land, and grows to a considerable size. The nut is edible, and contains about the same proportion of oil as the common walnut.

Besides these trees, which, on account of their appearance or usefulness, are the most generally known, many other varieties abound, among which it will be sufficient to name the alder, wild cherry, Indian pear-tree, dog-wood, horn-beam, or iron-wood, and white and black thorn. The very great variety of smaller trees, shrubs, and herbs which abound in North America, must be left for the professed naturalist to class.

Sarsaparilla, ginseng, as well as many other medicinal plants, are very plentiful, the virtues of which are as yet but imperfectly known. The Indians have vegetable specifics for all the diseases, except those introduced by Europeans, to which they are liable.\*

\* The nuns and catholic clergy prepare a vegetable plaster, which never fails to cure inveterate cancer. The secret they will not divulge. The author is acquainted with several persons who have been perfectly cured by them, after being considered past recovery by very able physicians.

The vine, generally called in America maiden hair, (*adiantum capillus veneris*: Linn.) is abundant, growing usually along the sides of dry hollows, or among old fallen trees, but always in the shade. The leaves of it are infused as tea ; its berry affords a delicious jelly, from which the once celebrated " sirop de capillaire" took its name.

A root, called, from its colour, blood-root, and from its taste, chocolate root, is boiled in water, and the decoction used by the Indians as a certain remedy for the most violent attack of cholic. It is also taken by them to remove dysentery, &c. ; and it alleviates acute pain as readily as opium, without possessing the pernicious qualities of that drug.

A variety of herbs and roots are used by the inhabitants instead of tea, and many of them are grateful to the taste, and probably as conducive to health as the Oriental shrub.

Many varieties of wild fruits abound in North America. Vines are discovered growing indigenous in Canada and Nova Scotia. Cranberries are plentiful, uncommonly fine, and as large as cherries in England. Raspberries and strawberries grow naturally in astonishing abundance ; also, whortleberries and blueberries. Black and red currants, gooseberries, and two or three descriptions of cherries, grow wild. The fruit called Indian pear, is of the most delicious flavour. Juniper-berries, in many places, are very abundant. Hazel-nuts grow wild. There are many kinds of grasses indigenous to the

soil of North America ; white clover springs spontaneously wherever the land is cleared of the woods.

It seems an extraordinary fact in natural history, that, wherever the original forest is destroyed in America, and the land left uncultivated, trees of a different species should spring up. This is always observed where lands have been laid waste by fire. The first year, tall weeds, and raspberry and bramble bushes, shoot up ; then cherry-trees, white birch, silver firs, and white poplars, appear ; but seldom any tree of the genus previously growing on the space laid open by the devouring element. \*

The great trees of the fir, maple, black birch, and beech tribes, when once destroyed, do not seem ever to be succeeded in the ground they occupied by trees of the same kind.

\* Sir Alexander Mackenzie observes, that on the banks of the Slave Lake, land, formerly covered wholly with spruce, fir, and birch, having been laid waste by fire, produced subsequently nothing but poplars.

## CHAPTER III.

Wild Animals—Birds—Reptiles—Insects—Fishes, &c.

OF the quadrupeds of British America, it will be sufficient, for the purpose of general information, to notice the most remarkable.

The bears of the American forest are of a jet black colour, and are extremely mischievous and annoying to the inhabitants of the remote settlements, destroying black cattle, sheep, and hogs. During winter they retire to some sequestered part of the forest, and select a den, which they prepare by closing it nearly over with branches and sticks, and making a bed within it of moss. During three or four months they live in these dens without food, and, according to the accounts of the Indians and others who sometimes discover them, in a state of torpor, from which, however, they are easily roused.

It is said that a bear, on leaving his den, is nearly as fat as at any period of the year; this is neither probable nor true. The vulgar but absurd belief is, that they live during winter by sucking their paws. Although bears are carnivorous animals, they feed indiscriminately on berries, or any thing in the shape of food. In summer they go prowling about, living

on berries; or, if in the neighbourhood of settlers, watch, and come on the cattle, sheep, or pigs in the evening, or during night. They are particularly fond of ant-hills, of all kinds of insects, and are dexterous in catching smelts, a species of small fish that swarm in the brooks. A great deal is related about the sagacity of bears, and there appear to be but few animals that possess a higher degree of instinct.

Their strength and dexterity are astonishing, and the largest and most spirited bull is soon vanquished and killed by a full-grown bear. They seldom attack a horse; and, unless provoked, will rarely encounter a man. It is said that a bear, on hearing the human voice, will always run off, unless accompanied by its young. They are frequently caught in strong wooden traps, contrived so, that a heavy log, pressed down by several others, falls across the animal's back, and crushes it to death. Indians and others commonly lie in wait to shoot them near the remains of some large animal killed by a bear the preceding night, to which it generally returns, either to devour it, or carry it off. Spring guns are sometimes set, with a string from the trigger to a bait, which, as soon as a bear lays hold of it, fires the gun. If a bear kill or catch either a calf, sheep, or pig, it carries it at once to some distance. An ox or cow seems too heavy a burden, and a part is devoured where it is killed. The fur of the bear, if killed in season, is very valuable, but not now so fashionable as formerly.

The polar, or white bear, is common only on the sea-coast of the cold northern regions of Labrador,

Hudson's Bay, and the north-west territory. They are seldom found on the land during winter, but go out on the ice. The females that are pregnant, however, seek shelter at the skirts of the nearest woods; these animals, when full grown, are heavier than most oxen, yet their young are not larger than hares. The female has only two teats, placed between the forelegs. This immense and powerful animal is very shy, and afraid of coming near man; yet, when closely pressed in the water, they will attack a boat, and wrest the oars from the strongest man; but the crew, being always provided with fire-arms, shoot them as they are attempting to get into the boat. The Esquimaux prefer the skin to any other kind of clothing. They dress it by scraping off the fat, and rubbing it while frozen in winter, and soon make the pelt as beautifully white as the hair is. The flesh is strong, but the people in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company consider it very palatable.

Foxes are numerous, and seem to possess all the cunning usually attributed to the species. They do not, however, kill sheep or lambs, nor do they often destroy poultry, as they generally procure sufficient food at less risk in the woods, or along the shores. They are caught in traps, or inveigled by a bait to a particular place, where they are shot by a person lying in wait, during the clear winter nights; at which time the ice and snow deprive them in a great measure of their usual means of subsistence. The fur is much finer than that of the English fox; its prevailing colour is red. Some foxes are jet black, others

pa  
co  
wh  
oth  
the  
the  
we  
Th  
a d  
cou  
V  
The  
rag  
wit  
whi  
be c  
T  
incl  
of o  
not  
whic  
cons  
skin  
H  
wint  
least  
caug

\* I  
that v



patched, and a few are of a beautiful silver grey colour. In the polar regions they are generally white, and, when destitute of food, will prey on each other. It is said that American foxes, crossed with those of this country, afford the very best sport to the huntsman.

Wolves are found in Labrador, and in the territory west of Hudson's Bay; but they are not numerous. Those most generally killed by the Esquimaux are of a dirty white colour. Although large,\* they are not courageous, not even when pressed with hunger.

Wolvereens are common in the northern territories. They are slow in pace, but strong, acute, and courageous. They will often take a deer from a wolf without any resistance. Their scent is very keen, which enables them readily to find out whatever can be come at to satisfy their voracious appetites.

The marten is a beautiful animal, about eighteen inches long, and of a brownish colour, with a patch of orange under the neck. Its fur is valuable; and if not finer, is certainly equal to the Siberian sable, which this animal so nearly resembles, as to be often considered the same. Muffs and tippets of marten skins are at present very fashionable.

Hares are in great abundance, and turn white in winter as in Norway. Their flesh is very fine, at least equal to that of the English hare. They are caught in snares, or running nooses, set, during winter,

\* I had a Newfoundland wolf-skin, given me by Mr Cormack, that was six feet long from the snout to the point of the tail.

in narrow openings, left at about twenty yards from each other, in a brushwood fence. The noose is attached to a pole, or to a young pliant tree, that springs up on being sprung; and along the line of fence, on a winter's morning, several are found hung up and strangled.

The beaver (*castor*), whose fur is so valuable, is an animal of astonishing industry, and prudent foresight. In order to secure lodgings and provisions during winter, they live in a state of society, which resembles the civil compact of man, rather than the mere instinctive gregarious habits of other animals. As they must live near water, and frequently in it, they build dams across running brooks, to create an artificial lake; and in order to accomplish so great an object, they are obliged to labour in concert. The ingenuity with which they construct their dams, and build apartments or lodgings, is truly astonishing. If the water of the river or creek have little motion, they build their dams straight across; but if the current be rapid, they make them with a considerable and regular curve against the stream. All the parts are of equal strength and consistency, and constructed of drift wood, green willows, birch, poplars, mud, and stones. These dams, by constant repairing, often become a solid bank, on which trees soon grow. The beavers sometimes build their houses on lakes, and other standing waters, without dams; but the advantage of a current, to carry down wood and other necessaries to their habitations, seems to counter-balance the labour of building a dam.

T  
tanc  
prin  
lie o  
roof,  
neve  
the f  
wolv  
easily  
sever  
pied  
them  
banks  
dang  
the m  
fore-p  
work  
their  
apart  
they b  
summ  
not co  
They  
poplar  
cut in  
sion;  
root th  
In sur  
As  
leave t  
and, if  
VOI

They construct their houses at a convenient distance from the dam, of the same materials; and the principal objects appear to be, having a dry bed to lie on, and security. The walls, and particularly the roof, are often more than five feet thick; and they never give them the last coat of mud-plaster until the frost sets in, which freezes it so hard, that the wolvereen, the greatest enemy of the species, cannot easily break through. Some of the large houses have several apartments; but it appears that each is occupied by a whole family. There is no passage into them from the land side; and they have vaults on the banks of the rivers to retreat to, when they apprehend danger. They drag pieces of wood with their teeth; the mud and small stones they carry between their fore-paws and their throat. They execute their work wholly in the night. When the increase of their numbers makes it necessary to erect additional apartments, or when they shift to another situation, they begin to cut down the wood requisite early in summer, and commence building in August; but do not complete their work until cold weather sets in. They feed on the bark of trees, preferring that of the poplar and willow, and float down wood, that they cut in summer, to their habitations, for winter provision; but their principal article of food is a thick root that grows in the bottom of rivers and lakes. In summer, they feed on various herbs, berries, &c.

As soon as the ice breaks up in the spring, they leave their houses, and ramble about during summer; and, if they do not fix on a more desirable situation,

return to their old residences, in autumn, to provide the store of wood necessary for winter. The beaver is cleanly in its habits, always leaving its apartments to evacuate its dung or urine in the water, or, in winter, on the ice. They are easily tamed—become fond of human society—are readily taught to eat animal food—always retain their cleanly habits—and are fond of being caressed. They bring forth from two to five at a birth.

The flesh of the beaver is considered very delicious, both by the fur traders and the Indians. The value of the fur is well known; it forms an important and principal article of commercial profit to the Hudson's Bay Company.

The colour of the beaver is a very dark glossy brown; accidental, but very rare, differences occur. Some travellers mention that the white beaver is a distinct species; but Mr Hearne believes that there is but one kind of beaver, and, during twenty years' residence at Hudson's Bay, he never saw but one white beaver skin; and the beautiful glossy black beaver skins are also merely accidental variations.

Those who hunt beavers in winter, must, to succeed, be well acquainted with their manner of life. When any injury is offered to their houses, they retreat, under water, to their holes in the banks. The Indians often find it necessary to stake the river across, to prevent them from crossing; after which, they endeavour to discover their vaults, or holes, which requires much patience, and is effected by striking the ice along the banks with an ice chisel

fasto  
the s  
cut,  
beav  
won  
brea  
their  
long  
rema  
taken  
T  
rally  
tall  
short  
ward  
came  
and e  
they  
are s  
graze  
brow  
of tr  
than  
soft,  
the s  
has r  
under  
eight  
to th  
differ  
at the

fastened to a pole. By experience they know, from the sound produced, where the beaver vaults are, and cut, opposite, a hole large enough to admit an old beaver. While the men are thus employed, the women, and those less experienced, are employed in breaking open the houses; and the beavers, finding their residence violated, and not being able to remain long under water, are constrained to retreat and remain in their vaults, where they are secured and taken by the Indians.

The moose, or moose deer, is a large animal, generally six feet high, and often exceeding the size of a tall English horse. It has enormous horns, very short neck, long head and ears, a short tail, and awkward appearance. Its head and hoofs resemble a camel's; its upper lip is much larger than the under, and esteemed a delicacy. The nostrils are very wide; they have no teeth in their upper jaw, and their legs are so long and their neck so short, that they cannot graze on the level ground like other animals, but browse on the tops of plants, and the leaves and twigs of trees and shrubs. The males are much larger than the females; the hair of the former is long and soft, nearly black at the points, grey a little under the surface, and white at the roots. The female has no horns; its hair is of a sandy brown, and under the belly and throat nearly white. It goes eight months with young, and brings forth from one to three at a time. The horns of the male are very different from those of the common deer, palmated at the point, from which a few short branches shoot

to nearly the breadth of a common shovel; they shed them annually, yet their texture is very hard, and their thickness at the root as large as a man's wrist. Their flesh is esteemed a great delicacy; the fat of the intestines hard, that of the outside soft. In this respect they differ from the common deer, whose external fat is hard; neither are they gregarious, like the rest of the deer species. Their livers are never sound, nor have they any gall. Their pace is an awkward trot, which the length of their legs enables them to perform with considerable swiftness; but in a country free of wood, they would soon be overtaken by horsemen. They may soon be domesticated, and they will become more tame than sheep. In summer they frequent the banks of rivers and lakes, in order probably to get into the water occasionally, to avoid the multitudes of mosquitoes and other flies that annoy them. They are often killed by the Indians in the water, and, when pursued in this manner, they make no resistance; and the young ones are so simple as to allow an Indian to paddle his canoe alongside of them, and take hold of their heads, the poor harmless animal swimming along to the shore, apparently as contented as if at the side of its dam. The common deer are much more dangerous. The hide of the moose is dressed into a very beautiful and soft skin, by the Indians.

The common deer are numerous in the western and northern territories. Towards, and within, the arctic regions, they are much smaller than to the southward, but their flesh is more delicate. Their

fur  
The  
bra  
also  
in s  
tha  
of t  
whe  
thei  
suit  
For  
Sept  
out  
thor  
for t  
strin  
In  
rally  
mon  
nort  
ciou  
T  
small  
roun  
T  
appe  
The  
and  
mad  
use  
T

fur is reddish in winter, and light grey in summer. The bucks shed their horns, which are very long and branched, annually, in November. The does have also horns, but much smaller, and they shed them in summer. They are never known to have more than one young at a time; and yet the destruction of these animals by the Indians seems incredible, when we consider how numerous they still are. Of their skins, which require ten to make a complete suit, the Indians principally make their clothing. For this purpose they should be killed in August or September. The Indians also dress deer-skins, without the hair, for light summer clothing, moccasins, thongs to make netting for their snow-shoes, strings for their sledges,—in fact, for most purposes where strings or laces are required.

In October, after rutting time, the bucks generally separate from the does.—The flesh of the common deer of America is excellent, that of the small northern deer is, however, considered the most delicious.

The cariboo is a variety of the deer kind, much smaller than the moose, and the horns less and rounder, with brow antlers.

The cariboo is not so awkward an animal in appearance as the moose, and it is amazingly swift. The flesh is tender, and the skin, when dressed, soft and useful. The net-work of Indian snow-shoes is made of thongs cut out of the skin, which the Indians use also for moccasins, and various other purposes.

The elk of North America is now rarely met with.

It has often been confounded with the moose, but it is quite a different animal. The horns of the elk are not palmated, and are longer than those of any other quadruped. Probably not one of these immense animals is now to be met with east of Lake Superior or the Mississippi.

The species of deer called by the Indians *we-was-kish*, has been confounded, even by Mr Pennant, with the moose deer, and by others with the *carriboo*. Its horns are, in appearance, something like those of the common deer, with fewer branches, and standing more upright. Its head is unlike that of the moose, having small lips, and the nose pointed like that of a sheep. They generally keep in large herds, are the most stupid of the deer kind, and make a shrill braying noise, that often betrays them. Their hair is of a sandy red, and they are usually called red deer by the English fur traders. The flesh is tolerable eating, but the fat is as hard as tallow, and disagreeable to eat, as it hardens immediately in the mouth, even if eaten as hot as possible. Their skins, when dressed, are thinner than those of moose deer, and will wash and dry afterwards as pliable and soft as before, while none of the other leather dressed by the Indians will dry without shrivelling, or becoming hard, unless great care be taken to keep constantly rubbing it while drying.

The buffalo (bison) delights in wide, open savannas, and abounds, in vast herds, west of the great lakes. They are generally larger, or at least heavier, than the oxen of England. The horns are short,



black, nearly straight, and thick at the roots. The skin, particularly about the neck, is very thick. The heads of the bulls are of such immense size, that a man can scarcely lift one from the ground ; the heads of the cows are much smaller. The hair is soft, and curled, approaching to wool, of a sandy brown colour, and of an equal thickness over the body. The Indians, after reducing the skins, as they do all other skins, to an equal thickness, dress them in the hair for clothing, which is soft and durable. The flesh of the cows is tender, and much like beef ; that of the bulls coarse and tough, but not unpleasant to the taste. The hunch on the back is a mere extension of the bones of the withers, surrounded, it is true, with flesh, but not a large fleshy lump, as is generally supposed. They are amazingly strong, will often bend down trees as thick as a man's arm, when rushing through the woods, and plunge along snow four or five feet deep with incredible swiftness ; they are not shy, and are easily shot.

The musk ox, although it somewhat resembles, and has been confounded with, the buffalo, is a very different animal. They are generally met with in high latitudes, within the arctic circle, and occasionally, but not in great herds, far south of Hudson's Bay. They are fond of mountainous, barren ground, but are seldom found at any great distance from the woods. In size they are, when full grown, as large as the common run of English cattle, but their legs are shorter, the hunch on their shoulder in proportion small, and their tail short. Though heavy, and apparently

of unwieldy structure, they climb over rocks with nearly the ease and agility of goats. Their hair is very long, particularly on the belly, sides, and under the neck. It is of this that the Esquimaux make their mosquito wigs. In winter they are provided with a fine thick woolly fur, growing at the root of the hair, to protect them against the severe cold to which they are exposed. As the summer advances, this fur loosens, and gradually works off. They feed on moss, shrubs, grass and on the tops of fir or willows. The flesh is not at all like that of the buffalo, and it smells so strong of musk as to be exceedingly disagreeable. That of the calves and young heifers, however, is tolerably delicate. The skins are not of much value. During the rutting season, the bulls are furiously jealous of the cows, and will run madly at any beast or man who may approach them. The Indians attribute the fact of not more than two or three bulls being found in a herd of above a hundred cattle, to the bulls killing each other in combating for the females.

Porcupines are met with, though scarce, over all the wooded continent of North America. The porcupine is a slow, stupid animal; its flesh is very delicate, and the quills are made into a variety of ornaments by the Indian women.

The loup cervier, commonly called the wild cat, is of the genus *felinum*, and nearly the height of a greyhound. It has scarcely any tail, and is of a grey colour; the fur is not very valuable. The flesh is white, and considered very delicate. These animals

are rather numerous, and are said to have the treacherous disposition of the tiger. Numbers of sheep are destroyed by them; and one will kill several of these unresisting creatures during a night, as they suck the blood only, leaving the flesh untouched. They are far more courageous than the wolf, and have not unfrequently driven that animal from its prey.

The musquash, or musk rat, is a black animal, about twice the size of a large rat. It has some resemblance to the beaver in its habits, and is also a gregarious animal. In winter, when the ponds are frozen over, a whole family build a hut on the ice, with sticks, rushes, and mud. They keep a hole open under this building, for the purpose of getting into the water for fish or other food.

Otters are of the same species as in Europe, but the fur is rather finer. The lesser otter of Canada is the same as the jackash.

The mink is a small black animal, with fine fur. It resembles the otter, and lives in the same manner.

There are four varieties of squirrels—the striped, the brown, the grey, and the flying squirrels. The fur of these beautiful, graceful animals is made into muffs and tippets, and used also for caps and hats by the hatters. They lay up a store of provisions for winter, principally of beech nuts; and if corn-fields be near the woods, these industrious little creatures will assuredly have a share. It is amusing enough to see them running off, with their mouths full of corn, to some hollow tree; and wicked boys consider

the finding out of a squirrel's store by no means an invaluable discovery.

Weasels and ermines are natives of America, as well as of Europe, but they are not numerous.

A great variety of mice are met with.

Bats, but of an inferior size, are common during summer.

The walrus (frequently, but unmeaningly, called sea-horse and sea-cow) formerly resorted to the shores of the Gulf of St Lawrence, but is now rarely seen except on the northern coast of Labrador and Hudson's Bay ; occasionally it is yet seen at the Magdalen Islands, and near the Straits of Belle Isle. From all the information to be had, they are fond of being in herds, and their affection for each other is very apparent. The form of the body, and of the head, with the exception of the nose being broader, and having two tusks from fifteen inches to two feet long in the upper jaw, is not very unlike that of the seal. A full-grown walrus will weigh at least 4000 lbs. The skins are valuable, being about an inch in thickness, astonishingly tough, and the Acadian French used to cut them into strips for traces and other purposes. The tusks are excellent ivory. The flesh is hard, tough, and greasy, and not much relished even by the Esquimaux. They are said to feed on shellfish and marine plants. They will attack a small boat, merely through wantonness ; and, as they generally attempt to stave it, are extremely dangerous. Their blazing eyes, and their tusks, give them a formidable appearance ; but, unless wounded, or any

of their number be killed, they do not seem ever to intend hurting the men. About forty years ago a crew of Acadian Frenchmen, in a schooner from Prince Edward's Island, caught and killed a young walrus, in the Gulf of St Lawrence. A little time after, as one of the men was skinning it in the boat alongside the vessel, an old walrus rose up, and got hold of the man between the tusks and fore-fins, or flippers, and plunged down under water with him, and afterwards showed itself three or four times with the unfortunate man in the same position, before it disappeared altogether.\* They have been known at times to enter some distance into the woods; and persons acquainted with the manner of killing them, have got between them and the sea, and urged them on with a sharp-pointed pole, until they got the whole drove a sufficient distance from the water, when they fell to and killed these immense animals, incapable of resistance out of their element. It is said, that on being attacked in this manner, and finding themselves unable to escape, they have set up a most piteous howl and cry.

There are apparently five or six varieties of seals that frequent the coasts of America, but, with the exception of the harbour seal (*phoca vitulina*), which does not seem to be migratory, it is probable that age and accident produce the difference in size, shape, and colour, that has occasioned their being classed in

\* This circumstance is well known, and was related to me several times by the ill-fated man's brother, who was, at the time of the melancholy circumstance, on board the schooner.

varieties, as they all come down on the ice from the hyperborean regions in immense herds. They leave the polar seas with the ice, on which they appear to bring forth their young. On the ice dissolving, they return again to the north. Five kinds are named in the Greenland seas, and these come down to the coasts of Labrador, Newfoundland, and to the Gulf of St Lawrence : the harp seal (*phoca Groenlandica*), the hooded seal (*phoca leonina*), and three other varieties, the square flipper, the blue seal, and the jar seal.

Herds of these, many leagues in extent on the ice, seem to have no means of subsistence. Caplin, and other substances, are, it is true, occasionally found in their stomachs ; but, from the impossibility of their being able often for a week to get off the ice into the water, it is wonderful that both old and young are exceedingly fat. The flesh is very unpalatable. Many of these seals are beautifully speckled black and white, others grey, and some blue. As the blubber and skins of seals form important articles of commerce, an account of the fitting out vessels for, and the enterprising business of, hunting these animals, will be given in another part of this work.

Of the birds which are peculiar to, or that frequent or breed in, America, probably not half the different species have yet been classed, or are even distinctly known by naturalists.

The industry of Pennant, Wilson, and some other men of observation and research, has added valuable stores to American ornithology ; yet, notwith-

standing all we can expect from the enquiries and perseverance of late travellers, we may safely presume that much is still to be learned.

There is more difference between the feathered tribes of America and those of Europe, than is generally known,—the plumage of the former being more rich and splendid; the language or music of the latter more distinctly varied, more rapturous and harmonious.

The birds most generally known in America, according to their common names, are—

Four or five kinds of owls; the crow and raven, which are the same in kind and habits as those of Europe; woodpeckers, of which there are five or more kinds; snow-bird, red-hooded winter-bird, cat-bird, partridge, or grouse, ptarmigan, blue jay, king's fisher, &c., which remain during the year; and those that migrate to other countries, or that disappear during winter, among which are—the bald eagle, large brown hawk, musquito hawk, falcon, whip-poor-will, tomtit, yellowbird, magpie, brown eagle, common hawk, martin, wild pigeon, bob-lincoln, bluebird, spring-bird, blackbird, robin, or American thrush; snipe, plover, and spotted godwait, or yellow-legs, and beachbird of the plover species; white gull, grey gull, herring gull, besides more varieties of the gull kind; crane, two descriptions; bittern, wild goose, eight or ten varieties; brent, wild grey duck, black duck, sea-duck, dipper, widgeon, sea pigeon, or black gullemot, teal, sheldrake, or goosander; loon, or northern driver,

three varieties; shag, gannet, penguin; swan, two kinds; dunster goose, or eider duck, very plentiful.

The red-crested woodpecker is in shape and plumage perhaps the most beautiful bird in North America. Its body is shielded by close feathers of black jet, shaded with greenish gold, and its head proudly crested with brilliant scarlet.

The yellow-speckled woodpecker, which is the same as the golden-winged bird of Mr Pennant, is also a beautiful bird.

Of owls, the large speckled, the grey, and cat-faced, are best known; their murmuring, screaming, screeching notes are peculiarly disagreeable, and forcibly impressive in the solitude of dark fir forests, which are their favourite abodes.

Wild pigeons migrate north during summer, in flocks of incredible numbers. They have been known to darken the sky for miles; we do not, however, meet with them in the maritime colonies in such vast multitudes, although very abundant in Upper Canada; and in parts of Lower Canada, they are astonishingly numerous, and very destructive to corn-fields. They have a beautiful blue plumage, tinged with shades of green, red, and gold, and a long tail. They are excellent eating, and their price in the Quebec and Montreal markets, in consequence of their plentiful numbers, is less than the same weight of any other animal food.

The birds called indiscriminately partridges, in America, are different from the partridges of England.



The birch partridge is a large variety of grouse. It is in fact the ruffed grouse. Its colour is beautifully variegated with brown, white, and black. Its handsome tail, which it spreads like a fan, is prettily crossed with stripes of black, light chocolate, and white; they have a beautiful glossy rich purple ruff round the neck, which they can erect at will. They are larger than an English partridge, and equally delicious. They lay ten to fourteen eggs, making their nests on the ground. A peculiarity of this bird is, the noise, resembling distant thunder, which it makes by clapping its wings. When doing so, it generally sits on a fallen withered pine or hemlock-tree, and it is probable that the sound is partly produced by flapping its wings against the wood.

The spruce partridge resembles the partridge of Europe more than the other; but its flesh is different, and it feeds principally on the branches of spruce fir.

The white partridge of Newfoundland is a species of ptarmigan. All the kinds of partridges are easily shot; sometimes a whole bevy perch on a tree, and remain until shot, one by one, apparently stultified by the first fire. There are no game-laws in North America, unless the provincial laws, which prohibit the shooting or destroying partridges between the 1st of April and the 1st of September, be considered such.

Of the wild goose there are several varieties, some of them probably accidental. The common wild goose, of a dark greyish colour, with a large white spot under the neck, is best known, and most

abundant—the Canadian goose only differs from it in size. In the more northerly parts, as at Hudson's Bay, the white and snow geese are most abundant.

Wild geese generally appear in Nova Scotia and Canada about the middle of March, and, after remaining five or six weeks, proceed to the north to breed, from whence they return in September, and leave for the south about the end of November. They fly in flocks, and in two regular files, following a leader, from which both lines diverge, so as to form a figure like the two sides of a triangle. They hatch their young in the northern and inland parts of Newfoundland, on the continent of Labrador, and the countries north of Canada. In size, the common wild goose is larger than the domestic goose, and many consider it finer eating. They are decoyed and shot in a variety of ways. They come forward towards the call, that resembles their note while flying. The Indians and others, who conceal themselves within small houses made of ice, and who have wooden decoys close by, in shape, colour, and size like these birds, bring them within half a gun-shot, by imitating their note, and often at one shot kill several out of a flock.

The brent goose is about half the size of the common wild goose, and nearly of the same colour. It also comes from the south in flocks, flying fast, and often irregularly. They arrive in May, and proceed north, for the purpose of breeding, and return again in September. Their flesh is excellent, but they are shy, and difficult to shoot.

Both black and grey wild ducks are delicious eating. The snipe is considered by epicures equal to the finest in Europe. The large, or Esquimaux curlew, is a fine bird, and excellent eating. It abounds along the sea-coast, generally near the water's edge, and, on the wing, requires a good marksman to bring it down. The other species of curlew is much smaller, and found among rocks or barren countries.

Pelicans are only met with in the interior and western parts.

Penguins were formerly abundant within the Gulf of St Lawrence, where they are now seldom seen, having retired to more northerly latitudes.

All the varieties of plover are shy, and difficult to shoot; but are always sufficiently fat and luscious to make the greatest epicurean rejoice at their appearance, well dressed, before him.

Eider ducks are very plentiful on the coast of Labrador and Hudson's Bay.

Swans are rarely met with on the sea-coast. In the remote interior country, on waters and lakes not much frequented by man, they are very abundant. The large and the small species breed on small islands in lakes. The eggs of the former are so large, that one of them is a sufficient meal even for a hungry Indian. The large swan usually weighs upwards of thirty pounds, and the smaller about twenty. Their plumage is perfectly white, with black bill and legs.

The reptiles of North America are not very numerous; among the number are a variety of snakes, a

few of which only are considered venomous;—the rattlesnake is the most so of any of the serpent kind; but nature has attached to it a singularly constructed continuation of joints, which make a rattling noise whenever the animal moves, and thus put man on his guard. They are not met with in Lower Canada, nor in the maritime colonies. Lizards, red vipers, toads, frogs, &c., abound.

When the spring opens, frogs of different kinds are heard, on fine evenings, singing in various tones. Some sing in a rough, low key, others a pitch higher, and some pipe a treble, or shrill, perpetually: the combination forming what has been termed “a frog concert.”

The principal insects are butterflies, of which there are a number of beautiful varieties; locusts, grasshoppers, and crickets; the horned-beetle, bug, adder-fly, black-fly, horse-fly, and sand-fly; mosquito, ant, hornet, wasp, bumble-bee, fire-fly, and a numerous variety of spiders.

The sting of either the wild bee, hornet, or wasp, occasions, for some time, a severe pain, accompanied with slight inflammation. These industrious little animals display great ingenuity in the construction of their nests and combs. The wild-bees commonly build their nests under ground; the wasps and hornets suspend them to the branch of a tree, and both build them of a substance resembling, when put together, light grey paper.

Mosquitoes and sand-flies are exceedingly annoying during the heat of summer, in the neighbourhood of

marshes, and in the woods; where the lands are cleared to any extent, they are seldom troublesome.

During the beautiful summer nights, one observes, in different directions, lights flashing and moving about, which are occasioned by fire-flies fluttering their wings, from under which a vivid sparkling is emitted.

The varieties of shell-fish are oysters, clams, mussels, razor shell-fish, wilkes, lobsters, crabs, shrimps, &c., and equally delicious as those taken on the English shores.

There are two or three varieties of oysters, the largest of which is from six to twelve inches long, and as fine flavoured as those taken on the British coasts.

The descriptions of fish that swarm round the shores, or that abound on the different fishing banks on the coasts of British America, are very numerous. The following are those most commonly known:—hump-back whale, and two or three other kinds; porpoise, horse-mackarel, shark, dog-fish, sturgeon, cod, eel, haddock, ling, hake, salmon, herring, alewife, mackarel, bass, shad, pond-perch, sea-perch, sculpion, trout, scale-fish, tom-cod, halibut, flounder, smelt, caplin, and cuttle-fish, or squid.

The quality of the different varieties of fish may be considered nearly similar to that of the same species caught in the British seas. Some, however, think that the cod, spring herring, and haddock, are, when fresh, inferior to those in the English market. The herring caught in spring, at which time they enter the bays to spawn, are certainly not so fat; but those

taken in autumn are equally as fine. The mackarel is a very delicious fish, and of much finer flavour than those caught on the shores of Europe.

Epicures consider the eels of the very best description. During summer and autumn, the Indians spear them in calm nights by torch-light. The torches are made of the outer rind of the birch-tree, fixed within a slit made to receive the same, in the end of a stick about four or five feet long. When lighted, it is placed in the prow of the bark canoe of the Indian, near which he stands, with a foot on each gunnel, and in a situation so ticklish, as to require the tact of a master to preserve his balance, which he does, however, with apparent ease. A boy, or sometimes his squaw (wife), paddles the canoe slowly along, while with a spear, the handle of which is from fifteen to twenty feet long, he is so dexterous and sharp-sighted, that he never misses the fish at which he darts it. Salmon, trout, and various other fishes, are taken in the same manner.

During winter, eels live under the mud, within the bays and rivers, in places where a long marine grass (called eel-grass) grows, the roots of which, penetrating several inches down through the mud, constitute their food. At this season they are taken in the following manner: A round hole, about two feet in diameter, is cut through the ice over ground in which they are usually known to take up their winter quarters. The fisherman, with a five-pronged spear, attached to a handle from twenty-five to thirty feet long, then commences, by probing the mud imme-

diately under the hole; and by going round and round in this manner, extending on one circle of ground after another, as far as the length of the spear handle will allow, comes in contact with the eels that lie underneath, and brings them up on the ice. Sometimes, in the early part of winter, we may see from fifty to sixty persons on one part of the ice, fishing eels in this way. Trout, smelt, tom-cod, and perch, are caught in winter with a hook and line, through a hole in the ice; within the Bras d'Or waters of Cape Breton, fine cod fish are taken during winter in the same manner.

In describing the fishes that abound along the coasts of our American possessions, the tribes that are of the most importance to us as affording food, and the means of employment to man, claim the greatest attention; and nature has, in the seas of those regions, so bountifully answered the necessities of our species, as to create the tribes of fishes most useful to us, in the most abundant multitudes.

The herring and cod are the most generally plentiful. The first, on which the latter feeds, precedes it, and attracts it to the shores of those countries. Then follow myriads of caplin (*salmo arcticus*), always accompanied by vast shoals of cod, which are again kept on the coasts by the multitudes of cuttlefish (*sepia loligo*), called squid in America, which the domains of the ocean send forth. Alewives and mackarel appear periodically on the coasts, all undoubtedly governed by imperative natural laws, or what we generally explain as animal instinct.

Of the cod, which ranks first in commercial importance, there appears to be four kinds, although their history has not been sufficiently attended to, in order to determine their relations to each other as species or variety.

The bank cod (which I will take upon me to class *gadus bancus*) frequents the great bank of Newfoundland, and other banks at a great distance from land. It differs from the other species, in its not approaching the shores, its living principally on shell-fish, its body being larger and stronger, its colour lighter, its scales and spots larger, and its flesh firmer.

The shore cod is nearly of the colour of the bank cod, and approaches the shores, and enters the harbours, following the smaller fish on which it feeds. It resembles most the cod on the coasts of Britain, and it is of this kind that the greatest quantity is taken, at least during late years.

The rock or red cod (*gadus callarias*) resembles, but is generally somewhat larger than, the rock cod or red-ware codling of Scotland.

The seal-head cod, called so from its head resembling that of a seal, is the most remarkable and the most rare kind. Other differences are observed in the cod, which may arise from the peculiarity of the coasts they frequent. The livers of the cod farther north are smaller; and less oil is obtained from the bank cod, than from any of the other varieties. It has been calculated that upwards of four hundred millions of cod are caught annually on the coasts of British America.



The migrations of the cod are governed by the movement of the fishes on which they feed. The herring appears along the shores and in the harbours in vast swarms, or, as they are termed, shoals, early in May, for the purpose of spawning; and they may often be discovered from the whitish colour of the water over them, which is also at times quite smooth, although blowing hard, in consequence of the oily particles thrown off with the spawn.

The cod follows the herring, and remains close to the shores for some time, and then retires two or more miles. On the coast of Newfoundland in June, and on that of Labrador in July, the caplin brings vast swarms of cod; and in August the cuttlefish appears, followed by its voracious enemy.

On the banks and within the Gulf of St Lawrence, shell-fish of various kinds are the principal food of the cod. The haddock (*gadus aeglefinus*) is much larger than on the coast of Europe, but inferior in quality. It is frequently caught among the common cod; but seldom when "the catch" is abundant.

Herring appear again on the coasts in summer and autumn, and are very fat; those caught in spring are larger, but very poor.

Alewives, or gaspereau, appear on the coasts immediately after the herring, within the harbours of the Gulf of St Lawrence; and on the coasts of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, but never, I believe, at Newfoundland, or farther north. The gaspereau somewhat resembles the herring, or is rather, in appearance, a small species of shad. The scales are stronger

and larger than those of the herring, and on the belly there is a sharp scaly ridge. When fresh, this fish is rather fat, and tolerably good eating; but when salted, it becomes thin, and much inferior to herring. It answers the West India market well, to which it forms an article of export of some importance.

In April, smelts ascend the brooks and rivulets from the sea in vast numbers to spawn. On first arriving, this delicate fish is excellent; but it soon becomes poor in fresh water.

It remains in the harbour all winter, and is caught with a hook and line through the ice.

Mackarel arrive on the coast in summer, but they are then poor. Those caught in autumn are very fat. Vast quantities are caught with seines and nets; they are also caught with a hook and line, trailing fifteen or twenty fathoms after a boat or vessel under sail.

The caplin (*salmo arcticus*) is about six or seven inches long, and resembles a smelt in form and colour, but it has very small scales. It is delicate eating, but its chief value is as bait for cod. The shores of Newfoundland and Labrador seem to be the favourite resorts of the caplin, as it appears but seldom in the Gulf of St Lawrence, or on the coasts of Nova Scotia, or farther south. The astonishing numbers of this fish which frequent Newfoundland and Labrador, would appear incredible, were not the fact witnessed by thousands for many years. Dense shoals of them are sometimes known to be more than fifty miles in length, and several miles broad, when they strike in

upon the coast, and push into the creeks and harbours. Their spawn is frequently thrown up on the beach in masses of considerable thickness, which a succeeding tide or two generally carries back to the sea.

The cuttle-fish is from six to ten inches long, molluscous, and its shape and organization peculiar. It is generally caught with jiggers ; but hundreds of tons of this fish are thrown up on the flat beaches, and the decomposition which follows, produces the most intolerable effluvia. Newfoundland is also the principal resort of the cuttle-fish. It sometimes appears at Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and occasionally at Prince Edward Island.

Salmon resort to the harbours and rivers of Labrador in great plenty, and are often abundant in many of the rivers of Newfoundland. All the rivers within the Gulf of St Lawrence, and those of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, are also frequented by salmon. They are generally larger than those that appear in the English market, and are remarkably fine when in season.

## CHAPTER IV.

Theory of the Climate of North America.

THE temperature of the climate of British America, as well as that of the United States, is extremely variable, not only in regard to sudden transitions from hot to cold, and *vice versa*, but in respect to the difference between the climate of one colony or state, and that of another.\* In remarking generally on the climate of British America, I consider the countries lying between 43° and 47° north as those to which the mean temperature of the different seasons more immediately applies.

The natural climate of Prince Edward Island, Pictou, Truro in Nova Scotia, Fredrickton in New Brunswick, and Kingston in Upper Canada, will not differ much from the following outline of the character and temperature of the seasons of America. Countries to the south of those places have warmer atmospheres, while those to the north experience proportionably much more intense cold.

\* It is said of Pennsylvania, that it is a compound of all the countries in the world.

In America, the seasons have generally, though erroneously, been reduced to two, summer and winter. The space between winter and summer is, indeed, too short to claim the appellation of spring, in the sense understood in England ; but the duration of autumn is as long as in countries under the same latitude in Europe, and is, over the whole continent of North America, the most agreeable season of the year.

The climate of America is colder in winter, and hotter in summer, than under the same parallels of latitude in Europe, and the daily variations of temperature, which depend on the winds, are also greater ; but the transitions from dry to wet weather are by no means so sudden as in England ; and we may always tell in the morning whether it will be fair all day or not, except in the case of thunder showers, which come frequently, during hot weather, in the evening, when not the smallest appearance of a cloud can be seen before mid-day.

The trade-winds, which drive the vapours of the Atlantic into that vortex of suction, the Gulf of Mexico, spread afterwards into currents, and blow in different directions, as diverted by the inequalities of the islands and continent of America. These winds are warm ; those blowing from the northern regions, cold and piercing. Rain falls in America in heavier storms, and in greater quantities, than in Europe, but not so frequently.

The summer season may be said to commence about the middle of April, or as soon as the ice disappears in the bays and rivers. In May, the weather is

generally dry and pleasant, but it rarely happens that summer becomes firmly established, without a few cold days occurring after the first warm weather. This change is occasioned by the wind shifting from south to north, or to north-east, which brings down along the sea-coast large fields of ice, and which carries along also the cold evaporations that arise in the hyperborean regions. This interruption seldom lasts for more than three or four days, during which the weather is either dry and raw, or cold and wet.

When the wind shifts to the southward, the temperature soon changes, as the cold vapours are either driven back, or dissipated by the heat of the sun, which now becomes powerful.

In latitudes south of  $50^{\circ}$  N. the southerly winds, at this period, combat and overcome, as it were, those of the north, and, restoring warmth to the air, fine weather becomes permanent. All the birds common in summer make their appearance early in May, and enliven the woods with their melody; while the frogs, those American nightingales, or, as they are often called, bog choristers, also strain their evening concerts. Vegetation proceeds with surprising quickness; wheat and oats are sown, the fields and deciduous trees assume their verdure; various indigenous and exotic flowers blow; and the smiling face of nature is truly delightful, and in grateful unison with the most agreeable associations.

In June, July, and August, the weather is excessively hot, sometimes as hot as in the West Indies, the mercury being  $90^{\circ}$  to  $100^{\circ}$  Fahrenheit. Showers

from the south-west, sometimes accompanied with thunder and lightning, occur during these months about once a-week, or every ten days, which generally shift the wind to the north-west, and produce for a short time an agreeable coolness.

The nights at this season exceed in splendour the most beautiful ones in Europe. To pourtray them in their true colours, would require more than any language can accomplish, or any pencil, but that of imagination, can execute. The air, notwithstanding the heat of the preceding day, is always pure; the sea generally unruffled, and its surface one vast mirror, reflecting with precision every visible object, either in the heavens or on the earth. The moon shines with a soft, silverlike brilliancy, and, during her retirement, the stars are seen in their utmost effulgence. Fishes of various species sport on the water; the singular note of whip-poor-will is heard from the woods; the fire-fly floats on the air, oscillating its vivid sparks; and, where the hand of man has subdued the forest, and laid the ground under the control of husbandry, may be heard the voice of the milk-maid, or the "drowsy tinkling of the distant fold." In another direction may often be seen the light of the birch torch, which the Mick-mack Indian uses in the prow of his canoe, while engaged with his spear in fishing.

In September, the weather is extremely pleasant; the days are very warm until after the middle of the month, but the evenings are agreeably cool, followed by dews at night; and about, but generally after, the

autumnal equinox, the serenity of the season is interrupted by high winds and rain. At this period the wind generally blows from some easterly point, and the weather usually clears up, with the wind from an opposite direction.

The season, from this time to the middle or latter part of October, is generally a continuation of pleasant days, moderately warm at noon, and the mornings and evenings cool, attended sometimes with slight frosts at nights. Rain occurs but seldom; and the temperature is perhaps more agreeable at this time than at any other, being neither unpleasantly hot nor cold. About the end of this month, the northerly winds begin to acquire some ascendancy over the power of the south, and there appears in the atmosphere a determination to establish cold weather, and to accomplish a general change of temperature.

Rain, sunshine, evaporations, and slight frosts, succeed each other, and the leaves of the forest, from this period, change their verdure into the most brilliant and rich colours, exhibiting the finest tints and shades of red, yellow, and sap-green, blended with violet, purple, and brown. The peculiar charm and splendour which this change imparts to American scenery, produce one of the richest landscapes in nature; and never could the pencil of an artist be engaged in a more interesting subject.

After this crisis, the air becomes colder, but the sky continues clear; and a number of fine days usually appear in November. There are frosts at night, but the sun is warm in the middle of the day; the even-



ings and mornings are pleasant, but cool, and a fire becomes agreeable. This period is termed, all over America, the "Indian summer," and is always looked for, and depended on, as the time to make preparations for the winter season. The French Canadians, and Acadians, say the atmospheric warmth, at this time, is caused by the heat of the great blaze of the prairies set on fire by the Indians, west of the lakes, to destroy the grass. However absurd this belief is, it has acquired a firm credence among an ignorant people.

About the end of November, or a little after, the frosts become more severe, and the northerly winds more prevalent; the sky, however, continues clear, and the weather dry, with the exception of a rainy day once in a week, or in every ten days. This month, and often the whole of December, pass away before severe frosts or snows become permanent, which, the old inhabitants say, never takes place until the different ponds or small lakes are filled with water by the alternate frosts, thaws, and rains that occur, or until a little after the wild geese depart for the south.

Towards the end of December, or the beginning of January, the winter season becomes firmly established; the bays and rivers are frozen over, and the ground covered to the depth of a foot or more with snow. The frost is extremely keen during the months of January, February, and the early part of March—the mercury being frequently several degrees below zero. A thaw and mild weather generally occur for a day or two about the middle of January, and some-

times in February. Thaws take place whenever the wind shifts for any time to the south, and the weather that immediately succeeds, is always extremely cold. The ice then becomes as smooth as glass, and affords a source of delightful amusement to those who are lovers of skating.

The deepest snows fall towards the latter part of February, or the beginning of March ; at which time boisterous storms sweep the snow furiously along the surface of the earth, leaving some places nearly bare, and raising immense banks in others. While these last, it may be imprudent to travel, at least on the ice, or over tracts where there is no wood, as it is impossible to see any distance through the drift. The duration of these storms, however, is seldom longer than one or two days ; and then the frost is by no means so severe as when the sky is clear. The effects of the cold in winter, are sometimes fatal. In clear frosty weather, there is little danger ; but the traveller often experiences, particularly during a snow-storm, or even in clear weather, a drowsiness and indifference to consequences, an inclination to sleep, and, at the same time, little sensibility to cold. Yielding to this influence, to which the whole frame becomes as agreeably disposed as if the person were falling asleep on a feather-bed, is inevitably fatal to life, which appears to be abstracted, with the principle of caloric, from the body by the surrounding cold, and without the least pain ; the fluids of the body gradually congealing, until the whole becomes a frozen mass. Exertion alone, until the traveller

reaches a house, can save him. Few people at present perish in America during winter ; the roads being more frequently travelled, and the inhabitants guarding more effectually against the cold than formerly.

The fine sand-like dust, which consists of snow, in the most minute but intensely frozen particles, and which searches, when whirled along by the impetuosity of the wind, through the smallest chinks of window frames, or the least opening in a house, often leaves large heaps of snow on the floor, in the course of a few hours. The Canadians and Acadians call this kind of drift *La Poudre*.

When any part of the body is frost-bitten, the most effectual remedy—and that which removes the effect of being frozen, which is much the same as that of being burnt—is rubbing the part affected, before approaching a fire or warm room, with snow.

A phenomenon appears frequently during winter, known by the appellation of silver frost. When a fine misty rain takes place, with the wind east, or north-east, (the frost not being sufficiently keen to congeal the rain until it falls,) the moment it rests on any substance, it adheres and freezes, incrusting every tree, shrub, or whatever else is exposed to the weather, with ice. The forest assumes, in consequence, the most magnificent splendour, and continues in this state until it thaws, or until the icy shell is shaken off by the winds. The woods, thus robed, especially if the sun shine, exhibit the most brilliant appearance. Every tree is loaded as if with a natural

production of gems, or silver spangles; and there is not probably any thing in the appearance of nature that would more effectually baffle the powers of a landscape painter.

The vernal equinox commonly brings on strong gales from the south, accompanied by a mighty thaw, which dissolves all the snow on the cleared lands, and weakens the ice so much, that it now opens where there are strong currents. Clear weather, with sharp frosts at night, and sunshine during the day, generally succeeds, and continues to the end of March, or the first week in April, when a snow storm frequently comes on, and severe and disagreeable weather lasts for two or three days. This is the final effort of expiring winter, and is immediately followed by a warmth of temperature, which breaks up the ice and dissolves the snows. The heat of the sun, which now becomes powerful, dries up the ground in a few days; after which, ploughing begins, and the summer season commences.

Although this outline of the general system of the climate is as near the truth as can be stated, yet the weather is often different at the same period in one year from that of another. This difference arises chiefly from the winter season setting in earlier or later, and the same may be observed as regards the commencement of summer. Thus, the winter has been known to set in, with unusual severity, in the beginning of December, and sometimes not until the middle of January. In some winters, thaws occur oftener

than in others ; and deeper snows are known in one season than for some years before. The ice breaks up one year as early as the first of April, at Montreal and the harbours within the Gulf of St Lawrence ; and it has been known strong enough, on the first of May, opposite Charlotte Town, Prince Edward Island, to bear a man across the Hillsborough. It is also generally observed, that mild winters are always succeeded by cold springs.

It cannot, however, with all these variations of climate, be said, with propriety, that the duration of winter is more than four months. Many prefer the winter to the same season in England ; and, taking the year throughout, give a preference to the climate. Though the cold is intense for nine or ten weeks, the air is dry and elastic, and free from the chilling moisture of a British winter. On the Atlantic coast, where the frost is less intense, there is more humidity.

It is maintained by some writers, that the air and earth undergo a considerable alteration of temperature when the land is cleared of the wood ; first, from the ground being exposed to the sun's rays, which cause the waters to evaporate more copiously ; second, by lessening the quantity and duration of snow ; and, third, by introducing warm winds through the openings made. From the observations of old people, who have lived fifty or sixty years in America, as well as from the writings of those who visited the new continent many years ago, it appears that the climate has become milder, and that the duration of winter is now

shorter.\* Whether this may be attributed to clearing the land of the wood, or to some unknown process going forward in the system of nature, will always remain doubtful.†

That brilliant phenomenon, aurora borealis, appears at all seasons, and in various forms. At one time faintly, in distant rays of light; at another, it assumes the appearance of bright floating standards; but more frequently, in the form of a broad crescent of light, with its extremities touching the horizon, and the inner line strongly marked; the space within it being much darker than any other part of the heavens. Its brilliancy in this form is truly beautiful; and, after retaining this appearance a short time, it generally changes into magnificent columns of light, which move majestically from the horizon towards the zenith, until, after having lighted the firmament with the most luminous colours, it suddenly vanishes, but soon re-appears, and again vanishes, and so con-

\* It must be remembered, however, that the natural dreariness of a wilderness country, especially during winter, and the slight houses of the settlers, must have had some weight in their accounts of the climate.

† That enterprising traveller, Sir Alexander M'Kenzie, considered that clearing the land of wood occasioned no very sensible diminution of cold. The Baron la Hontan, it is also recorded, left Quebec in 1690, on the 20th of November. If that be true, it is as late as a vessel can or will leave that port at the present time. Potrin-court and Champlain, on a Sunday early in January, 1607, sailed in a boat six miles up Port Royal (Annapolis, Nova Scotia) to visit a corn-field—winter wheat—dined in the sunshine, enjoyed music in the open air, &c. No winter since has been milder.

times to fade, re-appear, and change infinitely, until its brilliancy intermingles with and fills the atmosphere, and then insensibly disappears altogether. It is frequently said, that a hissing, resembling the rustling of silk, is heard during a brilliant display of aurora. I have seen it appear in a still more luminous and magnificent style than here described, in Labrador; but I never did, nor those with me, observe it accompanied with any noise, although it is by no means improbable.

The winds all over North America vary frequently, and blow at all seasons from every point of the compass.

No wind, however, is so rare as a due north one; a due south wind is also rare, but more frequent than its opposite. Cold, sharp, and dry winds blow from the north-west, and sometimes bring on light showers of snow in the beginning of winter. Winds from the north-east and east, bring on snow storms in winter, sleet and wet weather in spring, and heavy rains in summer and autumn. Thaws take place in winter with a south-easterly wind, after which the wind shifts to the north-west, the sky clears up, and severe frosts follow.\* South-west winds, inclining sometimes a point or two southward or westward, prevail through the summer and autumn: these winds are always warm, and usually spring up and blow fresh about noon, and calm off towards evening. At

\* The keen north-west wind, during winter, is often called the "Barber" in America.

other times a temporary gale comes on, with the wind at south-west, and a heavy rain in two or three hours shifts it round to north-west, blowing cold and dry. Westerly winds incline in summer to the south, and towards the north in winter, and are throughout the whole year more frequent than any other wind.

As the temperature of the climate of America depends chiefly on the winds, the formation of that continent is evidently the cause of the frosts being more intense than in countries in parallel latitudes in Europe; a consequence arising principally from the much greater breadth of America towards the pole. Winds change their character in America. North-easterly winds, which are cold and dry in Europe, are wet and truly disagreeable in America. North-westerly winds are, on the contrary, cold and dry, and frequent, during winter, in America, much about the same periods that north-easterly winds prevail in England. One great, if not the principal, cause of cold in America, is the directions of the mountainous ranges and basins of country, which conduct or influence the course of the winds.

While the sun is to the south of the equator, the winds, less under solar influence, prevail from the north-west, following, however, the great features of the continent. These winds, blowing over the vast regions of the north, are always piercing and intensely cold. The return of the sun again, by the diffusion of heat, agitates the atmosphere, and alters the winds, which blow from a contrary direction, until an equilibrium is produced. This does not, however, appear



to require much time, as no wind blows scarcely forty hours together, from any one point.

The phenomenon of thunder and lightning is accompanied in America with a more splendid though terrific sublimity, than is known in England. The clouds appear to receive from the earth greater doses of inflammable gas, and to be more abundantly saturated with caloric.

The ascent and expansion of a thunder cloud, from a small spot in the western horizon, has more of the awful majesty of sublimity, than any other phenomenon that I have ever beheld. It commences rising about noon, when it is hot and calm, the sun shining gloriously, and every other part of the sky brightly blue. A little after, a light breeze usually springs up from a point directly opposite to the thunder cloud, which now gradually and slowly moves its white summit upwards, and which not unfrequently exhibits the appearance of immense snow mountains reared over each other, among which imagination easily pictures valleys, ruins, and appearances the most romantic. Meantime, the black gloomy base of the cloud spreads along the horizon; and, as it approaches, we hear the roaring of the distant thunder. The wind still blows from a contrary direction until the sun is overcast, and the cloud reaches the zenith, when the wind immediately shifts, the lightning flashes, sometimes in broad sheets, then in streams of liquid fire, darting in zig-zag serpentine shapes; and the immediate and tremendous detonation of the atmosphere seems to shake the

foundation of worlds, while the rain comes down in such torrents as to threaten a second deluge. During these storms, accidents seldom occur; and in the course of two or three hours, the heavens clear up beautifully bright, and the most delightful evening that fancy can create usually succeeds. The vegetable world is refreshed, the animal creation recovers from the lassitude occasioned by the oppressive heat of the meridian sun, the birds hop, chirping, from bough to bough, the cattle turn out from the shade to graze, and the purified air of the evening is sufficiently cooled to be truly agreeable.

Volney, speaking of the climate of the United States, says, "Autumnal intermittent fevers, or quotidian agues, tertian, quartan, &c., constitute another class of diseases that prevails in the United States, to a degree of which no idea could be conceived. They are particularly endemic in places recently cleared, in valleys on the borders of waters, either running or stagnant, near ponds, lakes, mills, dams, marshes, &c. These autumnal fevers are not directly fatal, but they gradually undermine the constitution, and very sensibly shorten life. Other travellers have observed before me, that in South Carolina, for instance, a person is as old at fifty as an European at sixty-five or seventy; and I have heard all the Englishmen with whom I was acquainted in the United States say, that their friends who have been settled a few years in the Southern, or Central States, appear to them to grow as old again as they would have done in England or Scotland.

“ If these fevers fix on a person at the end of October, they will not quit him the whole winter, but reduce him to a state of deplorable languor and weakness. Lower Canada, and the cold countries adjacent, are scarcely at all subject to them.’ The only fever, excepting such as usually accompany severe colds, that has hitherto, as far as I have been able to trace, made its appearance in a fatal form among the inhabitants of British America, is typhus. It is not, however, dangerous, unless it be among the very lowest classes, who pay no regard to cleanliness and diet; and it seldom proves fatal even to them. This fever is by no means so alarming as it is in Europe, it appearing always as typhus mitior, and not in the form of typhus gravior. I have been informed that erysipelas has lately appeared in New Brunswick in a dangerous shape; the instances in the other colonies must have been very rare. Agues are still common in Upper Canada.

What M. Volney observes regarding premature old age among the inhabitants of the Southern States, is but too true, as well as what he says about another disease—defluxion of the gums, and rotten teeth, common in those countries.\* I have not observed

\* On my passage down the St Lawrence in 1824, from Montreal to Quebec, in one of the large steam-boats on that river, I met with several families from the Southern States, who had travelled north to visit the Canadas, and to avoid the excessive summer heat of Pennsylvania and Carolina. Among the whole, I did not observe any who possessed the bloom and florid complexion so common in the United Kingdom. I would willingly have excepted a young lady,

among the settlers in British America evident marks of premature old age; and I believe, that in no country do the inhabitants retain their faculties, or health and strength, longer; yet there is no doubt that young people arrive at maturity earlier than in England, and, generally speaking, lose the colour and bloom of youth sooner. I think, too, although it cannot be by any means considered a prevailing disease, that decayed teeth are more common than in Britain. Colds may certainly be considered the prevailing cause of disease, particularly of pulmonary consumption, which proves as frequently fatal to young married women and girls, at the age of youth and beauty, as in England. Bilious complaints are seldom known.

It is truly distressing to see a blooming maid of eighteen, or a young wife, either without front teeth, or with such as are black and decayed. Nervous disorders, the prime curse of civilisation and ease, are more common in the United States than in British America; but not so general in either as in England.

I perfectly concur with other travellers, who have observed that the hosts of gloomy, low-educated preachers who wander throughout America, are prolific causes of nervous affections. These men, whom we will, in charity, call fanatics, shake the nerves of young innocent women, by roaring out their perpe-

whose figure was extremely graceful and elegant, and whose features were beautiful. In England I would have said her age was twenty-four years. I was told, and believe it, she was not eighteen.

tual theme of preaching, the doctrine of eternal punishment, and dwelling but feebly on the reasonable principles of God's merciful justice.

Rheumatisms are more common among the labouring classes in America than in England; this arises from greater exposure to the atmosphere.

NOTE TO BOOK II.

---

NOTE A, page 74.

THE territory in dispute between Great Britain and the United States is considered to contain about 11,000 square miles, or 7,040,000 acres of land, equal, in point of fertility, valuable timber, and beautiful rivers and streams, to any part of America. Should Great Britain cede this territory, the Americans may, in fact, ask us to make them a present of Cape Breton, which will render them so formidable, that, when it suits them to declare war against us, Nova Scotia and Newfoundland may be with little trouble added to their gigantic possessions.

No man knows the importance of the disputed territory better than the excellent and able governor of New Brunswick, Sir Howard Douglas, who is at present in England, in reference to this great question, which was left to the mediation of his majesty the King of the Netherlands.

ited  
or  
ber,  
uld  
ask  
em  
us,  
led

ter  
Sir  
to  
sty





BOOK III.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

CHAPTER I.

General Description of Newfoundland—Mr Cormack's Journey across the Interior Country—Climate—Soil—Natural Productions, &c.

THE island of Newfoundland is situated nearer to Europe than any of the islands, or any part of the continent, of America; and lies within the latitudes of  $46^{\circ} 40'$  and  $51^{\circ} 37'$  N., and the longitudes of  $52^{\circ} 25'$  and  $59^{\circ} 15'$  W.

It approaches to a triangular form, and is broken and indented with broad and deep bays, innumerable harbours, coves, lakes, and rivers. Its configuration is wild and rugged, and its aspect from the sea far from prepossessing, which was probably the cause of unfavourable opinions respecting its settlement having been so generally entertained.

The interior of this large island remained unexplored from its discovery, until within the last six or seven years. Before then, only the harbours, and



some few places a little distance from the shore, were known to Europeans. The Indians alone were well acquainted with the inland parts. Some furriers, who cared little for the natural condition of the country, and who were too ignorant to describe it, have occasionally, during winter, proceeded on the ice a considerable distance up the rivers in quest of beavers and other wild animals. From these men nothing satisfactory could be ascertained or expected; and their character was, in other respects, too suspicious to place any reliance on what they stated, particularly in regard to the Red Indians; it being well known that they shot these unfortunate savages with as much indifference as if they were red foxes.

Mr Cornack, in 1822, accompanied by Indians, accomplished a journey across the island, from Trinity Bay to St George's Bay. This was a most arduous and perilous undertaking, when the rugged, broken configuration of the country is considered. He proceeded from Random Island, in Smith's Sound, Trinity Bay, early in September, accompanied by one Mic-mac Indian, and directed his course across the country by a pocket compass. The greatest obstacles to his travelling were the innumerable lakes. To walk round them was indeed a task of no ordinary difficulty. Being the first European who discovered them, he adopted the usual right of giving them names; many of which he styled after those of his friends. He engaged another Indian, about the centre of the island, to accompany him; and after enduring much fatigue,

and often a precarious subsistence, having to depend altogether for food on their success in shooting wild animals, he reached St George's Bay, on the west side of Newfoundland, in the month of November. Mr Cormack found the interior of the island much more broken up with water than is generally known, lakes, rocks, marshes, and scrubby trees, forming its general character. In its geological aspect, granite prevailed everywhere; and the exceptions that presented themselves were, porphyry, quartz, gneis, sienite, basalts, mica-slate, clay-slate, and secondary sandstone. He met with many indications of iron, and found coal; and crossed several ridges of beautiful serpentine, about the centre of the country, near the lake which he called Jameson's Lake, and Jameson Mountains, and at Serpentine Lake. The eastern half of the interior is generally a low picturesque country, traversed by hills and lakes, and the whole diversified with trees of humble growth. The country to the westward he found rugged and mountainous, with little wood, until within a few miles of the western coast. The mountains are not generally in ridges, each seeming to have its own particular base.

There are large tracts of peat marsh in the interior, which produce a strong wiry grass, and which appear to have been once wooded, Mr Cormack having discovered trunks and roots of much larger trees under the surface than any now growing in Newfoundland. Spruce, birch, and larch, compose the woods. Pine is seldom met with, and that generally of a small

growth. Mountain ashes, "few and far between," occur.

Whortleberry bushes, and *wisha-capuca*, (Indian tea,) predominate on the high unwooded grounds. Mr Cormack considers the best soil to be along the rivers, and at the heads of the bays; and he regards both the soil and climate as unfavourable to the raising of grain, but well adapted for grazing, and the cultivation of potatoes and other green crops. Eight miles up Great Barrisais river, St George's Bay, he discovered excellent coal, some salt springs, and a sulphurous spring. He found there, also, gypsum and red ochre in abundance.

In the interior, he observed vast herds of deer of the cariboo kind, which resort to the woods in winter, and in summer come out into the plains and barren grounds. Their flesh forms nearly the whole food of the Mic-mac and Red Indians. Beavers are now much more scarce than formerly. Foxes are still numerous along the rivers and sea-coast. The Mic-mac Indians proceed by different routes into the interior; they go by East Bay river, in their birch-bark canoes, as far as Serpentine Lake; and from thence proceed from lake to lake in their small basket, or wicker-work canoes, covered with skins. These resemble those said to have been used by the ancient Britons. When hunting beaver, the Mic-mac Indians allow a periodical term of three years to intervene from the time of disturbing a particular rendezvous until they again visit it. Mr Cormack thinks that paths might, without much difficulty, be made across

the interior, to permit horses and cattle to pass along during summer.

Although Newfoundland was the first discovered of all the British colonies, yet it is, in reality, the most imperfectly known in Great Britain. It has been described as thickly wooded, which is not the case: trees of any size are only found within the bays, near the water, and along the rivers. On the Atlantic coast, there is but little wood of any value, except for fuel, and the building of small boats.

In the northern parts of the island, where the most extensive forests abounded, fires have destroyed the largest trees, which have been succeeded by those of a different and smaller species; so that, although the island has probably a sufficient quantity of wood growing on it for its own use, yet it certainly cannot afford to export any, nor can it supply, as has been asserted, large masts for the navy.

The climate has generally been misrepresented, and declared to be unusually severe, humid, and disagreeable. On the east and south coasts, when the winds blow from the sea, humidity certainly prevails, and during winter the cold is severe.

The harbours on the Atlantic shore are not so long frozen over as the most southerly of those within the Gulf of St Lawrence. On the west coast, from Cape Ray north, and in the interior, the atmosphere is generally clear, and the climate is much the same as that of the district of Gaspé, in Lower Canada. There is no country where the inhabitants enjoy better health, or where, notwithstanding the fatigue and

hardships to which a fisherman's life is subjected, more of them attain to longevity.\*

During the summer months, the days and nights are, with few exceptions, very pleasant. The temperature of the atmosphere is indeed frequently hot about mid-day, and often oppressively so; but in the mornings and evenings, and at night, exceedingly agreeable.

As there are nearly five degrees of latitude between the southern and northern points of Newfoundland, it follows that there is a considerable difference in the duration and severity of winter. The climate of Conception Bay may probably be considered as possessing the mean temperature of the island. The most disagreeable periods are the setting in and breaking up of winter, and especially at the time when the large fields of ice, that are formed in the hyperborean regions, are carried along the coast by the northerly winds and currents.

In comparing Newfoundland with any other country, I consider that the western Highlands of Scotland bear a striking resemblance to many parts of it; and

\* There was last year (1829), and probably is still, living on the island of Marasheen, Placentia Bay, a man named Martin Galten, more than 100 years old, in excellent health, and who caught that year, in a boat with his brother, ninety quintals of cod-fish. He piloted Captain Cook into Placentia Bay about seventy years ago. There are many extraordinary instances of longevity in the same place; among whom, Nancy Tibeau is the mother of four living generations; and a Mrs Tait, who died in 1819, was 125 years old, and was along with her third husband at the siege of Quebec. The above information was given me by a very intelligent gentleman residing at Marasheen.

there is nothing that the latter will produce but what will grow, with the same care and cultivation, in the former. The winters of Newfoundland are, it is true, colder, but in summer and autumn the weather is, for two or three months, so hot, as to bring many fruits to perfection that will not ripen in Scotland.

The sea-coast, from Fortune Bay to Cape Ray, is everywhere indented, like the south-east coast of Nova Scotia, which it resembles, with harbours; but the lands, especially near the sea, are rocky, thinly wooded, and with scarcely any soil fit for cultivation. On the west coast, particularly at St George's Bay, where there is a settlement, there are tracts of excellent land, with deep and fertile soils, and covered in many places with heavy timber. Coal, limestone, and gypsum, abound in great plenty in this part of the island.

At the heads of the bays, and along the rivers, there are many tracts of land formed of deposits washed from the hills; the soil of which tracts is of much the same quality as that of the savannas in the interior of America. These lands, should the increasing population render it desirable, might be converted into excellent meadows; and if drained, to carry off the water which covers them after the snows dissolve, they would yield good barley, oats, &c. The rich pasturage which the island affords, adapts it, in an eminent degree, to the breeding and raising of cattle and sheep; and I believe that it might produce a sufficient quantity of beef to supply its fisheries.

From the earliest period of the settlement of Newfoundland down to the present time, objections have been made, and obstacles have been raised, in order to discourage its cultivation. That the fisheries of this colony constitute its political and commercial value and importance, no one acquainted with it can deny. The depressed state of its fisheries, ever since the French and Americans obtained a participation in this great branch of our commerce, has placed Newfoundland in a position different from that which previously distinguished it. The sudden change was such, that there is little hazard in asserting, that, were it not for the auxiliary support which the inhabitants derived from the cultivation of the soil, they could not have existed by the production of the fisheries alone; and, as they otherwise would have had to remove to the neighbouring colonies, or to the United States, the probable consequence would be, that the Americans and French would before this have enjoyed the benefit of expelling us altogether from supplying foreign markets with fish.

The natural productions of Newfoundland are, trees of the fir tribe, poplars, birches, a few maple-trees, wild cherry-trees, and a great variety of shrubs; blueberries and cranberries grow in great abundance; also small red strawberries, and several other kinds of wild fruit. English cherries, black, red, and white currants, gooseberries, &c., ripen in perfection. Natural grasses grow, particularly in the plains, all over the country. The wild animals are, bears, deer, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, martens, minks, musk-rats, hares, and



all the aquatic and land birds common to the northern parts of America. Mosquitoes are in many parts numerous and troublesome; and a great variety of other insects are common.

The Newfoundland dog is a celebrated and useful animal, well known. These dogs are remarkably docile and obedient to their masters; they are very serviceable in all the fishing plantations; and are yoked in pairs, and used to haul the winter fuel home. They are gentle, faithful, good-natured, and ever a friend to man, at whose command they will leap into the water from the highest precipice, and in the coldest weather. They are remarkably voracious, but can endure (like the aborigines of the country) hunger for a great length of time; and they are usually fed upon the worst of salted fish. The true breed has become scarce, and difficult to be met with. They grow to a greater size than an English mastiff, have a fine close fur, and the colour is of various kinds; but black, which is most approved of, prevails. The smooth short-haired dog, so much admired in England as a Newfoundland dog, though an useful and sagacious animal, and nearly as hardy and fond of the water, is a cross breed. It, however, seems to inherit all the virtues of the true kind. A Newfoundland dog will, if properly domesticated and trained, defend his master, growl when another person speaks roughly to him, and in no instance of danger leave him. This animal, in a wild state, hunts in packs, and is then ferocious, and in its habits similar to the wolf. They are fond of children, and

much attached to the members of the house to which they belong ; but frequently cherish a cross antipathy to a stranger, or to those who wantonly fling sticks or stones at them. They will neither attack nor fight a dog of inferior size, but growl at snarling curs, and throw them to a side. They suffer cats to play with, and even to lie and sleep on the top of them. They are great enemies to sheep, which they never hesitate to kill, but partake only of the blood. When hungry, they will not scruple to steal a fowl, salmon, or piece of meat ; yet they will watch a carcass of beef or mutton belonging to their masters, keep off other dogs, and never touch it themselves.

They fight courageously with dogs of their own size and strength, and will start immediately on hearing other dogs fight, to restore peace among them. So sagacious, indeed, are these animals, that they only seem to want the faculty of speech to make them fully understood ; and they are capable of being trained to all the purposes for which almost every other variety of the canine species are used.

## CHAPTER II.

Sketch of its History.

NEWFOUNDLAND, although occupying no distinguished place in the history of the New World, has, notwithstanding, at least for two centuries and a half after its discovery by Cabot in 1479, been of more mighty importance to Great Britain than any other colony; and it is doubtful if the British empire could have risen to its great and superior rank among the nations of the earth, if any other power had held the possession of Newfoundland, its fishery having ever since its commencement furnished our navy with a great proportion of its hardy and brave sailors.

France made a claim to Newfoundland, under pretence of priority of discovery; alleging, that the fishermen of Biscay frequented the banks even before the first voyage of Columbus, and that Verazani afterwards discovered it sooner than England. These pretensions, however, could not constitute a right in France, as Cabot, by the most undoubted authority, discovered and landed on the coast several years before, and took possession of this island, which he named Baccalaos,\* and on the island of St John's (now

\* The name by which the natives called cod-fish, which were so abundant as to induce Cabot to give this name to the country.

Prince Edward Island): from the latter he carried away three natives to England. He also discovered the continent of Norembegua, the ancient name of all that part of America situated between the Gulf of St Lawrence and Virginia \*

The first attempt made by the English to form a settlement in Newfoundland, was in the latter part of the reign of Henry VIII., at the recommendation of Messrs Elliot and Thom, who traded there with leave from the crown; and to such advantage, that an expedition was made, at the expense of a Mr Hare, a merchant of eminence, and his friends, for the purpose of planting Newfoundland.

From their ignorance of the nature of the country they failed in their attempt, and were reduced to great wretchedness through famine and fatigue. From this period until 1579, all thoughts of prosecuting the discovery and settlement of Newfoundland were relinquished, although we had then fifteen ships engaged in its fisheries. About this time, Captain Whitburn, who was employed by a merchant of Southampton, in a ship of three hundred tons, put into Trinity Bay, where he was so successful, that, with a full cargo of fish, &c., he cleared the expenses of the voyage. He says, "we saw in 1610 a mermaid in St John's harbour," and in 1612, "we saw Easton the arch-pirate, with ten sail of good vessels, well furnished, and very rich:" "many pirates fre-

\* Vide Hackluyt's Voyages. De Thou. Herrera. Hist. Gen. Amer. Raynal.

mented the coast at this time." He afterwards repeated the voyage, formed an acquaintance with the natives, and, during his residence, Sir Humphrey Gilbert arrived in Newfoundland with three ships (some say five) and 250 men, with a commission from Queen Elizabeth to take possession of the island for the crown. On the 5th August, 1583, he took formal possession in the name of his sovereign, and received the acknowledged obedience of the crews of thirty-six vessels of different nations, then in the harbour of St John's.

He then promulgated some laws for the government of the colony, and levied contributions of provisions on the ships there. He left Newfoundland on the 20th August with three ships, one of which was lost on the Isle of Sables; and on returning homeward, the ship which he commanded foundered during a storm, and all on board perished. He is described as a gentleman of the most amiable character, engaging manners, courage, wisdom, and learning, and also much esteemed by Queen Elizabeth. He may justly be considered the parent of English colonies. After this we find no mention of Newfoundland until 1585, when a voyage was made there by Sir Bernard Drake, who claimed its sovereignty and fishery in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and seized upon several Portuguese ships laden with fish, oil, and furs.

The most active spirit of discovery and commercial enterprise was at this period beginning to rouse the people of England; but the war with Spain, and the

terror of the Grand Armada, checked, although it did not subdue, the ardour of the most sanguine of those who were bent on planting newly-discovered countries ; and fifteen years passed away before another voyage was made to Newfoundland. The spirit of trade and discovery was again revived in England by Mr Guy, an intelligent merchant of Bristol, who wrote several judicious treatises on colonization and commerce ; and, from the arguments of this gentleman, several persons of distinction applied to James I. for that part of Newfoundland lying between the Capes of St Mary and Bonavista, which they obtained in 1610, under the designation of "The Treasurer and Company of Adventurers and Planters of the Cities of London and Bristol, for the Colony of Newfoundland." This patent was granted to the Earl of Northampton, the Lord Chief Baron Tanfield, Sir John Doddridge, Lord Chancellor Bacon, Lord Verulam, &c., and was in substance, "That whereas divers of his Majesty's subjects were desirous to plant in the southern and eastern parts of Newfoundland, where the subjects of this realm have, for upwards of fifty years past, been used annually, in no small numbers, to resort to fish, intending thereby to secure the trade of fishing to our subjects for ever ; as also to make some advantage of the lands thereof, which hitherto have remained unprofitable ; wherefore, his Majesty now grants to Henry, Earl of Northampton, (and forty-four persons herein named,) their heirs and assigns, to be a corporation with perpetual succession, &c., by the name of the Treasurer and Com-

pany of Adventurers and Planters of the Cities of London and Bristol, for the Colony and Plantation in Newfoundland, from north latitude  $46^{\circ}$  to  $52^{\circ}$ ; together with the seas and islands lying within ten leagues of the coast; and all mines, &c., saving to all his Majesty's subjects the liberty of fishing there," &c.

Mr Guy went to Newfoundland as conductor of the first colony, which he settled in Conception Bay, and remained there two years; during which time he contracted, by his courteous and humane conduct, a friendship with the natives. He left behind him some of his people, to form the foundation of a colony; but, as the fishery was the main object of the English, the planting of Newfoundland was not attended to.\*

In 1614, Captain Whitburn, who had made several fishing voyages, carried with him this year a commission from the Admiralty to empannel juries, and investigate upon oath divers abuses and disorders committed amongst the fishermen on the coast. By this commission he held, immediately on his arrival, a court of admiralty, where complaints were received from an hundred and seventy masters of vessels, of injuries committed, variously affecting their trade and navigation.

In 1616, Doctor William Vaughan, who purchased from the patentees a part of the country included in the patent, settled a small colony of his countrymen,

\* Vessels of not more than thirty-five tons made voyages to Newfoundland about this time.

from Wales, in the southernmost part of the island, (which he named Cambriol,) now called Little Britain. He appointed Whitburn governor ; and his scheme was for the fishery of Newfoundland to go hand in hand with his plantation.\*

In 1621, Sir George Calvert, afterwards Lord Baltimore, obtained a grant from King James, of that part of Newfoundland situated between the Bay of Bulls and Cape St Mary's, in order that he might enjoy that free exercise of his religion (being a Catholic) which was denied him in his own country. The same spirit drove at this time crowds of Puritans to New England. How it was managed to grant this property to Sir George Calvert, without invading the right of the company, of which it certainly formed a part, is not accounted for.

Sir George sent Captain Edward Wynne, who held the commission of governor, before him, with a small colony, and in the meanwhile embarked his fortune and talents, and engaged all the interest of his friends, in securing the success of his plan. Ferryland, the place where Wynne settled, was judiciously chosen. He built the largest house ever erected on the island, with granaries, storehouses, &c., and was, in the following year, reinforced by a number of settlers, with necessary implements, stores, &c. He erected a salt-work also, which was brought to considerable perfection ; and the colony was soon after described, and with truth too, to be in a very flourishing condition ;

\* Anderson on Commerce, vol. i. p. 495.



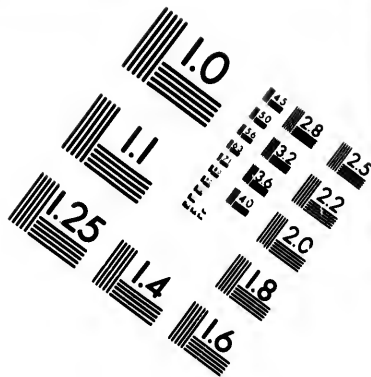
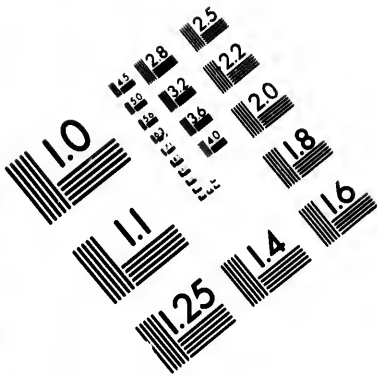
and so delighted was the proprietor, now created Lord Baltimore, with the prosperity of the colony, that he emigrated there with his family, built a handsome and commodious house and a strong fort at Ferryland, and resided many years on the island.

About the same time, Lord Falkland, then Lord Lieutenant, sent a colony from Ireland to Newfoundland; but Lord Baltimore's departure soon after for England, to obtain a grant for that part of the country called Maryland, prevented the growing prosperity of his colony, which he called Avalon,\* but which, however, he still retained, and governed by his deputies.

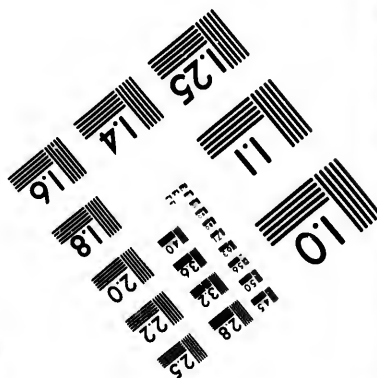
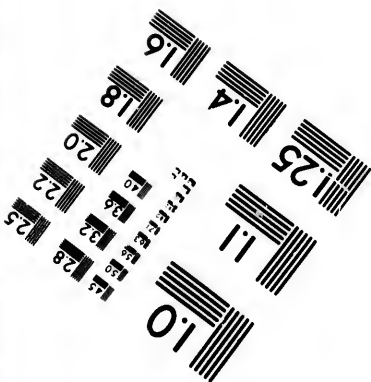
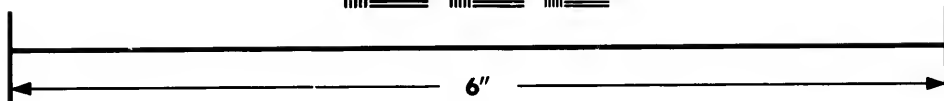
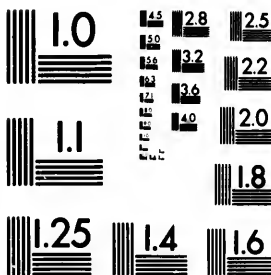
In the course of about twenty years after Lord Baltimore planted Ferryland, about three hundred and fifty families were settled in fifteen or sixteen parts of the island; and a more decided interest in its affairs was taken than at any former period. This led, on the part of the inhabitants, to apply for some civil magistrates, to decide matters of dispute or disorder among them; but the measure was strenuously opposed by the merchants and shipowners in England concerned in the trade, who petitioned the Privy Council against the appointment of any governor to manage the affairs of Newfoundland, and the prayer of this petition was absurdly enough granted.

\* This was the ancient name of a place in Somersetshire on which Glastonbury now stands, and is said to be the spot where Christianity was first preached in Britain. Lord Baltimore, with the idea that his province was the place in America where Christianity was first introduced, named it Avalon.





**IMAGE EVALUATION  
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic  
Sciences  
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET  
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580  
(716) 872-4503

1.5 1.8 2.0 2.2 2.5  
2.8 3.2 3.6 4.0 4.5  
5.0 5.6 6.3 7.1 8.0

10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20

In 1674, however, farther application, by petition to the king, was made for a governor ; and the petition being referred to the Lords of Trade and Plantations, their lordships proposed that all plantations in Newfoundland should be discouraged, and that the commander of the convoys should compel the inhabitants to depart from the island, by putting in execution one of the conditions of the western charter. His Majesty was induced to approve of this report ; and, under its sanction, the most cruel and wanton acts were committed on the inhabitants ; their houses were burnt, and a variety of severe and arbitrary measures resorted to for the purpose of driving them from the country.

The extent to which the cruelties committed on the inhabitants had been carried, induced Sir John Berry, the commander of the convoy, about this time to represent to government the policy of colonizing Newfoundland. His advice, however, was not attended to.

In 1676, on the representation of John Downing, a resident inhabitant, his Majesty directed that none of the settlers should be disturbed. But in the following year, in pursuance of an order in council that had been made on the petition of the western adventurers, the Committee of Trade, &c., reported, that, notwithstanding a clause in the western charter, prohibiting the transport to Newfoundland of any persons but such as were of the ship's company, the magistrates of the western ports did permit passengers and private boat-keepers to transport themselves thither, to the injury of the fishery ; and they were

of opinion that the abuse might hereafter be prevented by those magistrates, the vice-admirals, and also by the officers of customs.

A petition, on the part of the inhabitants of Newfoundland, soon followed this representation; and in order to investigate the matter fully, it was ordered that the adventurers and planters should each be heard by their counsel. The question was thus seriously argued, and afterwards referred, as formerly, to the Committee of Trade; but no report seems to have been made on this occasion, and no steps for regulating the settlement or fishery of Newfoundland were adopted, until the Board of Trade, instituted in January 1697, took up the subject, among others that came under their province. They made a report, which, however, applied more to the defence of the island, than to its civil regulations, and went no farther than to express an opinion, that a moderate number of planters, not exceeding one thousand, were useful in the construction of boats, stages, and other necessaries for the fisheries. The English, in 1692, made a feeble attempt to take Placentia, then commanded by the Baron La Hontan from France. This was unsuccessful, in consequence of the irresolution of the commander of our squadron; and in 1696, England had the mortification to know that France took from us all our settlements in Newfoundland, except Bonavista and Carbonier.

The English, however, soon repossessed themselves of St John's, and all the other places taken by France. But, at this period, that nation began to evince a

spirit of determination to become mistress of all America; and the fisheries of Newfoundland, as appears fully by the celebrated marine ordinance of Louis XIV., drawn up under the great Colbert, were not the least objects of her ambition.

In 1690, the statute 10 and 11 William and Mary, cap. 25, entitled, "An Act to encourage the trade of Newfoundland," passed; but as the substance of this act appears to embody the policy of former times, it tended to no purpose other than to legalize misrule, and the capricious will of ignorant men, invested accidentally by it with authority.

These persons were distinguished by the dignified titles, or rather nicknames, of admirals, vice-admirals, and rear-admirals. The master of the first fishing-vessel that arrived, was the admiral; the next, vice-admiral; and the third, rear-admiral, in the harbours they frequented. Few of these men could write their own names; and from this circumstance alone the absurdity of investing them with power must be apparent.

The report made in 1701 by Mr George Larkin, who went to the American settlements to make observations for the information of government, contains many remarks that deserve attention. He found Newfoundland in a very disorderly and confused condition. The woods were wantonly destroyed by rinding the trees. The New England men (as is their custom now, in 1828, in many of our harbours) sold their commodities cheap, in general; but constrained the purchasers to take certain quantities of

rum, which the inhabitants sold to the fishermen, and which tempted them to remain on the island, and leave their families in England, a burden upon the parish. The inhabitants also sold rum to their servants, who got into debt, and were forced to hire themselves in payment, so that one month's profuse living often left them in bondage for a year.\*

The fishermen from New England were accustomed to inveigle away many of the seamen and servants, with promises of high wages; but these men were generally disappointed, and in the end became pirates. The inhabitants he represents as a profuse sort of people, who cared not at what rate they got into debt; and that, as the act of King William gave the planters a title, it was much to be regretted that proper regulations were not made for their government, more particularly as the island, from its having no civil power, was then become a sanctuary for people who failed in England.

Upon complaints being made to the commander on the station, it had been customary for him to send his lieutenants to the different harbours to decide disputes between masters of fishing vessels and the planters, and between them again and their servants; but upon such occasions, Mr Larkins alleges those matters were conducted in the most corrupt manner. He that made a present of most quintals of fish, was certain to have a judgment in his favour. Even the commanders themselves were said to be, in this respect,

\* This has been common in all the British American colonies and prevails to this day.



faulty. After the fishing season was over, masters beat their servants, and servants their masters.

The war with France in 1702—as the French, at that period, were masters of Canada, Cape Breton, &c., and were also established in Newfoundland, at Placentia—disturbed the fisheries and other affairs of Newfoundland; and in 1708, the French took St John's, and some places in Conception Bay, which they held until the peace of Utrecht.

In 1708 the House of Commons addressed Queen Anne on the subject of the better execution of laws in Newfoundland, when it was, as usual, referred to the Board of Trade, which only went so far as to get the opinion of the Attorney-General on the statute of King William.

Two years after, fifteen very useful regulations were agreed upon at St John's, for the better discipline and good order of the people, and for correcting irregularities contrary to good laws and acts of Parliament. These regulations, or by-laws, were debated and resolved on at courts, or meetings, held at St John's; where were present, and had all a voice, a mixed assemblage of merchants, masters of merchantships, and planters. This anomalous assembly formed, at the time, a kind of public body, exercising executive, judicial, and legislative power.

By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, Placentia, and all other parts of Newfoundland occupied by the French, were, in full sovereignty, ceded to Great Britain; the French, however, retaining a license to come and go during the fishing season.

The Guipusecoans were also, in an ambiguous manner, acknowledged to have a claim, as a matter of right, to a participation in the fishery; which the Board of Trade declared afterwards, in 1718, to be inadmissible.

Government about this time, as well as the merchants, began to direct their attention to the trade of the island, with more spirit than they had hitherto shown. A Captain Taverner was commissioned to survey its coasts; a lieutenant-governor was appointed to command the fort at Placentia, and a ship of war kept cruising round the island, to keep the French at their limits.

In 1729, it was concluded, principally through the representation of Lord Vere Beauclerk, the commander on the station, to establish some permanent government, which ended, as Mr Reeves observes, in the appointment, "not of a person skilled in the law," as had been proposed, but of a Captain Henry Osborne, commander of his majesty's ship the Squirrel. Lord Vere Beauclerk, who set sail for Newfoundland with the governor, in the summer of this year, received a box, containing eleven sets of Shaw's Practical Justice of the Peace, being one for each of the following places, which were respectively impressed on the covers in gold letters: "Placentia, St John's, Carbonier, Bay of Bulls, Ferryland, Trepasse, Bay de Verd, Trinity Bay, Bonavista, and Old Parlekin, in Newfoundland;" together with thirteen copies of the statute of King William, and the acts relating to the navigation and trade of the kingdoms.

The commission delivered to Captain Osborne revoked so much of the commission to the governor of Nova Scotia as related to Newfoundland. It then goes on to appoint Captain Osborne governor of the island of Newfoundland, and gives him authority to administer oaths to justices of the peace, and other officers whom he may appoint under him, for the better administration of justice, and keeping the peace of the island. He was empowered also to erect a court-house and prison ; and all officers, civil and military, were directed to aid and assist him in executing his commission. He appointed the first sheriff of the island.

The petty jealousies and interests of the fishing admirals, merchants, and planters, prevented Osborne and his successors, for a period of twenty years, from carrying into execution the objects and regulations contained in their commissions and instructions. Indeed, the most disgraceful opposition to the civil government was made, particularly by the fishing admirals. Complaints were frequently produced on both sides, and it is probable, as is usual in such cases, that each of the contending parties was in fault. The aggressors, however, were assuredly those who opposed the civil authority, and whose conduct clearly showed that their object was to deprive the resident inhabitants of all protection from government. This contest continued, until it was found that his majesty's ministers were resolved not to withdraw the civil government from the island.

In the commission of the peace for the island, the

justices were restrained from proceeding in cases of doubt or difficulty—such as robberies, murders, felonies, and all capital offences. From this restriction, a subject of considerable difficulty and inconvenience arose, as persons who had committed capital felonies could only be tried in England; and, in 1751, a commission was issued to Captain William Francis Drake, empowering him to appoint commissioners of oyer and terminer for the trial of felons at Newfoundland.

In 1742, in consequence of the number of captured vessels brought into St John's, a court of Vice-Admiralty was established.

A claim was made, in 1754, by Lord Baltimore, to that part of the island originally granted to his ancestor, and named by him “the province of Avalon.” This claim was declared inadmissible by the Board of Trade, agreeable to the opinion of the law officers; and it has since then been relinquished.

In June 1762, the French took St John's, Trinity, and Carbonier, and retained them until September following, when they were retaken, with some difficulty, by the forces sent from Halifax, under Lord Colville and Sir Jeffrey Amherst.

The peace of 1763, by which we acquired all the French possessions in North America, opened a most favourable opportunity for extending the fishery, to the decided advantage of these kingdoms; and the Board of Trade, in bringing the subject under their consideration, applied for information to the towns in the west of England, as well as to Glasgow, Belfast,

Cork, and Waterford, which had for some time been engaged in the trade. In the year following, a collector and comptroller of the customs were established at St John's. This measure, and the consequent introduction of the navigation laws, were complained of by the merchants, in the same way as the appointing commissioners of the peace, and of oyer and terminer.

The French, always, but now more than ever, anxious about their fishery, insisted on their having a right to the western coast, for the purpose of fishing as far south as Cape Ray; maintaining that it properly was "Point Riche," mentioned in the treaty of Utrecht. This claim embraced nearly two hundred miles of the west coast of Newfoundland more than they had a right to by treaty; and their authority being founded only on an old map of Hermann Moll, was shown, with great accuracy, by the Board of Trade, to be altogether inadmissible. The coast of Labrador was in 1763 separated from Canada, and annexed to the government of Newfoundland. This was a very judicious measure; but, as the chief object of those who at that time frequented Labrador, was the seal-fishery, the Board of Trade, at the recommendation principally of Sir Hugh Palliser, considered it unwise policy to separate Labrador from the jurisdiction of Canada; and accordingly recommended his majesty to re-annex it. This was effected in 1774,\* and in the following year an act† was passed,

\* 14 Geo. III, cap. 83, commonly called the Quebec Act.

† 15 Geo. III, cap. 31.

the spirit of which was to defend and support the ship fishery carried on from England.

Its principal regulations were, that the privilege of drying fish on the shores should be limited to his majesty's subjects arriving at Newfoundland from Great Britain and Ireland, or any of the British dominions in Europe. This law set at rest all that had been agitated in favour of the resident colonists.

It must, at the same time, be acknowledged, that its provisions for upholding the ship fishery, for the purpose of making it a nursery for training seamen, were wise and judicious; and making the fish and oil liable for the payment of wages due to the people employed in and about the fisheries, was a very proper regulation. It extended, also, a bounty to the Newfoundland bank fishing; and British ships might by it occupy any part of the coasts of Labrador, as well as Newfoundland, and they were not to be under any constraint as to days or hours of working.

L'Abbé Raynal observes, "that the English fishing admirals carried their insolence and superiority so far at this time, as to forbid the French fishermen to fish for cod on Sunday, upon the pretence that their own abstained from catching on that day."

The American revolutionary war, during its continuance, affected, in a very injurious degree, the affairs of Newfoundland. A bill was passed in Parliament, prohibiting the people of New England from fishing at Newfoundland.\* This measure was loudly

\* 15 Geo. III., cap. 10.

and strongly opposed by the merchants of London. The reasons alleged by ministers were, "that as the colonies had entered into an agreement not to trade with Britain, we were entitled to prevent them trading with any other country. Their charter restricted them to the Act of Navigation: the relaxations from it were favours to which, by their disobedience, they had no farther interest."

"The Newfoundland fisheries were the ancient property of Great Britain, and disposable, therefore, at her will and discretion; it was no more than just to deprive rebels of them." To this it was contended, that it was beneath the character of a civilized people to molest poor fishermen, or to deprive the wretched inhabitants of a sea-coast of their food; and that the fisheries being also the medium through which they settled their accounts with Britain, the cutting them off from this resource would only tend to put a stop to their remittances to England.

The fishermen also would, by this measure, be driven into the immediate service of rebellion. They would man privateers, and would accelerate the levies of troops the colonies were making; and, being hardy and robust men, would prove the best recruits that could be found.\* All this unfortunately happened.

From the evidence brought in support of their petition by the London merchants, it appears, that the four New England provinces employed, in the fisheries of Newfoundland and the banks alone, about

\* Andrews's History of the American War, vol. i. p. 339.

48,000 tons of shipping, and from 6000 to 7000 seamen; and that ten years before, since which time the fisheries had greatly increased, the produce of the fisheries in foreign markets amounted to L.35,000. What rendered them particularly valuable was, that all the materials used in them (the salt for curing, and the timber for building the vessels, excepted) were purchased in Britain; and that the nett proceeds were remitted in payment.

But the merchants of Poole, and other places engaged in the Newfoundland fishery, presented a second petition, in direct opposition to that of London. It represented, that the bill against the New England fishermen would not prove detrimental to the trade of Britain, which was fully able, with proper exertions, to supply the demands of foreign markets: that the British Newfoundland fishery bred a great number of hardy seamen, peculiarly fit for the service of the navy; whereas the New England seamen were, by act of Parliament, exempt from being pressed: that the fishing from Britain to Newfoundland employed about 400 ships, amounting to 360,000 tons, and 2000 shallops of 20,000 tons, navigated by 20,000 seamen; and that 60,000 quintals of fish were taken every season, the returns of which were annually worth, on a moderate computation, L.500,000.\*

\* In 1795, 22,000 seamen engaged in the Newfoundland trade,  
and 400 ships, 38,000 tons, valued at L.8, - - L.304,000  
Caught and cured 600,000 quintals fish, at 18s. - 540,000

---

Carry forward, - L.844,000



The New England colonies, in return, resorted to all the means in their power to distress Britain in her American concerns; and for this purpose strictly prohibited the supplying of the British fishery on the banks of Newfoundland with any provisions whatsoever.

This was a proceeding wholly unexpected in England. The ships fitted out for that fishery, on arriving at Newfoundland, found their operations arrested for want of provisions; and not only the crews of the ships, but those who were settled in the harbours, were in imminent danger of perishing by famine. Instead of prosecuting the fishing business they came on, the ships were constrained to make the best of their way to England and other places for provisions.

In addition to this obstruction to the fisheries, natural causes co-operated. During the fishing season, a storm, more terrible than was ever known in these latitudes, arose, attended with circumstances unusually dreadful and destructive. The sea, according to various accounts, rose from twenty to thirty feet

	Brought forward,	-	L.844,000	
37,000 trails salmon, at 40s.	-	-	-	74,000
1,000 barrels herrings, at 15s.	-	-	-	750
5,000 seal-skins, at 4s.	-	-	-	1,000
3,300 tons oil, at L.28,	-	-	-	92,400
2,000 small boats, at L.3,	-	-	-	6,000
Goods remaining in stores,	-	-	-	300,000
				<hr/>
Value of property invested in this trade,	-			<u>L.1,318,150</u>

above its ordinary level, and so suddenly, that no time was given to prepare against its effects. Some ships foundered with their whole crews; and more than seven hundred fishing crafts perished, with a great majority of the people in them. The sea broke in upon the lands where fish-houses, flakes, &c., were erected, and occasioned vast loss and destruction.

By the third article of the treaty of peace signed at Paris in 1783, it was agreed that the people of the United States should enjoy, unmolested, the right to take fish on the banks of Newfoundland, and in the Gulf of St Lawrence, and also at all other places in the sea where they previously used to fish, and on the coast of Newfoundland; but not to cure their fish on that island. It was also agreed, that provisions might be imported to the British colonies in British bottoms. This was strongly opposed by the western merchants, but unsuccessfully; and, in 1788, upon the representation of the merchants connected with Canada, it was proposed to bring a bill into Parliament for preventing entirely the supply of bread, flour, and live stock, from the United States: but this intention was abandoned, and the mode of occasional supply continued.

The Board of Trade was abolished in 1782, and, for the last years of its existence, scarcely any thing appears on its records relative to Newfoundland. Matters of trade and plantations were for some years afterwards managed by a committee of council, appointed in 1784.

By this time the practice of hearing and determining civil causes became a subject of frequent complaint. Hitherto no court of civil jurisdiction had been provided for the colony ; and, while the island remained merely a fishery, carried on by vessels from England, the causes of actions were not of great magnitude ; but now that the population had increased to considerable numbers, and heavy mercantile dealings were frequent among them, discontent arose from time to time, that led to the establishment of a new court, by a commission to Admiral Milbanke, who was sent out as governor in 1789. But, as heavy complaints were preferred by the merchants, as well as the planters, against the proceedings of this court, an act was passed in 1792, empowering the governor, with the advice of the chief justice, to institute Surrogate Courts\* of civil jurisdiction in different parts of the island. The first chief justice was Mr Reeves, who published an interesting account of Newfoundland, with acts of Parliament relative to its government. He was a man of excellent character, and a sound lawyer. Newfoundland owed much to him ; and it would have been well for that colony if his successors had followed the example of his conduct. Some of them were not only unskilled in the law, but weak or obstinate men, who were influenced by their interests or passions.

Admiral Gambier was appointed to the govern-

\* They were called "floating Surrogates," and had the same jurisdiction as the supreme court ; to which, however, appeals lay for all sums above forty pounds.

ment in 1802. His administration was mild, and he appears to have been anxious to promote the interests of the colony, and to encourage the education of children born or brought up on the island.

Before the peace of Amiens, a regiment of volunteers was raised in the colony, and then disbanded. On the commencement of hostilities another regiment was raised, and afterwards attached to the regulars, under the name of "The Newfoundland Regiment of Light Infantry," under the command of Colonel Skinner.

The trade of the island was not in the least interrupted by the war, the vessels employed in the fisheries being fully protected by the ships of war on the station; and the admirals appointed from time to time to the command of the Newfoundland squadron, administered the government as formerly.

The first newspaper published in the colony, appeared in 1807, under the title of "The Royal Gazette and Newfoundland Advertiser;" and in 1809, a post-office was established at St John's.

Surrogate Courts were extended to the coast of Labrador in 1811; and those lands known by the appellation of "Ship's Rooms," were ordered to be leased to the highest bidder. Those situated in some of the most convenient places for business along the harbour of St John's, were always considered a great nuisance, and an impediment in the way of trade.

During the war, Newfoundland prospered, and riches flowed in among the inhabitants; but the peace of 1814 was attended by a sudden transition

in the trade of the colony, from the highest pitch of commercial success to the lowest point of depression. Several houses failed in consequence ; and the inhabitants, not having those resources which an agricultural country affords, were reduced to great misery. The vast destruction of property by fire soon after at St John's, occasioned also much distress, and drove many of the inhabitants from the island.

Newfoundland has, however, recovered gradually from the deplorable condition it was in from the peace until 1818, which fortunately turned out a most successful year in the seal and cod fisheries.

This year Governor Pickmore died at St John's, and his body was carried to England in his majesty's ship *Fly*. He was the first resident governor, and succeeded the naval commanders who administered the government of Newfoundland while on the station during the fishing seasons, but who returned to England on the approach of winter. Sir Charles Hamilton, the first permanent resident governor, was appointed to the administration of the affairs of the colony this year. He was succeeded by the present governor, Sir Thomas Cochrane, a son of Admiral Sir A. Cochrane, and a captain in the royal navy.

## CHAPTER III.

Government, and Administration of Justice—Laws—Expenses of the Colony  
—Value of its Commerce, &c.

THE power of the governor of Newfoundland is much the same as that of the governors of the other colonies, except in those matters in which a legislative or representative form of constitution makes an alteration or difference. He appoints justices of the peace, suspends at pleasure all officers who hold their commissions from the crown, grants marriage licenses, has the supreme command of the regular forces and the militia, and is also vice-admiral of Newfoundland and Labrador.

The propriety of granting a legislative government to Newfoundland has been agitated for some time.\* The resident inhabitants are, with few exceptions, in favour of the measure; while the principal persons in connexion with Newfoundland, residing in England, consider that a legislative assembly would be injurious to the fisheries, and to the best interests of the colony; that it would be inconvenient for mem-

\* Mr Morris, who has written several pamphlets on the subject, insists with enthusiastic zeal, and I am confident with great honesty, on the necessity of granting a local government to Newfoundland.

bers from the out harbours to come to, and remain at St John's, during the sitting of an assembly; that efficient members, who were permanent residents, could not be found in the island; and, consequently, that giving it a representative constitution, would be premature and unnecessary.

There is no doubt but that the internal improvement of the colony would be promoted, and that matters of local utility would be better directed than at present, by the acts of a legislative government. The question is, whether the great business of the colony, that which makes it important to Great Britain—the fisheries, would also, at the same time, prosper; and, whether directing the attention of the inhabitants to the cultivation of the soil, would not be injurious to the fisheries. From all I have observed in Nova Scotia, and in the district of Gaspé, I certainly believe that Newfoundland is not only quite as much entitled to a legislative government as the other colonies, but that the fisheries would in consequence be rather supported than depressed.

The supreme court of judicature, as now constituted, has a chief justice and two assistant justices. It has criminal and civil jurisdiction, and is also a court of record. It holds plea of all crimes and misdemeanors committed within the island of Newfoundland, the coast of Labrador, and dependent islands, agreeably to the laws and practice of England, and the acts of Parliament for regulating judicial proceedings in Newfoundland. It also holds plea for the recovery of debts due by persons residing, or

having property, in Newfoundland, although such debts should have been contracted in Great Britain, or other parts of his majesty's dominions.

The Court of Vice-Admiralty, held by a judge commissary, has had little to do since the last war. It holds cognizance of maritime causes, and causes of revenue. Appeals lie from it to the High Court of Admiralty in England.

There is a Court of Probate, held by the chief justice and assistant justices, for the probate of wills, and granting letters of administration.

At St John's, and at most of the out-harbours, where the population renders it necessary, there is a court of session, held by two magistrates, who have the same jurisdiction as in England.

On the issuing of writs of attachment, if it be made to appear, on investigation, that the party is insolvent, the court declares his insolvency, and authorizes one or more creditors, chosen by the major part in value of such creditors whose debts amount to L.10, or upwards, to collect the debts and effects of such insolvent, and distribute the same under the directions of the court.

The distribution of the property of insolvents at Newfoundland, is as follows:—In the first place, all wages due to seamen, fishermen, and servants employed during the current season, 20s. in the pound; after which, debts due for all supplies furnished for the current season, 20s. in the pound, if the effects of the insolvent will realize as much.

Then, debts contracted within two years claim a



preference ; and the remaining assets, if there be any, to be divided ratably among all the other creditors.

A certificate, granted by the court, with the consent of one-half in number and value of the creditors, is a bar to all suits for debts within the jurisdiction of the courts of Newfoundland.

The Surrogate Courts were, from the beginning, considered at once grievous and exceedingly objectionable, as the judges were no other than the commanders or lieutenants of his majesty's ships on the station, whose pursuits and education could not qualify them, however just their intentions might be, for competent expounders of the intricate labyrinth of commercial laws. At the same time, it is but justice to remark, that the task was by no means agreeable to many of those officers ; and, with few exceptions, if they erred, it was not from the influence of fear or interest, but from an ignorance of matters that no one should expect them to understand. But in this way the jurisdiction of Newfoundland was conducted until 1824, when a bill was passed, entitled, "An act for the better administration of justice in Newfoundland, and other purposes." This act, like all others passed relative to Newfoundland, being experimental, was limited to continue in force only for five years. By the provisions of this act, a chief judge and two assistant judges are appointed, and the island divided into three districts, in each of which a court is held annually.

The regulations of this law are considered by many, both residing in the island, and in connexion with the

colony in England, as not adapted to Newfoundland. One of the objections is, the salary of the judges, and the expense connected with their travelling, or going and returning by water to and from different parts of the island. Some of the old laws, which were probably necessary at the time they were passed, are still in force, and are considered at present highly objectionable; one in particular, the tendency of which was very clearly explained to me by an intelligent gentleman\* residing many years at St John's, and lately returned from that place. By this law, which is of many years' standing, and which I certainly consider to have been necessary at the time it was enacted, the merchant who furnishes the planters, or fishermen, with supplies in the early part of the season, has a lien on their property, of whatever kind, but only for the whole of that season; and the consequence is, that if the planter or fisherman be so unfortunate, which very frequently happens, as not to take a sufficient quantity of fish to pay for the supplies, the merchant, as he must lose his claim altogether if he allow it to remain over till the following season, is under the necessity of seizing on all his debtor has, as it would otherwise fall into the hands of the merchant who supplied the same person the ensuing year. If this law were modified, so as to give the merchant a lien only on the fish, oil, fishing-tackle, and whatever else he supplied, and the property that the planter possessed at the commencement

\* Charles Fox Bennett, Esq.

of the season to be, in case of need, equally divided among his other creditors, many an honest man would be saved from ruin.

Another evil, of serious consequence to the merchants themselves, arises out of this law. When the planter or fisherman finds, after the middle of the season is passed, that he will not be able to pay for all the supplies he has received, his energy becomes checked, from the conviction that extra-industry will be of no benefit to him, so long as he cannot pay the whole.

It is certain that none of the British plantations have been worse governed than Newfoundland, nor in any has more confusion prevailed. By the constitutions granted to all the other colonies, a clearly defined system of jurisdiction was laid down; but the administration of Newfoundland was, in a great measure, an exclusively mercantile or trading government; which, as Adam Smith very justly observes, "is perhaps the very worst of all governments for any country whatever;" and a powerless planter, or fisherman, never expected, or seldom received, justice from the adventurers, or the fishing admirals, who were their servants. Mr Reeves, in his History of Newfoundland, states, "that they had been in the habit of seeing that species of wickedness and anarchy ever since Newfoundland was frequented, from father to son; it was favourable to their old impressions, that Newfoundland was theirs, and that all the plantations were to be spoiled and devoured at their pleasure."

There is no doubt but that so arbitrary an assumption and practice of misrule produced the consequences that severity always generates ; and that the planters soon reconciled themselves to the principles of deceit and falsehood, or to the schemes that would most effectually enable them to elude their engagements with the adventurers. The resident fishermen, also, who were driven from time to time out of Newfoundland, by the statute of William and Mary, generally turned out the most hardened and depraved characters wherever they went.

The measures adopted for the administration of the affairs of Newfoundland, during the government of Vice-Admiral Sir Charles Hamilton, and since the appointment of his successor, will likely lead in time to whatever is necessary for the better distribution of justice. But the peculiar circumstances of Newfoundland as a great fishing colony, the greater part of the proceeds of which are remitted to England in payment of British manufactures, and the depressed state of the fisheries, imperatively demand that no burden whatever shall be laid upon those fisheries, either for the support of the executive or judicial powers, or for any other purpose whatever. Should his majesty's ministers decide on laying an *ad valorem* duty on imports into Newfoundland, it will most assuredly, with the advantages that the Americans and French possess, annihilate the British fisheries at Newfoundland. This is not my opinion alone, but the opinion of the oldest and best acquainted with that colony. If public buildings are necessary, or

a more expensive form of government expedient, neither can be supported at the expense of the fisheries.\*

This great branch of trade is of too much importance to the interests of England to be overlooked. Its value will appear, from the following statement, of more consequence than it is generally understood to be:—

The imports of provisions to Newfoundland, taking the average of the last three years, have been bread stuffs from foreign parts, principally from

Hamburg, - - -	67,812 cwt.		
From British dominions, two-thirds of which from Great Britain, - - -	25,712		
	<hr/>		
	Cwts. 93,524, at 16s.	L.74,819	0 0
	<hr/>		
Flour.—From foreign states direct, - - -	19,075		
British dominions, half of which foreign, trans-shipped from England, -	18,477		
	<hr/>		
	Barrels, 37,552, at 28s.	52,573	0 0
	<hr/>		
Pork.—Foreign, - - -	11,908		
British,—nearly 5-6ths from Great Britain and Ireland,	10,686		
	<hr/>		
	Barrels, 22,594, at 65s.	73,430	0 0
	<hr/>		
	Carry forward,	L.200,822	0 0

\* Note A.

PRESENT COMMERCIAL VALUE. 183

	Brought forward,	L.200,822 0 0
Butter.—Foreign, - - -	3,119	
British—7-8ths from Britain and Ireland, - - -	8,487	
	Cwts. 11,606, at 70s.	40,621 0 0
		L.211,443 0 0

This amount, together with foreign wines and salt, is about equal to one-third of the whole value of imports into Newfoundland; the difference, about L.550,000, is made up of British manufactures. All the provisions we purchase from foreigners can be laid in equally low, with some little encouragement, from Canada. Live stock for the Newfoundland markets, is supplied by Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island.

The average annual produce exported during the last three years from Newfoundland, consisted of

Codfish, about	600,000 quintals, at 10s.	L.300,000 0 0
Cod oil, - - -	3,000 tons, at L.18	54,000 0 0
Seal oil, - - -	5,000 tons, at L.20	100,000 0 0
Seal skins, - - -	400,000, at 1s.	20,000 0 0
Salmon, furs, &c. - - - - -		20,000 0 0

L.494,000 0 0

Value of produce from Labrador exported direct, and from Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, - - - - -	278,400 0 0
Present annual value of the Newfoundland and Labrador fisheries, - - -	L.772,400 0 0

With the exception of the amount which is paid to foreigners for provisions, the whole of the above

sum eventually finds its way to the United Kingdom, in payment of British manufactures.

In the carrying trade to and from Newfoundland, there are about 400 vessels, the tonnage of which amounts to about 50,000 tons; two-thirds of these vessels belong to the United Kingdom, the rest are colonial. Most of these vessels make two voyages; some three, and some four. The Custom-house entries average, at the different harbours of entry, for the last four years, as follows:—

St. John's,	455 vessels entered and cleared.
Harbour Grace,	105
Trinity, -	37
Twillingate,	30
Bay of Bulls,	3
Ferryland,	25
Placentia, -	10
Benin, -	45
St Lawrence,	9
Fortune Bay,	34

753 vessels, exclusive of those entered and cleared direct at Labrador.

Of the above vessels, the entries and clearances were—

Great Britain, - -	298
Foreign, Europe, and Brazil,	193
British America, - -	182
West Indies, - - -	72
United States, - - -	8
	<hr/> 753

In this number, neither the coasting nor sealing vessels, about 350, are taken into account.

From these statements, the vast importance of Newfoundland to Great Britain may be observed, and that the fishery, even under great disadvantages, is still of sufficient consequence to be considered among the most valuable branches of our trade.



## CHAPTER IV.

Description of St John's, and other Settlements.

THE port and town of St John's is situated at the east side of the island, and on the peninsula that once formed Lord Baltimore's province of Avalon. The entrance to the harbour from the Atlantic is so narrow, that two large ships can little more than safely pass abreast. There is twelve fathoms water in the middle of the channel; and the only dangers are, the rocks close under the north head and light-house, and the Chain Rock, which lies a little more than half-way from the entrance to the basin, which forms one of the finest harbours in the world.

On the north side, the precipices rise perpendicularly to an immense height; and on the opposite shore, the altitude of the abrupt rocky cliffs, although less, is also great. At the south head, which is rather low, near the shore, but very high, a little back, there is a battery and signal-post, where signals are made, giving information of the ships in sight, which are again repeated at the fort, on the lofty eminence nearly perpendicular to the sea, called Signal Hill. The Chain Rock received its name from a chain fixed to it, for the purpose of stretching across

the Narrows, to prevent the admission of hostile ships. Several strong batteries on the north side, with Frederick Battery and Fort Amherst on the south, defend the harbour so completely, as to render it perfectly secure against any ordinary attack. The situation of the Crow's Nest Battery, pitched on the summit of a conical hill, is very striking; and the character of the scenery surrounding the harbour is bold, rugged, and wild.

Fort Townshend, the usual residence of the governors, stands immediately over the town. The ascent to it is steep; but between it and Fort William, a distance of nearly three quarters of a mile, ground called "the Barrens," approaching somewhat to table-land, with a thin sterile soil, intervenes. Between Fort William and Signal Hill, is St George's Pond, at a very great height above high-water mark. It abounds with trout. To the north lies Quidi Vidi Pond, about a mile long, and from which a brook runs into a boat harbour, which communicates with the sea by a gut of the same name, rendered inaccessible to schooners by a rock extending across, and deep on each side. A trifling sum would pay the expense of blasting this rock, and rendering Quidi Vidi an excellent little harbour. Between Quidi Vidi and the Narrows, the coast is rugged, and the hills abrupt and high. A few spots in the neighbourhood of St John's have, by much labour and expense, been brought under very tolerable cultivation; and it must be acknowledged that such lands are now of great value, as affording vegetables, hay, &c. Mr Stewart,

when deputy paymaster at St John's, used to raise a great quantity of very good fruit in the garden attached to his house.\* There is no doubt but a great abundance of vegetables for the use of the town might be raised in its environs.

The town of St John's is built chiefly of wood ; it extends nearly along the whole of the north side of the port ; and there can scarcely be said to be more than one street, the others being only irregular lanes. A few of the houses are built of stone or brick, and some of the buildings are handsome ; but the appearance of the town altogether, indicates at once what it was intended for—a kind of lodging-place for a convenient time ; a collection of stores for depositing fish, with wharfs along the whole shore for the convenience of shipping.

St John's, like Halifax, and other towns built of wood, has suffered severely by fires. In the winter of 1816, great loss of property and individual distress was occasioned by a dreadful conflagration that took place ; and on the 7th of November, 1817, one hundred and forty houses, and L.500,000 value in property, were destroyed by a like calamity. Another fire, on the 21st of the same month, destroyed a great part of the town that had escaped the conflagration of the 7th ; and on the 21st of August following, the town experienced a fourth calamity of the same kind,

\* The attorney-general, Mr Simms, who now occupies the above property, continues to raise both fruit and vegetables with success. The lands surrounding Quidi Vidi are also very well cultivated.

which consumed a great number of houses, stores, and wharfs.

It was suspected, from the frequent occurrence of these fires, and particularly from the apathy with which the lower classes observed the activity that the sailors and the military displayed in extinguishing them, that they had been occasioned by incendiaries; but the most vigilant search and minute investigation led to no such discovery. The scarcity of provisions and the dread of famine, it is true, urged the labouring classes to pillage, and to disregard authority. Another cause also contributed to make these people desperate. The repeated losses of the merchants, and the ruinous state of the trade, were such, that they could only afford to supply the planters to a certain extent. The consequence was, that thousands of fishermen and labourers were reduced to want, and they, on different occasions, became a lawless banditti, and broke open the stores of the merchants to obtain provisions. In a country like Newfoundland, shut out for some months, in a great measure, from the rest of the world, scarcity of provisions is the most terrible calamity that can possibly occur. Had the magazines not been saved from the fire which took place in winter, the inhabitants, it is believed, would have inevitably starved.

It is not probable that Newfoundland will ever again experience such distress; and St John's appears to have surmounted the destruction to which it was subjected. The houses since erected, are built in a much more comfortable style than formerly, although

the streets and lanes are still irregular, and, in wet weather, extremely dirty. Without some form of municipal corporate government, having the power of making by-laws for the management of all matters connected with the town, little improvement of any consequence can be expected.\*

The situation of St John's, its excellent harbour, combining safety of access, and the means of being easily defended, its most convenient position for the chief town of a great fishing colony, and its being the seat of the government and the supreme court, are sufficient considerations to grant it a charter for its government and improvement. In this opinion, most of those whom I know, either residing in the colony or in connexion with it, concur.

The public and government buildings are of considerable importance; but have little elegance to recommend them to notice, unless the immense house now in the course of finishing, intended as a residence for the governor, be an exception. It is considered a most extravagant building, and certainly too large for any establishment that is likely to be necessary at Newfoundland.

The custom-house, the Episcopal church, and

\* It is utterly impossible, in acts of parliament, to provide for the local improvements necessary in a town situated in a distant colony. In the provisions of an act passed in 1820, for regulating the rebuilding of St John's after the fires, there is a clause, which directs that, where wooden buildings are erected, the streets must be fifty feet wide, and forty feet where stone houses are built. The consequence is, that one house is pitched ten feet farther forward than another.

the other places of worship, are plain buildings, but answer sufficiently well for the population, and the condition of a society not very permanent. On the south side of the harbour there are but few houses, the nature of the ground forming objections to building.

In time of war St John's was a place of great importance. Vessels met there to join convoy; and many rich captures were brought in, with a number of prisoners of respectability, both ladies and gentlemen, from the French West Indies. There are a greater number of shops, and a still greater number of public houses, in proportion to its size, in St John's, than in most towns. Commodities were formerly very dear; at present shop goods are as low as in any town in America; and fresh meat, poultry, and vegetables, although not so low as on the continent, are not unreasonably dear.

The population of St John's fluctuates so frequently that it is very difficult to state its numbers, even at any one period.\* Sometimes, during the fishing season, the town appears full of inhabitants; at others, it seems half deserted.

At one time they depart for the seal fishery; at another, to different fishing stations. In the fall of the year the fishermen arrive from all quarters, to settle their accounts with the merchants, and procure supplies for the winter. At this period St John's is crowded with people; swarms of whom

\* Fluctuating from 10 to 15,000.

depart for Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, to procure a livelihood in those places among the farmers during winter. Many of them never return again to the fisheries, but remain in those colonies; or often, if they have relations in the United States, and sometimes when they have not, find their way thither.

Society in St John's, particularly when we consider its great want of permanency, is in a much more respectable condition than might be expected; and the morals and social habits of the inhabitants are very different from the description of Lieutenant Chappell, (whom I very strongly suspect of arrogating more respect for himself than the best class of society would willingly acknowledge,) when he represents the principal inhabitants as having risen from the lowest fishermen, and the rest composed of turbulent Irishmen, both alike destitute of literature. The fishermen, who are principally Irishmen, are by no means altogether destitute of education: there are few of them but can read or write; and they are, in general, neither turbulent nor immoral. That they soon become in Newfoundland, as well as in all the other colonies, very different people to what they were before they left Ireland, is very certain. The cause is obvious—they are more comfortable, and they work cheerfully. When, after a fishing season of almost incredible fatigue and hardship, they return to St John's, and meet their friends and acquaintances, they indulge, it is true, in drinking and idleness for a short time; and, when the life they follow

is considered, we need not be surprised that they do so, especially in a place where rum is as cheap as beer is in England.\*

For many years the officers of government and the merchants returned before winter to England ; but since the appointment of a resident governor, there has been a more permanent state of society. It must be acknowledged, that some of the inhabitants who have made fortunes in the country were, and it is much to their credit, formerly fishermen ; and these men are fully as polished in their manners, and equally as intelligent, as many of the principal merchants in London, or in any of the other great trading towns in the United Kingdom, who did not in early life receive a liberal education. A great majority of the merchants at St John's, as well as the agents who represent the principal houses, are men who received a fair education, in the mother country, for all the purposes of utility and the general business of life, and are certainly as intelligent as any merchants in the world. This observation will be found perfectly just, if applied to the merchants and principal inhabitants in all the British colonies. The amusements of St John's are much the same as in the colonies hereafter described.

There are three weekly newspapers published at

\* Mr Morris, of St John's, has, with great correctness, in a letter to Lord Bexley on the state of society, religion, morals, and education at Newfoundland, described the character of the inhabitants. Pp. 76, London, 1827.



St John's; and there is also a book society. A seminary was established in 1802, for educating the poor, at which about three hundred children, Protestants and Roman Catholics, are educated. It was established, I believe, principally through Lord Gambier, then the admiral on the station.

The Benevolent Irish Society, established in 1806 by Colonel Murray, afterwards governor of Demerara, and James Macbraire, Esq., then a merchant of eminence at St John's, but since retired to the banks of the Tweed, has extended the most beneficial relief to the aged and infirm; and has also diffused the benefits of education among the children of the poorer classes, by supporting a school in which from 200 to 300 of both sexes are instructed. A respectable school-house is now erecting by the society, to contain from 700 to 800 children.

An institution was formed last year (1828) at St John's, called, "The Association of Newfoundland Fishermen and Shoremen." In a country like Newfoundland, where the means which the labouring classes have to depend upon for subsistence are to be obtained from the casual success of the fisheries, no society or institution was more indispensable than this. Its object is to relieve individuals in distress, and to improve their moral conduct. To prevent the fishermen and shoremen from squandering their wages, a kind of savings bank has been established; and the subscriptions of the more wealthy are also added to the funds of the institution. The most that is to be allowed for individuals, is

nine shillings per week, and in case of death, L.5 to defray funeral expenses.

There are, except in the immediate vicinage of St John's, no roads in Newfoundland. Whether the condition and circumstances of the colony warrant the opening of roads to all the settlements, is questionable; but I certainly think that a few roads are necessary, to open a communication between Conception and Trinity Bays, and between Conception and Placentia, St Mary's, and Fortune Bays. It would be sufficient for some years to make what are called, on the continent of America, bridle-roads, which would in winter answer for sledge-roads. Carriage-roads in summer would, at least for the present, be unnecessary. There is now a tolerable road from St John's to Portugal Cove in Conception Bay, and a path-road to a few other places.

The Great Bank of Newfoundland is the most extensive sub-marine elevation that we know to exist in any ocean. Various theories and conjectures have been hazarded, in order to account for its formation. Some believe it was formerly an immense island, which had sunk, in consequence of its pillars or foundation having been loosened by an earthquake. Others, that it has been created by the gradual accumulation of sand carried along by the gulf stream, and arrested here by meeting with the currents of the north. It is, in some places, five degrees, or about 200 miles broad, and about 600 miles in length. The soundings on it are from twenty-five to ninety-five fathoms. The whole appears to be a mass of

solid rock ; its edges are abrupt, and deepen suddenly from twenty-five to ninety-five fathoms. In one place, laid down as rough fishing-ground, the soundings are only from ten to twenty fathoms. The Cape Race, or Virgin Rocks, near the inner edge of this bank, have been lately surveyed by one of his Majesty's ships, and their position laid down correctly. These have always been considered dangerous, though seldom seen ; and although there is about four fathoms on the shoalest, yet, during a heavy sea, a ship would be immediately dashed to pieces on them.

The best fishing-grounds on this bank are between the latitudes of  $42^{\circ}$  and  $46^{\circ}$  N. The outer bank, or Flemish Cap, appears to be a continuation of the grand bank, at a lower elevation. The soundings between them, for about 100 miles, are from 120 to 218 fathoms.

The outer bank lies within the longitudes of  $44^{\circ}$   $15'$ , and  $45^{\circ}$   $25'$  W., and the latitudes of  $44^{\circ}$   $10'$  and  $47^{\circ}$   $30'$  N. The soundings on it are from 100 to 160 fathoms. From the great bank, to Nova Scotia, a continuation of banks succeed.

Those perpetual fogs that hang over the banks, and hover along the coasts of Newfoundland and Cape Breton, are caused by the meeting of the tropical waters brought along by the gulf stream, with the waters carried down by the influence of the winds from the polar regions.

These currents come in contact with each other on the banks of Newfoundland, and form those eternal fogs, by the difference of their temperatures, and

that of their atmospheres, producing the two effects of evaporation and condensation. Unless it blows hard, there is not by any means a heavy sea on the bank, as is generally represented, except within a few miles of the edges, where there is a perpetually rough sea, with a cold, thick, and piercing fog. A thermometer will as certainly ascertain the moment a ship is over the bank, as the sounding lead; the temperature of the water being 10° to 12° Fahrenheit colder than that of the surrounding sea.

Along the coast of America, within the gulf stream, there is a strong counter-current; and in making an outward voyage, navigators think it advantageous to keep in its track. The current of the gulf stream is so powerful, that it retards, on an outward voyage, the progress of a ship from forty to sixty miles a day, while, on a homeward voyage, it increases the rate of sailing so much, that sailors term returning from America to Europe, "going down hill."

Conception Bay, which enters Newfoundland about twenty miles north of St John's, is fifty-three miles deep from Point de Grates on the west side, and thirty-eight miles from Cape St Francis on the east, to Holyrood, and about twenty miles broad. The shores of this inlet are bold and mountainous. The headlands and coast between the numerous harbours or bays within it, are rugged and precipitous. In regard to population, (about 22,000,) opulence of the inhabitants, and enterprise of the fishermen, it must be considered the first district in Newfoundland.

It received its name from Gaspar de Corte Real, a

Portuguese navigator of distinguished family, who made a voyage to Newfoundland in 1561. It has several settlements on the west side, from Point de Grates to the bottom of the bay: the principal are Carbonier and Harbour Grace.

Carbonier is an important fishing-station; but the harbour is not equal to Harbour Grace, being more exposed. The whole of the west coast of Conception Bay, particularly that part called the North Shore, is very much exposed to easterly winds. In 1775, all the vessels belonging to Harbour Grace and Carbonier were driven on shore; and one hundred or more boats were impelled into one cove, where they were dashed to pieces against the rocks, and all the crews perished.

Harbour Grace is a safe, but rather intricate harbour, having a *spit* nearly across the entrance; but it has a remarkably fine beach, which is a great convenience for the fishery. Its population is said to be near 5000. There are a respectable school and some other public buildings here. There is a church, in which the Episcopal missionary officiates; a large Catholic chapel, with a high steeple, detached; and Presbyterian and Methodist meeting-houses. Also, a weekly newspaper is printed in this place.

Between Harbour Grace and Holyrood, at the head of the bay, there are numerous settlements in the coves and bays that separate a succession of perpendicular cliffs, and wild rugged promontories.

The only settlement of consequence on the east side of Conception Bay, is Portugal Cove. It is a

bad harbour, exposed to the westerly winds; and when it blows from that direction, the fishermen are obliged to haul up their boats on the beach. It is ten miles by a road across the peninsula to St John's; and a communication is kept up with the west side of the bay, by a packet, which plies between Portugal Cove and Harbour Grace.

Belle Isle, situated in Conception Bay, two or three miles from Portugal Cove, is about six miles long, and its soil is a fine rich black mould, without rocks or stones.

Trinity Bay nearly separates the old province of Avalon from the rest of Newfoundland. It is about seventy miles deep, and from twenty to twenty-five miles broad. It contains a vast number of bays, harbours, and coves, several small islands, and one about twenty miles long on the west side, called Random Island. The names of the almost innumerable places within this great bay would puzzle the most genuine *root-catcher* that ever existed. Trinity Harbour is the principal settlement.

Bonavista Bay, so named by Cabot, next to, and north west of, Trinity, is upwards of forty miles broad, about the same depth, full of bays and inlets, and abounding in rocks and islands. It has some valuable fishing establishments.

West of Bonavista is Gander Bay, opposite which is Fogo Island, formerly frequented by the Red Indians, and on which there is now several extensive mercantile establishments.

Exploits Bay is a broad bay, full of islands, the

largest of which is New World Island, close to which is Twillingate, the most northerly of the English settlements. This bay, and its river—which is the largest in Newfoundland—have been the scenes of various rencounters with the Red Indians, from which circumstance the name of Exploits is said to have been given.

The bays of Notre Dame, White Bay, and Hare Bay, situated between Exploits Bay and the northernmost point of Newfoundland, are deep gulfs, with numerous harbours and islands, but with few settlers.

The whole of the west coast of Newfoundland, north of the bay of St George, is unsettled, although some of the lands are the best on the island. At the bay of Port au Port there is plenty of coal. The Bay of Islands receives three fine rivers, one of which, called the Humber, runs out of a large lake.\* Farther north is Bonne Bay, which branches into two arms; and then follow several small coves, bays, and rivers, for about sixty miles, where the Bay of Ignorachois, containing three harbours, enters the island.

A few miles nearer the strait of Belle Isle, St John's Bay is situated, containing several islands, and receiving the waters of Castor river, which flows through about thirty miles of country. The lands about this bay are mountainous. The coast, for about thirty miles north, is indented with small

\* This lake is only known to the Indians, who describe it as sixty miles long. There is a dark-grey marble found at Bay of Islands.

rivers, and numerous minor inlets ; and then, along the strait of Belle Isle to Cape Norman, the most north-westerly point of Newfoundland, a straight shore prevails, along which an old Indian path is observable.

Several of the harbours north of Cape John were formerly resorted to, during the fishing season, by the fishermen from Conception Bay, before the French were allowed the privilege of those parts.

Between St John's and Cape Race, the principal settlements and harbours are Bay of Bulls, Brigas, Cape Broyle harbour, Ferryland, Aqua-forte, Fer-moise, and Renowes.

Bay of Bulls is a good harbour, but rather dangerous. Sunken rocks render a pilot necessary. In 1796, Admiral Richery destroyed several of the stores and houses. It is rather populous, and a respectable business was once carried on here by the merchants. A foot-path leads from it to St John's, a distance of twenty-seven miles. It is, however, a dangerous road, and crosses several fords, over which two or three false steps would be attended with destruction ; yet, in 1762, the French, by this route, proceeded to and took St John's.

Ferryland is the oldest place in Newfoundland, and there is a considerable extent of the surrounding land under cultivation, planted originally by Lord Baltimore. It was for many years the residence of the Lords of Avalon and their deputies ; and it is said that for some time it became the seat of the trans-Atlantic muses.



It is at present tolerably well settled, has places of worship, schools, and some respectable mercantile establishments. The Isle of Boys, near this place, was fortified in 1761 as a place of refuge, while the French had possession of St John's.

Trepassy (formerly called Abram Trepaza) is a bay between Cape Race and Cape Freels. On the west side there is a good harbour. The eastern shores are dangerous to approach. Several families are settled here, who subsist by means of fishing, raising a few cattle, and a little cultivation.

West of Trepassy Bay, opening to the south, are three great bays, namely, St Mary's, Placentia, and Fortune. These have within them countless harbours and islands, and contain a scattered, but altogether a numerous, population.

St Mary's Bay has several settlements and extensive cod-fisheries. A salmon-fishery is also carried on. This bay is more than thirty miles deep, and from fifteen to twenty broad. The distance between Salmon river, at its head, to Holyrood, at the head of Conception Bay, is about ten miles, and from Collinet, another branch, to Trinity Bay, about eight miles.

Placentia Bay is also full of harbours and islands. It is about sixty miles deep, and about forty-five miles broad from Cape St Mary's to Corbin Head, and from twenty to thirty miles broad at different places farther up. There is excellent cod-fishing in this bay; salmon abound in its rivers, and herring, &c., frequent it, as well as all these bays, periodically.

The lands are rugged and barren, and the shores are lined with islands and rocks, among which, however, there are many excellent harbours. There are five or six extensive establishments in this bay.

Placentia, on the east side of the bay, was the chief settlement planted by the French in Newfoundland. They had it strongly fortified, and endeavoured at that time to drive the English altogether out of the fisheries. One hundred and fifty ships can lie in safety within the harbour, the entrance of which only admits one vessel at a time. There is a great strand or beach between two hills, sufficiently extensive for sixty ships to cure and dry their fish on. From the head of Placentia Bay to Trinity, the isthmus which connects the peninsula of Avalon to the main body of Newfoundland is low, and little more than three miles over. The fishermen haul their skiffs across.

Fortune Bay is from sixty-five to seventy miles deep, and twenty to thirty broad; it contains innumerable harbours, and many islands and rocks. The lands are bleak, rugged, and barren. There are several fishing establishments within this bay, for which, and for no other purpose, nature has adapted it. Here one of the most extensive houses in Newfoundland carries on a whale-fishery with boats,\* as well as a most extensive cod-fishery. The coast between

\* A vast number of hump-back whales, which yield from three to eight tons of oil each, have been taken this season, 1830, by the fishermen belonging to this establishment.

Fortune Bay and St George's Bay has been already generally described.

The islands of St Pierre and Mequelon, ceded in 1814 to France, lie off the mouth of Fortune Bay. Langley, although laid down on the maps as a separate island, and appears as such from the sea, is, however, connected to Mequelon by a sand beach.\* St Peter's has the only harbour which is the rendezvous of the French ships, and where they have built a town since the peace. Here the French governor resides, and it is the head-quarters of the French fisheries. These islands are rugged, and produce nothing but shrubs, moss, and grass. Ptarmigan, or white partridges, abound on them; and the most plentiful cod-fishing surrounds their shores.

\* In 1825, on my homeward passage from America, we were nearly driven ashore, in a gale of wind, on the west side of Mequelon. I asked the captain if we could not run through the passage, which appeared by the chart to separate Langley and Mequelon. He replied, that he had formerly landed on those islands, and walked several times across the beach from Mequelon to Langley; but that, during stormy weather and high tides, the sea flowed between them.

## CHAPTER V.

Strait of Belle Isle—Continent of Labrador—Anticosti—Magdalene  
Islands.

THE strait of Belle Isle, so named from the island called North Belle Isle, at the Atlantic entrance, separates Newfoundland from Labrador and the continent of America. This strait is about fifty miles long, and twelve broad ; is deep, and safe as a passage to and from the Gulf of St Lawrence, but, from not being much frequented, is disliked by most masters of large merchant ships. There are no harbours on the coast of Newfoundland facing it ; and those on the Labrador coast are not considered safe, except the havens near the north and south extremities. For schooners and fishing craft, there is, in every direction along the Labrador coast, safe and convenient shelter.

The coast of Labrador, in consequence of the extensive fisheries carried on in its harbours by the merchants of Newfoundland, and being under the same government, is more intimately connected with that colony than with any other part of America.

Gaspar de Corte Real\* named the northern part,

\* This navigator either perished afterwards on the coast, or he and his crew were murdered by the Esquimaux.

in 1561, Terra Verde, or Greenland, and the southern part he called Terra Labrador, or Terra Agricolæ, thinking the latter fit for cultivation. It was altogether, for some time after, called, after him, Terra Corterealis, which name has, however, long been supplanted by that of Labrador.

This vast country, equal in square miles to France, Spain, and Germany, has not a resident population of 4000 inhabitants, including the natives and Moravians.

Its surface is as sterile and naked as any part of the globe. Rocks, swamps, and water, are its prevailing features; and in this inhospitable country, which extends from 50' to 64° north latitude, and from the longitude of 56° west on the Atlantic, to that of 78° west on Hudson's Bay, vegetation only appears as the last efforts of expiring nature. Small scraggy poplar, stunted firs, creeping birch, and dwarf willows, thinly scattered in the southern parts, form the whole catalogue of trees; herbs and grass are also, in sheltered places, to be met with; but, in the most northerly parts, different varieties of moss, and lichens, are the only signs of vegetation.

The climate is, in severity, probably as cold as at the poles of the earth, and the summer is of short duration. Yet, with all these disadvantages, this country, which is, along its coasts, indented with excellent harbours, and which has its shores frequented by vast multitudes of fishes, is of great importance to Great Britain. The whole of the interior of Labrador appears, from the aspect of what has been

explored, and from the reports of the Esquimaux and other Indians, to be broken up with rivers, lakes, and rocks. The wild animals are principally bears, wolves, foxes, and otters; beavers and deer are not numerous, but their furs are remarkably close and beautiful.

Insects are, during the short space of hot weather, numerous in swampy places. In winter they exist in a frozen state; and in this condition, when introduced to the influence of solar heat, or the warmth of fire, are soon restored to animation.

The phenomenon of aurora borealis is uncommonly brilliant in Labrador; and I have no doubt that it possesses, from the increased and increasing variation of the compass, a most powerful magnetic influence; but this I leave to the determination of the speculative philosopher. Minerals are said to abound in Labrador, but very little is known either of its geology or mineralogy.

During the fishing season, from 280 to 300 schooners proceed from Newfoundland to the different fishing-stations on the coast of Labrador, where about 20,000 British subjects are employed for the season. About one-third of the schooners make two voyages, loaded with dry fish, back to Newfoundland during the summer; and several merchant vessels proceed from Labrador with their cargoes direct to Europe, leaving, generally, full cargoes for the fishing vessels to carry to Newfoundland. A considerable part of the fish of the second voyage is in a green or pickled state, and dried afterwards at New-

foundland. Eight or nine schooners from Quebec frequent the coast, having on board about 80 seamen and 100 fishermen. Some of the fish caught by them is sent to Europe, and the rest carried to Quebec; besides which, they carry annually about L.6000 worth of furs, oil, and salmon, to Canada.

From Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, but chiefly from the former, 100 to 120 vessels resort to Labrador: the burden of these vessels may amount to 6000 or 7000 tons, carrying about 1200 seamen and fishermen. They generally carry the principal part of their cargoes home in a green state.

One-third of the resident inhabitants are English, Irish, or Jersey servants, left in charge of the property in the fishing rooms, and who also employ themselves, in the spring and fall, catching seals in nets. The other two-thirds live constantly at Labrador, as furriers and seal-catchers, on their own account, but chiefly in the former capacity, during winter; and all are engaged in the fisheries during summer. Half of these people are Jerseymen and Canadians, most of whom have families.

From 16,000 to 18,000 seals are taken at Labrador in the beginning of winter and in spring. They are very large, and the Canadians, and other winter residents, are said to feast and fatten on their flesh. About 4000 of these seals are killed by the Esquimaux. The whole number caught produce about 350 tons of oil,—value about L.8000.

There are six or seven English houses, and four or five Jersey houses, established at Labrador, uncon-

nected with Newfoundland, who export their fish and oil direct to Europe. The quantity exported last year to the Mediterranean, was about

	50,000 qtls. cod fish, at 10s.	L.25,000
	900 tierces salmon, at 60s.	2,700
To England, about	200 tons cod oil, -	4,000
	200 do. seal do. - -	4,500
	Furs, - - -	3,000
		<hr/>
		L.39,200
By Newfoundland houses, 20,000 qtls. cod fish, at 10s.		10,000
	300 tierces salmon, at 60s.	900
		<hr/>
	Total direct export from Labrador,	L.50,100
Produce sent direct to Newfoundland from Labrador,—		
	24,000 qtls. cod fish, 9s. best quality, - - -	10,800
	300,000 qtls. cod fish, - - - -	127,500
	1,500 tons cod oil, at L.18, - - - -	27,000
	Salmon, &c. - - - -	3,000
	Fish, &c. sent to Canada, about - -	10,000
	Do. carried to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, should be in value at least	50,000
		<hr/>
Estimated value of the produce of Labrador, exclusive of what the Moravians send to London,*	-	L.278,400

The Labrador fishery has, since 1814, increased more than sixfold, principally in consequence of our fishermen being driven from the grounds now occupied by the French.

\* These statements are made at the most depressed prices, and not at the average prices, which would increase the gross value to L.312,400. The Americans of the United States had this year (1829) about 500 vessels, and 15,000 men, employed on the coast, and their "catch" amounted to 1,100,000 quintals fish, and about 3000 tons oil: value altogether, about L.610,000.



The Moravians, whose principal settlement on the coast of Labrador is at Nain, have a ship annually from London, which leaves the Thames in May or June, and arrives at Nain in July, from whence it returns in September, laden with a valuable cargo of furs, oils, &c. for London. My enquiries respecting these people have not been very successful. They fixed themselves in three different harbours of Labrador, about the middle of the last century: their intercourse with, and settlements at, Greenland, led them to this region. Their habits are simple, and the quiet and unobserved life they lead, is of a nature which leaves to few in America, or elsewhere, the knowledge of their existence. Their trade is wholly with the Esquimaux, in the way of bartering coarse cloths, powder, shot, guns, and edge tools, for furs, oils, &c.\*

On the British resorting to Labrador, after it was annexed to Newfoundland, some regulations were made, in order to purchase the lands from the Indians for the King of Great Britain. If such arrangement was entered into, it must have passed unobserved, and there could be little difficulty in purchasing any right which the miserable Esquimaux would maintain.

Of all the tribes which have been discovered on the shores of America, the Esquimaux are the most filthy, disgusting, and miserable. They form an exception in their appearance, stature, and manner

\* I have had no opportunity of seeing the Moravians; and the above account was given me by a gentleman at Labrador, connected with the customs.

of living, to all the other tribes. The Greenlanders are said to speak the same language, and to resemble them in shape and appearance; and in stature they resemble the Laplanders. They may possibly be of Northmen or European origin. All the other Indian tribes despise and hate them. They are thinly scattered along the coast of Labrador, and the arctic shores north-west of Hudson's Bay. The greatest number of them in any one place appears to be at Invutoke Inlet, or Esquimaux Bay, on the Atlantic coast of Labrador, where there are about two hundred and fifty. The Canadians and others residing at Labrador, employ the Esquimaux in catching fish, &c. They have neither the pride nor the spirit of the other savage tribes, but they are equally as cruel. It is said, that on the death of the mother of a child not sufficiently strong to take care of itself, the latter is put to death, and buried with the former. I have not sufficient proof to state that this is positively the case, but many circumstances induce me to believe it to be a fact.

There is a court held at Labrador during summer, from which appeals lie to the supreme court of St John's. An armed vessel visits, and continues generally along the coast during the greater part of the fishing season.

## ANTICOSTI.

This island is now under the jurisdiction of Newfoundland. Its name is said to be derived from an

Indian word, Naticoti, but it is more likely from the Spanish Antecuesta. It is situated in the Gulf of St Lawrence, and near the entrance of that great river. It is within the latitudes of  $49^{\circ} 5'$  and  $49^{\circ} 55'$ , and longitudes of  $61^{\circ} 54'$  and  $65^{\circ} 30'$ . The whole of its north coast is high, and without harbours. The rocks that present themselves are calcareous, and contain various animal petrifications.

The water, close to the cliffs, is very deep; and there are some coves where vessels may take shelter with the wind blowing off the land. The south shore is low; the lands wet and swampy, and covered with birch and fir-trees. There is a bar harbour near the west point, which will admit small vessels. It can scarcely be said that this island has any rivers, if that called Jupiter river be not an exception. On the south the water is shoal, but the soundings are regular; flat rocky reefs extend a considerable distance from the east, west, and some other points; sandy downs line a great part of the south coast, within which there are lagoons or ponds, filled by small streams running into them from the interior. During stormy weather and high tides, the sea frequently makes its way over the sands into these lagoons, out of which, also, there are small streams running into the gulf. Shipwrecks have frequently occurred along the shores of Anticosti; and the crews have, in many instances, perished after landing, from severe cold, and want of food.\*

\* The fate of the crews of three ships wrecked on this island,

Government has established a station, with a family, at each end of the island, and posts, without inhabitants, along the shore, with directions to persons who have escaped from shipwreck where to proceed.

Of the interior of this island we know but little. It is covered with woods, chiefly dwarf spruce, white cedar, birch, and poplar: the trees appear to be all of low and stunted growth. Near the shore the land appears unfit for cultivation. A few spots of tolerable soil are, it is true, met with; but the want of harbours, and the severity of the climate, are insuperable objections to its settlement. It is a seignory, being formerly under the government of Canada, and belongs, I believe, to a private family at Quebec. The Indians, who, on their hunting excursions, have penetrated into the interior, have informed me that the lands are swampy or wet, with the exception of a few hills.

Bears, foxes, hares, and sables, are very numerous. Partridges, snipes, curlews, plovers, &c. abound.

in the fall of 1828, on their homeward passage, must have either been attended by the most revolting sufferings, or they must have been murdered by a piratical gang, who are said to infest the place. The mutilated and disjointed bodies, some parts of which were found salted in a chest, discovered in the hut which those unfortunate men had erected, led to the conclusion that those who survived longest lived on the flesh of the dead. The results of a Captain Rayside's enquiries, who commanded the government brig Kingfisher on the coast last summer, seem to warrant the belief that they were murdered by pirates, and their bodies mutilated for the purpose of creating suspicion that they died of famine, and devoured each other.

## MAGDALEN ISLANDS.

This cluster of islands is situated within the Gulf of St Lawrence, seventy-three miles distant from Newfoundland, sixty miles from Prince Edward Island, and sixty-five miles from Cape Breton. They are the property of Sir Isaac Coffin, who appears to take very little interest in them.\* The inhabitants, about 500 in number, are Acadian French, who live principally by means of fishing. In the month of April, they go in their shallops among the fields of ice that float in the gulf, in quest of seals; and in summer, they employ themselves in fishing for herring and cod.

The soil of these islands is a light sandy loam, resting on freestone. It yields barley, oats, and potatoes; and wheat would likely grow, but the quantity of soil fit for cultivation, is no more than the fishermen require for potato gardens, and a little pasture. Some parts are covered with spruce, birch, and juniper-trees; others are formed into sandy downs, producing bent grass: cranberries, juniper berries, and various other wild fruits, are very abundant.

A few miles to the north, Brion and Bird Islands are situated. Multitudes of aquatic birds frequent

\* Since the above was written, the worthy baronet, it is said, has taken measures to direct the application of the rents which may be derived from these islands, to the support of a number of his relatives in the American navy.

them for the purpose of hatching. I have seen shallops loaded with eggs, in bulk, which were brought from these islands to Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, for sale.

The Magdalen Islands are under the government of Canada,\* and the inhabitants are amenable to the courts of Quebec, 600 miles distant; a most inconvenient regulation, when they are so much nearer Prince Edward Island.

There is a chapel, in which a priest sent from Quebec officiates. Plentiful fishing banks, of which the Americans of the United States derive the principal advantage, abound in every direction near these islands.

\* Annexed to that government in 1809, by 49 Geo. III. cap. 27.

## CHAPTER VI.

Characteristics of the Inhabitants—Pursuits, &c.—Manner of Killing Seals  
—Shore Fishery—Bank Fishery, &c.

THE leading features of the character of the inhabitants of Newfoundland, both at St John's and all the out-harbours, are, honesty, persevering industry, hardy contempt of danger and fatigue, and a laudable sense of propriety in moral and religious duties. For upwards of twenty years, not more than four malefactors were sentenced to die. "A few months' imprisonment was the greatest punishment inflicted for the last ten years."\*

There are places of public worship in each of the out-harbours in which there is an adequate population. The religious denominations are, members of the church of England, Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Independents, and Methodists, each of whom have clergymen among them. In the principal out-harbours, also, there are schools where the rudiments of education may be acquired. The clergymen of the established church are supported by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts; and the Methodist missionaries are supported chiefly

\* Mr Morris's pamphlet.

by their own society in England. The Catholic and Presbyterian clergymen are provided for by the voluntary contributions of their own flocks.

Religious belief at Newfoundland is equally free to all ; no one interferes with his neighbour's creed ; no ill-will prevails ; and the estimation in which a man's religious opinions are held, depends on the correctness of his moral character, and not on the particular form of his belief. There is a titular Catholic bishop of Newfoundland at St John's, and a vicar-general at Harbour Grace. Candour requires me to say, that the Catholic clergy of Newfoundland guard with incessant vigilance, the morals of those who profess their religion, while, at the same time, they maintain a spirit of friendly feeling towards the clergymen of other Christian denominations.\*

Colonists, it may always be observed, retain many of the customs and habits of their ancestors ; and some customs still prevail in Newfoundland that are obsolete in Europe, among which, saluting the bride may be noticed. This custom was once fashionable in Europe, and is said to be derived from the Roman method of detecting women secretly addicted to drunkenness.

The inhabitants are employed, the majority wholly, and the rest occasionally, in the fisheries. Feeding cattle and a few sheep, and cultivating small spots of land, are also partial sources of occupation. The women, besides affording great assistance to the men

\* Note B.



during the process of curing fish, make themselves useful in planting gardens, and gathering the productions of the soil. In all domestic duties they are correct and attentive; and they manufacture the small quantity of wool they have among them, into strong worsted stockings, mittens, and socks.

Capital offences are exceedingly rare, and petty thefts are scarcely known, while property is seldom secured by locked doors, as in the United Kingdom.

In the winter season, much of the time of the inhabitants is occupied in bringing home fuel. Boats for the fishery are also constructed at this time; and poles, &c. for fish flakes, are, or should be, provided.

Marriages and christenings are celebrated in the fall, when the labours of the fisheries are ended, or sometimes in the spring, previous to the fishery commencing. These are always times of festivity, when the neighbours are invited to partake of the best, and enjoy themselves with singing and dancing. The young men distinguish the occasion by the firing of guns.

Funeral ceremonies are also conducted with some kind of parade. It is considered decent that both the Protestant and Catholic clergymen meet together at the house of the deceased; and it is accounted indecorous in any of the neighbours not attending the funeral, although invitations are not sent. Cakes, cheese, wine, and spirits, are laid out for those who choose to partake of them. The funeral procession then, with decorous solemnity, moves on to the graveyard, and after the service, they return to the house

of the deceased, where they separate. In thinly-settled and healthy countries, the number of deaths are so few, that the decease of any of the inhabitants is attended with a feeling of melancholy unknown in populous towns, except among the immediate relations of the deceased. Waking the dead is also general among the Irish labourers; and they observe the same customs and festivities at Christmas and at Easter, as have long been common in Ireland.

St Patrick's day, and Sheelagh's day (the saint's wife) the day following, are occasions on which the mass of the Newfoundland Irish revel in the full glory of feasting and drinking. They are certainly at those periods beyond any control; and they completely forget themselves, fighting and drinking, until they are overcome by the one, or laid up by the other.\*

Their conduct, on these occasions, has been much reprobated. It would be well for themselves not to indulge in such excesses. But when we consider the hard labour to which they apply themselves during the year, and the terrible dangers they are about to encounter among the ice, immediately after the feast of their darling saint, and take also into account the associations connected with the customs of their mother country, we must make very liberal allowances for them.

Various customs, common to the different places from which the present inhabitants or their ancestors came, are still kept up at Christmas. Dinners,

\* These excesses have become less frequent.

dances, and Christmas-boxes, are not forgotten; the "Yule log" is burnt, and the ceremony of lighting it is attended with firing of guns before the door.

Among the labouring classes, as is common among all whose minds are not raised, by education, above superstition, a belief in apparitions prevails, and they delight in relating ghost stories, or whatever is marvellous.

The manners of the people of Newfoundland mix and alter from local circumstances, and the intercourse and intermarriages of the inhabitants, who are either English, Scotch, Irish, natives of Guernsey and Jersey, or their descendants.

Celibacy is uncommon among them. There are few families in which there are not from five to twelve children.

The fishermen's houses are one story high, built of wood growing on the island, and covered with boards and shingles imported from Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick. It was long customary to erect the walls with upright posts stuck in the ground; but an improvement prevails by building the wooden walls on a stone foundation. Sometimes an additional building is joined, called a "lean-to," which is either in one room—a kind of parlour—or is divided into sleeping rooms. There is usually not more than one large fire-place, which is in the kitchen, and around which, in winter, all the inmates of the house assemble when the labours of the day are over. In the chimneys, they smoke their salmon, or hang up the hams of

the pigs reared on the island. On each side of the chimney there are often benches with coops underneath for poultry, which, from the warmth of the dwelling, lay eggs all winter.

The usual diet of the people is made up of biscuit, potatoes and fish, salt pork, and bohea tea. Spruce beer is a very common and excellent beverage, particularly for people who live so much on fish and salt meat.

The process of making it is simple. A few black spruce branches are chopped into small pieces, and put into a pot containing six or eight gallons of water, and then boiled for several hours. The liquor is then strained, and put into a cask that will contain eighteen gallons. Molasses is added in the proportion of one gallon to eighteen ; a part of the grounds of the last brewing, and a few hops, if at hand, are also put in ; and the cask, filled up with cold water, is left to ferment, and in twenty-four hours, becomes fit for use. Spirits are frequently mixed with spruce beer, to make the drink named Callibogus. From the cheapness of rum, the labouring people, though by no means generally, acquire habits of excessive drinking, which they have only resolution to resist by swearing, by the Cross or the Gospel, that they will not taste rum, or spirits of any kind. This act is called Keggering, extending to one or more years, and often for life.

The inhabitants are generally very healthy ; but, from living so much on fish and other oily food, fevers or small-pox, when imported into the island from other

places, are generally fatal, and occasion great mortality. Consumptions do not appear to be so frequent as on the continent of America.

The air, though rare and cold, seems to invigorate the constitutions of the people ; and their strength in old age, when we consider the life of unremitting labour which they necessarily lead, is surprising. Men and women, at the age of eighty, are frequently observed attending the fish flakes.

The great and primary business of the people of Newfoundland, is that of pursuing and catching the inhabitants of the ocean. If habit, as is generally allowed, becomes nature, the Newfoundlanders are naturally, from their pursuits, certainly the most adventurous and fearless men in the world. Courage and industry, which certainly prevail, are to them absolutely necessary.

The seal fishery, as it is generally termed, has only become important within the last few years. It is little more than thirty years since the first vessels ventured among those formidable fields of ice that float from the northern regions, during the months of March, April, and May, down to the coast of Newfoundland.

Those who are acquainted with the terrific grandeur of the lofty islands and mountains of ice, covering often from two to three hundred miles of the ocean, and occasionally arrested by the coasts or shoals, will admit that it requires as much intrepidity to brave the dangers of such a scene, as to encounter a military fortification.

From three to four hundred vessels, of from 60 to 120 tons each, with crews of from sixteen to thirty men, have of late years been fitted out and sent from the different parts of Newfoundland to the seal fishery. They are always prepared for sea with necessary stores and fire-arms, poles to defend them from the ice, &c., before the Feast of St Patrick. Immediately after, the crews at the harbours, then frozen over, collect together, with all assistance from the shoremen, and, dividing themselves into two rows on the ice, and provided with hatchets, large saws, and strong poles, fix on two lines far enough separate to allow their largest schooners to pass. Each party cuts along the line, and divides the solid mass between them into squares, which are shoved with the poles under the firm ice; continuing this laborious operation until a channel is opened to the sea. The vessels then proceed to the field ice, pushing their way through the openings, or working to windward of it, until they meet with the herds of seals that accompany the ice. Where these occur, the part on which they are, is called seal meadows. These animals are surprised by the seal hunters while they are sleeping on the ice, and attacked with firelocks, or with strong bludgeons, which are considered preferable. But the hunters have frequently to shoot the large ones, which will turn upon the men, and make resistance. The piteous moan and cry of the young ones during the slaughter, require more than common nerves to disregard. The hooded

seals will draw their hoods, which are shot-proof, over their heads.

The skins, with the fat surrounding the bodies, are stripped off together, and the scalped carcasses left on the ice. The pelts, or scalps, are carried to the vessel, and packed closely in the hold; but the weather often is such as to leave no time to scalp the seals on the ice, and the carcasses are then carried whole to the vessel.

The situation of these vessels during the storms of snow and sleet which they have at that season inevitably to experience, is attended with fearful dangers. Many vessels have been crushed to pieces by the tremendous power of the ice closing on them, and their crews have also not unfrequently perished. Storms during night, among the ice, must be truly terrible; yet the hardy Newfoundland seal-hunters seem even to court those terribly sublime and hazardous adventures.

When the vessels are loaded with scalps, or, if unsuccessful, when the ice is scattered, and all except the islands is dissolved by the heat of the advancing summer, they return to their respective ports. Some vessels, which succeed soon after meeting the ice in filling up a cargo, make a second voyage.

The fat, or seal blubber, is separated from the skins, cut into pieces, and put into frame-work vats, through which, and small boughs inside, the oil oozes on being exposed to the heat of the sun. In three or four weeks it runs rapidly off, and becomes the seal oil of commerce.

The vats for cod oil are made of strong planks, dovetailed at the ends, and strengthened with iron clamps. Whatever water is mixed with the cod blubber, is afterwards allowed to run out by a plug-hole at the bottom, while the oil, floating on the top, runs off at different holes, and is guided into casks by leather spouts. The first that runs off the seal blubber is the virgin, or pale oil, and the last, the brown oil. The blubber fritters are afterwards boiled in metal cauldrons, to obtain the remaining oil from them.

The planters sell their seal-pelts to the merchants, who manufacture the oil, and ship it off in hogsheads, principally to England.\*

The seal-skins are spread and salted in bulk, and afterwards packed up in bundles of five each for shipping.

Seals are still caught at Newfoundland and Labrador, on the plan first adopted, by strong nets set across such narrow channels as they are in the habit of passing through.

In the beginning of June, the cod-fishery commences. The bank fishing is now, from various causes, abandoned by the English to the Americans and French, although the political value of Newfoundland, as a nursery for seamen, depended very much on this fishery. It was carried on by vessels fitted out in England; and the people employed in it being

\* It is said, that the water pumped out of vessels carrying oil, always calms the surrounding sea; and that the sea on the banks was made smooth and level during the fishing season when the bank fishery predominated.



the greater part of the year at sea, exposed to the weather of all seasons, cold and hot, stormy and calm, wet and dry, were consequently prepared for any hardship, and ready to encounter any danger.

The bankers, or vessels fishing on the banks, usually anchor where they find plenty of cod, which they catch with lines and hooks, or occasionally with jiggers. The operations of gutting and splitting are the same as on shore; and the fish is salted in bulk in the vessel's hold, until the cargo is completed. The fish caught on the banks are larger than those caught by the boats employed in the shore fishery, but do not look so well when cured, owing to lying so long in salt before being dried. It is, however, preferred in some markets, on account of its size. At present, not more than eight or ten British vessels are employed in the bank fishery; formerly there were six or seven hundred.

The boats used for the shore fishery are of different sizes; some requiring only two hands, while others have four, which is the general number. It is not uncommon to observe boys and girls, when cod is plentiful, fishing in these boats. Every fisherman is provided with two lines, having to each two hooks; both lines are thrown over at the same time, one on each side of the boat, to which one man attends. The kind of bait in season used, is such as herring, mackerel, caplins, squid, clams, and, when none of these are to be had, the flesh of birds. The entrails of fish taken with jiggers, and what is found within them, is also used for bait. A jigger is a piece of lead made

into the form of a small fish, with two hooks fixed into its mouth, and turned outwards in opposite directions. It is made fast to a line, which is thrown over into the sea, and by jerking it up and down, the hooks frequently fasten into the cod or other fish; the cod, which is probably the most voracious fish we know, also darts at, and swallows, the artificial fish with the hooks fastened to it. By these methods vast quantities of cod are caught. Seines are also used to catch cod; and vast numbers are hauled ashore on the coast of Labrador in this manner.

When the boats are stationed on the fishing ground, which is sometimes within the harbours, and, in the first of the season, near the shore, the men sit or stand at equal distances from the gunwales, and each attends to his own lines. So abundant are the fish at times, that a couple of cod are hooked on each line before the lead reaches the bottom; and while the one line is running out, the fisherman has only to turn round and pull in the other, with a fish on each hook. In this way they fill the boat in a very short time. If the cod be very large, it is lifted into the boat, as soon as it comes to the water's edge, by a strong iron hook fixed on the end of a short pole, called a gaft. As soon as the boat is loaded, they proceed to the stage on the shore with the fish, when the operations of splitting and salting succeed. Fish should be brought to the shore within forty-eight hours at farthest after it is caught. When plentiful, the boats often return in two or three hours, and push away

again immediately after the fish is thrown on the stage.

The stage is a building erected on posts, jutting out into the sea far enough to allow the fishing boats to come close to its end. Generally covered over and attached to it, or rather on the same platform, is the salt-house, in which there are one or more tables, with strong wooden stools for four important personages among the shoremen, distinguished by the expressive cognomens of cut-throat, header, splitter, and salter.\*

The fish is thrown with a kind of pike upon the stage, and carried generally by boys or women to the long table. The business of the cut-throat, as his name implies, is to cut, with a sharp-pointed double-edged knife, across the throat of the fish to the bone, and rip open its bowels. He then passes it quickly to the header, who, with a strong sudden wrench, pulls off the head, and tears out the entrails, passing the fish instantaneously to the splitter, and at the same moment separating the liver, precipitates the head and entrails through a hole in the platform into the sea, under the stage-floor. The splitter, with one cut, lays the fish open from head to tail, and, almost in the twinkling of an eye, with another cut takes out the sound bone, which, if the sounds are not to be preserved, he lets fall through a hole into the sea,

\* The splitter is next in rank to the foreman of the fishing-rooms, who is called master voyage, and under him, receives most wages; the next in precedence and wages is the salter. The cut-throat and header are pretty much on a par.

throwing the fish at the same moment, with the other hand, into the trudge-barrow. Such is the amazing quickness of the operations of heading and splitting, that it is not unusual to decapitate and take out the entrails and back-bones of six fish in one minute.

When the barrow is full, it is carried away immediately to the salter, and replaced by another.

The business of the salter is most important, as the value of the whole voyage depends on his care and judgment. He takes the fish out of the barrow, one by one, spreads them, with the back undermost, in layers, sprinkling a proper quantity of salt between each. The proportion of salt necessary to cure cod-fish, is generally estimated at the rate of one hog-head to ten or twelve quintals; but much depends on the place, and the state of the weather. More salt is used for green fish, or fish remaining long in bulk, than for fish salted on shore, to be spread out to dry in a few days; and more is necessary at Labrador than at Newfoundland. Sometimes the fish is salted in vats, which requires less salt, and also increases the weight; but it does not look so well, nor is it so much esteemed in foreign markets.

In salting, the bulks must not be of too great a size, as the weight would injure the lower tiers. In bulks, the fish must remain five or six days, and in vats, four or five. It is then carried in barrows, and thrown into vats or troughs full of holes, suspended from the stage in the sea. In this vat, the washer stands up to his knees among the fish and sea-water,

and wipes off the salt with a mop. The fish is then carried away in a barrow, and piled in a long heap, called by the unintelligible name of "water-horse," for the purpose of draining. In this state it may remain a day, before it is spread out on the flakes.

The fish then undergoes the process of drying. They are spread, heads and tails, either on hand-flakes, which are about breast high from the ground, and slightly constructed, or on broad flakes, raised on strong posts sometimes twenty feet high, with platforms of poles laid across. The latter, as being more exposed to pure air, are considered preferable. The fish is also, at times, spread out on boughs laid on the beach or ground. In the morning, it is usually spread out, with the fleshy side uppermost, and turned about mid-day, or more frequently, if the weather be hot. In the evening, they are gathered into small heaps, called "fagots," which are increased in size as the fish dries, from four or five, to twenty or more; and when nearly cured, made into large circular piles, much in the form of a hay-stack, with the upper layers always laid down, with the skin uppermost. These piles are thatched with the rinds of the spruce fir, or with tarpaulins, or circular deal frames, which are pressed down with heavy stones. After remaining some time in these piles "to sweat," as the fishermen term it, the fish is spread out again to complete the drying, and then removed into the warehouses.

As the least rain will spoil the fish, if not immediately attended to, nothing can exceed the hurry of

men, women, and children, whenever showers come on; they abandon every other engagement, and even run, if on Sunday, out of places of worship, to collect the fish into fagots or piles.

The nature of the cod-fishery is truly precarious. Sometimes the cod is not equally abundant on all parts of the coast, and, in that case, the fishermen have often to go a great distance in quest of them, and in some cases, have to split and salt their fish in the boat. The incessant labour also, which attends the curing, leaves the shoremen scarcely time, during the season, to eat their meals, and allows them little more than four hours' sleep.

The quality of the fish is affected by the least inattention or error in curing. If the weather be hot and calm, it is affected with fly-blows, and becomes maggoty; and a few fish of this description may contaminate a whole cargo. If too much salt have been used, the fibres break in drying, and the fish easily falls to pieces. In this state, it is called salt-burnt, and is unfit for market. It is affected much in the same way when left too long exposed to the sun without turning, and is then called sun-burnt. In damp or wet weather, putrefaction is apt to commence, it then becomes slimy; or by the weather beating on it, when in piles, it sometimes takes a brownish colour, and is called dun-fish, which, although excellent for present use, is not fit for shipping.

Previous to exportation, the fish is again spread out to dry, when it is culled, or sorted, into four qualities. First, the merchantable, which are those of

the finest colour and quality ; second, Madeira, which are nearly equal to the first ; third, West India fish, the refuse of all that is sufficiently cured to stand a sea voyage, without putrefying, and which, with the greater part of the Madeira, is sent for sale to the West Indies, to feed the negroes ; lastly, the broken fish, dun-fish, or whatever will not keep in warm countries, but which is in general equally good for domestic consumption : mud-fish, or green-fish, is generally understood to be cod-fish, either wholly or partially split and pickled.

The sounds are generally taken from the bones and the tongues, cut out of the heads by women and children, or old men. They are pickled in kegs. The livers of cod are put into vats or puncheons, exposed to the sun, the heat of which is sufficient to render them into oil, which is drained off, and put into casks for shipping. The remaining blubber is boiled to obtain the oil it contains.

The livers taken from the number of cod that will, when dry, make up 300 quintals, ough to produce a ton of oil ; but sometimes it requires double the quantity to yield a ton, while the livers of 150 quintals have been known to produce a ton.

The shore fishery is the most productive of both merchantable fish and oil. The northern fishery, now enjoyed by France, was carried on by the planters, by proceeding in schooners, with necessary stores and skiffs, to the northern harbours of Newfoundland, much in the same way as the fishery is at present conducted at Labrador, and the schooners sent back

with the fish to the respective merchants. The last fish brought home by the vessels being, like that sent in the autumn from Labrador, green, is discharged, on its arrival, into vats, or troughs, attached to the stages, and the salt washed off, when it is thrown on the stage, and piled into a water-horse to drain, before drying. The fish cured in the northerly parts of Labrador, is chiefly prepared in the cold dry air.

The western fishery, carried forward on the west coast of Newfoundland, is also, by treaty, abandoned to the French.

Whenever the planter settles his account in the fall with his merchant, and pays the wages of his servants, he prepares for winter, laying in provisions, &c., and in the following spring he resumes the same laborious course of employment that occupied him during the preceding year.



## CHAPTER VII.

Fisheries of British America—Rise, Progress, and Present State of these Fisheries—French and United States Fisheries on the Coast of Newfoundland, Labrador, and the Gulf of St Lawrence—Vast importance of these Fisheries, if exclusively possessed by Great Britain.

THE cod fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, and along the coasts of North America, commenced a few years after its discovery. In 1517, mention is made of the first English ship which had been at Newfoundland; where, at the same time, fifty Spanish, French, and Portuguese ships were fishing. The French, in 1536, were extensively engaged in this fishery; and we find, that, in 1578, there were employed in it, by Spain one hundred ships, by Portugal fifty ships, and by England only fifteen ships.\* The cause of the English having, at this period, so few ships in this branch of trade, was the fishery carried on by them at Iceland. The English ships, however, from this period, were considered the largest and best vessels, and soon became, and continued to be, the admirals. The Biscayans had, about the same time, from twenty to thirty vessels in the whale fishery at Newfoundland; and some English ships,

\* Hakluyt—Herrera.

in 1593, made a voyage in quest of whales and morses (walrus) to Cape Breton, where they found the wreck of a Biscay ship, and 800 whale fins. England had in 1615, at Newfoundland, 250 ships, amounting to 1500 tons ; and the French, Biscayans, and Portuguese, 400 ships.\*

From this period, the fisheries carried on by England became of great national consideration. De Witt observes, " that our navy became formidable by the discovery of the inexpressibly rich fishing bank of Newfoundland." In 1626, the French possessed themselves of, and settled at, Placentia ; and that nation always viewed the English in those parts with the greatest jealousy ; but still the value of these fisheries to England was fully appreciated, as appears by the various acts of Parliament passed, as well as different regulations adopted, for their protection.† Ships of war were sent out to convoy the fishing vessels, and to protect them on the coast ; and the ships engaged in the fisheries, as far back as 1676, carried about twenty guns, eighteen small boats, and from ninety to a hundred men.

By the treaty of Utrecht, the value and importance of our fisheries at Newfoundland and New England is particularly regarded. The French, however, continued afterwards, and until they were deprived of all their possessions in North America, to annoy the English engaged in fishing ; and in 1734, heavy

\* *Lex Mercatoria*.

† 2d and 3d Edward VI. Acts passed during the reigns of Elizabeth, and James I., cap. 1 and 2, 10 and 11 William and Mary.

complaints were made by the English, who had established a very extensive and profitable fishing at Canso, in Nova Scotia, against the French, who annoyed them, by every means in the power of those who commanded the fortress at Louisburg and other places in the neighbourhood.

About this period, the inhabitants of New England had about 1200 tons of shipping employed in the whale fishery; and with their vessels engaged in the cod fishery, they caught upwards of 23,000 quintals of fish, valued at twelve shillings per quintal, which they exported to Spain, and different ports within the Mediterranean, and remitted in payment for English manufactures, L.172,000.\*

Notwithstanding the value of the fishery carried on by the people of New England, and the important ship fishery carried on by the English at Newfoundland, both together were of far less magnitude than the fisheries followed by the French before the conquest of Cape Breton. By these fisheries alone, the navy of France became formidable to all Europe. In 1745, when Louisburg was taken by the forces sent from New England under Sir William Pepperell and the British squadron, the value of one year's fishing in the North American seas, and which depended on France possessing Cape Breton, was stated at L.982,000.† In 1748, however, at the treaty of peace, England was obliged to restore

\* Anderson on Commerce.

† Sir William Pepperell's Journal.

Cape Breton to the French in return for Madras, which the forces of France had conquered two years before; by which means, that nation enjoyed the full advantages of the fisheries until 1759, when the surrender of Cape Breton, St John's, and Canada, destroyed the French power in North America.

By the third and fourth articles of the treaty of Fontainbleau, signed in 1762, it was agreed, "that the French shall have the liberty of fishing and drying on a part of the coasts of the island of Newfoundland, as specified in the thirteenth article of the treaty of Utrecht; and the French may also fish in the Gulf of St Lawrence, so that they do not exercise the same but at the distance of three leagues from all the coasts belonging to Great Britain, as well those of the continent, as those of the islands in the said gulf. And as to what relates to the fishery out of the said gulf, the French shall exercise the same, but at the distance of fifteen leagues from the coasts of Cape Breton. Great Britain cedes to France, to serve as a shelter for the French fishermen, the islands of St Pierre and Miquelon; and his most Christian Majesty obliges himself, on his royal word, not to fortify the said islands, nor to erect any other buildings thereon, but merely for the convenience of the fishery; and to keep no more than fifty men for their police."

In the history of the fishery, little of importance appears from this period until the commencement of the war with America, France, and Spain, which

interrupted and checked the enterprise of the fishing adventurers.

The peace of 1783 gave the French the same advantages as they enjoyed by the treaty of Fontainebleau; and the right of fishing on all the British coasts of America was allowed to the subjects of the United States, in common with those of Great Britain, while these were denied the same privileges on the coasts of the former. In restoring to France the islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, it was contended that they were incapable of being fortified; while it is well known, that both these islands are, in an eminent degree, not only capable of being made impregnable, but that their situation alone would command the entrance to the Gulf of St Lawrence, if put into such a state of strength as it was in the power of France to put them.

After the American revolutionary war, the fisheries of British America were prosecuted in Newfoundland with energy and perseverance.

In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, the herring, mackerel, and Gasperean fisheries, were followed, but only on a limited scale. At Percé and Paspapiac, in the district of Gaspé, the cod fishery was carried on with spirit by two or three houses; and the salmon fishery followed at Restigouch, and at Miramichi. The cod fishery at Arichat, on the island of Madame, was pursued by the Acadian French settled there, who were supplied by hardy and economical adventurers from Jersey. The valuable fisheries on the coasts of Nova Scotia, New

Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, were, however, in a great measure overlooked or disregarded.

The last war with France drove the French again from the islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, and from the fisheries. At the peace of Amiens, they returned again to these islands; but were scarcely established before the war was renewed, and their vessels and property seized by some of our ships on the Halifax station. This was loudly remonstrated against by the French government.

A combination of events occurred during the late war, which raised the fisheries, particularly those of Newfoundland, to an extraordinary height of prosperity.\*

Great Britain possessed, almost exclusively, the fisheries on the banks and shores of Newfoundland, Labrador, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Gulf of St Lawrence; we enjoyed a monopoly of supplying Spain, Portugal, Madeira, different parts

\* In 1814, the exports were—

1,200,000 quintals fish, at 40s.	-	-	L.2,400,000
20,000 do. core do. at 12s.	-	-	12,000
6,000 tons cod oil, at L.32,	-	-	192,000
156,000 seal-skins, at 5s.	-	-	39,000
4,666 tons seal oil, at L.36,	-	-	167,976
2,000 tierces salmon, at L.5,	-	-	10,000
1,685 barrels mackerel, at 30s.	-	-	2,527
4,000 casks caplin, sounds, and tongues,	-	-	2,000
2,100 barrels herring, at 25s.	-	-	2,625
Beavers and other furs,	-	-	600
Pine timber and planks,	-	-	800
400 puncheons berries,	-	-	2,000

of the Mediterranean coasts, the West Indies, and South America, with fish ; and our ships not only engrossed the profits of carrying this article of commerce to market, but secured the freights of the commodities which the different countries they went to exported. It was by such eminent advantages as these that the fishery flourished, and that great gains were realized both by the merchants and shipowners.

The conclusion of the war was, however, followed by a depression more ruinous to our fisheries than had ever before been experienced. The causes that arrested their prosperity did not, by any means, arise merely from the changes necessarily produced by a sudden transition from war to peace, but from those stipulations in favour of France and America, in our last treaties with those powers.\*

It is very remarkable, that in all our treaties with France, the fisheries of North America were made a stipulation of extraordinary importance. The ministers of that power, at all times able negotiators, well knew the value of fisheries ; not merely in a commercial view, but in respect of their being necessarily essential in providing their navy with

\* The French, although we have ceded to them the exclusive right of fishing, are not permitted to become residents between Cape Ray and Cape John ; and, strange to say, we have, in our excess of kindness, agreed that no British subject shall settle along that coast. When the Americans asked our permission to fish on the west coast of Newfoundland, we were under the pitiful necessity of saying we could not grant their request, as we had no right to fish there ourselves. See Chitty's Law of Commerce, for the treaty of 1816, and convention of 1818.

that physical strength which would enable them to cope with other nations.

The policy of the French, from their first planting colonies in America, insists particularly on raising seamen for their navy by means of the fisheries. The nature of the French fishery was always such, that one-third, or at least one-fourth, of the men employed in it were "green men," or men who were never before at sea; and by this trade they bred up from 4000 to 6000 seamen annually.

Those who negotiated on the part of Great Britain, could not possibly have understood the eminent political and commercial value of the boons thus unnecessarily conceded to France and America.

With France the case was widely different. Every Frenchman acquainted with the history of his country, knew well that the sun of their naval splendour set on the day that Louisburg, the emporium of their fisheries, was taken. Neither were the Americans so ignorant of the rich treasures which abounded on the coasts of British America, as to allow the favourable moment for obtaining a participation in the fisheries to escape.

France now (1829) employs from 250 to 300 vessels in her fisheries on the British American banks and coasts, and 25,000 sea-going fishermen, who, by treaty, are bound not to become residents. The French ships are from 100 to 400 tons burden, carrying from 40 to 120 men each to and from the fisheries. These men, by experience alone, must



become sailors. The French vessels are principally fitted out at the ports of St Malves, Bourdeaux, Brest, Marseilles, &c. Many small shallops also cross from France to the fishery station of St Pierre.

Some of the French ships make two voyages to the banks of Newfoundland, carrying the fish back to France to be cured. Others make one voyage to the banks, and when they complete a cargo, proceed with it to St Pierre, on the coast of Newfoundland, where they cure the fish. The principal part of the crews are, in the meantime, employed fishing along the shores in boats; and the fish caught by them makes up the deficiency, in weight and bulk, occasioned by drying the cargo caught on the banks. Sometimes these ships, if their cargoes are not complete, stop, on their return from the coast, to catch fish on the banks, which they carry in a wet, or green state to France.

In ceding to France the right of fishing on the shores of Newfoundland from Cape John to Cape Ray, with the islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, we gave that ambitious nation all the means that her government desired for manning a navy; and if we were determined to lay a train of circumstances, which, by their operation, should sap the very vitals of our naval strength, we could not more effectually have done so, than by granting a full participation of those fisheries to France and America.

The former power immediately availed itself of the advantages acquired, agreeably to the policy acted on at all times by the French. Bounties were,

and are, given; which, if the fish be exported to meet us in foreign markets, is about equal to the expense of catching and curing, and which, if imported into France, is sufficient to protect against loss. No encouragement, however, is given, but with the proviso of creating seamen.

In consequence of these fisheries being now so firmly established, the bounties, I am informed, are somewhat reduced, and are at present understood to be—for shipping so employed, 24 francs, or 20s. per ton; for every green man, that is, a man who never was before at sea, seventy-five francs; on fish carried direct to other parts of Europe, or carried first to France, and thence to other parts of Europe, six francs per quintal; and if carried to the West Indies on board of French ships employed in the fisheries, twelve francs per quintal. It is also worth observing, that strict naval discipline is not lost sight of on board of the fishing vessels.

The French have other advantages besides bounties, which the British fishermen do not possess. They obtain all their articles of outfit cheaper; the wages of labour are, with them, lower; and they have also, as well as having the markets of the world open to them, a great home market.

St Pierre Island, where the governor resides, is also made a depôt for French manufactures, which are smuggled into our colonies. The ships of war that are sent from France to protect their fisheries, and all the other vessels engaged in the trade, make the harbour of this island their rendezvous. The

extent to which the French are carrying on their fisheries, and the number of men they have employed, are extraordinary, and prove the object to be of vast importance. The great number of ships of war now in progress of building in France, and the vast number of seamen which have been rearing since 1815 to man them, show also how determined that nation is to become again a great naval power.

By the convention of 1818, the Americans of the United States are allowed to fish along all our coasts and harbours, within three marine miles of the shore, (an indefinite distance,) and of curing fish in such harbours and bays as are uninhabited, or, if inhabited, with the consent of the inhabitants. The expert and industrious Americans, ever fertile in expedients, and always alert in the produce of gain, know well how to take advantage of so profitable a concession.

From the sea-coasts of Newfoundland ceded to France, which comprehend half the shores of the island, and the best fishing grounds, our fishermen have been expelled, and driven to the necessity of resorting, from two to four hundred miles farther north, to the coast of Labrador, where they are again met by swarms of Americans.

By particular circumstances, and the better to accomplish their object, the Americans are known to be guided by one feeling, to act more in union, on arriving on the fishing coasts. They frequently occupy the whole of the best fishing banks, to the exclusion of our fishermen; and their daring aggres-

sions have gone so far, as to drive by force our vessels and boats from their stations, and tear down the British flag in the harbours, hoisting in its place that of the United States. They are easily enabled, from their vastly superior numbers, to take all manner of advantage of our people. They frequently fish by means of seines, which they spread across the best places along the shores; and thus prevent the industry and success of the British fishermen. The crew of an American vessel, last year, which arrived on the coast of Labrador, anchored opposite a British settlement, cut the salmon net of the inhabitants, set their own in its stead, and threatened to shoot any one who approached it.

In order to take every advantage of the latitude granted them, the American vessels, during the day, when they apprehend the appearance of any of his Majesty's cruisers, anchor three miles from the shore; but as soon as night conceals their movements, they run under the lee of the land, and set their nets for herring and mackerel. Another consequence, as our fishermen contend, of the Americans being permitted to fish so near the shore, is, that the offal which they throw overboard, has the effect of driving the fish from the nearest banks, which renders the catch more difficult and distant.

The net fishing, which, by the limits of three miles, was intended to be secured to our people, the Americans are daring enough to persevere in prosecuting, while their ingenuity ensures them success,

thus interfering with the very boat fishery of the poor men settled along the shore.\*

A contraband trade, also, is carried on by the American fishing vessels, along different parts of the coast. The right of entering the harbours of our colonies for wood and water, affords an opportunity for smuggling ; at which there is not in the world a people more expert than the Americans. At the Magdalen Islands, and in many parts within the Gulf of St Lawrence, at Fox Island, and other parts of Nova Scotia, and along the coasts of New Brunswick, an illicit trade is extensively persevered in. Rum, molasses, French and East India goods, and American manufactures, are bartered generally for the best fish, and often sold for specie. The French also sell brandy, wine, and French manufactures, for the best fish, to our fishermen. The consequence of this smuggling trade is, not merely the defrauding of his Majesty's revenue, but the very fish thus sold to the Americans and French, is legally and honestly due, and ought to be paid, to the British merchant, who, in the first instance, supplies the fishermen with clothes, provisions, salt, and all kinds of fishing tackle. There are, indeed, such a multiplicity of courses pursued to supplant us in these fisheries, particularly by the

\* In making these remarks, I do not mean, nor should it be understood, that the American fishermen act in the way I describe, by direction, or immediate countenance, of their government. The fishermen of all countries, as far as I have been able to ascertain, wherever their numbers predominate, conduct themselves towards the weaker party in the most overbearing and wanton manner.

Americans, who are ever apt in finding out all the methods which serve the purpose of gain, that it would be quite superfluous to recapitulate more than I have stated.

In the shape of bounties, they are encouraged by their government; and as they conduct their fisheries, as regards expense and outfit, cheaper than we do, and on a different principle, they are enabled to bring their fish to market at half the price of ours.

There are two or more modes of fitting out for the fisheries followed by them. The first is accomplished by six or seven farmers, or their sons, building a schooner during winter, which they man themselves, (as all the Americans on the sea-coast are more or less seamen as well as farmers;) and, after fitting the vessel with necessary stores, they proceed to the banks, Gulf of St Lawrence, or Labrador, and, loading their vessel with fish, make a voyage between spring and harvest. The proceeds they divide, after paying any balance they may owe for outfit. They remain at home to assist in gathering their crops, and proceed again for another cargo, which is salted down, and not afterwards dried: this is termed mud-fish, and kept for home consumption. The other plan is, a merchant, or any other, owning a vessel, lets her to ten or fifteen men on shares. He finds the vessel and nets. The men pay for all the provisions, hooks and lines, and for the salt necessary to cure their proportion of the fish. One of the number is acknowledged master; but he has to catch fish as well as the others, and receives only

about twenty shillings per month for navigating the vessel: the crew have five-eighths of the fish caught, and the owners three-eighths of the whole.

The first spring voyage is made by them to the banks; the second either to the banks, Gulf of St Lawrence, or the coast of Labrador; the third, or fall voyage, is again to the banks; and a fourth, or second fall voyage, is also made, sometimes, to the banks.

In these fisheries the Americans have annually engaged from 1500 to 2000 schooners, of 90 to 130 tons, manned by about 30,000 men. Many of these vessels are employed again during winter in the coasting trade, or in carrying fish and other produce to South America and the West Indies.

The exports of cod-fish from the United States, wholly caught in the British American seas, average about 400,000 quintals annually,—nearly equal to half the quantity exported altogether by the British from Newfoundland and Labrador; and the home consumption of the Americans is equal to 1,200,000 quintals.\*

To the depreciation of the value of fish in foreign markets, caused by the privileges thus granted the French and Americans, and in a particular degree to the limited demand for fish oils, in the home market, may be attributed nearly altogether the depressed and still declining condition of the British American fisheries. The heavy duties exacted in Spain, Portugal, and Italy, occasion, no doubt, less

\* See reports of the American Congress, from 1825 to 1828.

demand for fish in those countries than formerly. In Spain, (probably under French influence,) the duty is equal to from 12s. 6d. to 14s. per quintal; in Italy, 8s.; in Portugal and Brazil, 15s. per cwt., valuing the fish at eight milrees per barrel of 128 lbs. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, had we but retained our fishing grounds, we should not have met with such powerful competitors in the different markets of the world.

Nothing could be more unwise than to allow either the French or Americans to enter the Gulf of St Lawrence; it is a Mediterranean, bounded by our colonies, and those powers had neither right nor pretence to its shores or its fisheries.

By these impolitic concessions, therefore, which we have made to France and to the United States, and, partially, by the operation of some other causes, the value of the British American fisheries is greatly reduced, and their political consequence equally diminished.

The shore, or boat fishery, to which the fishermen, particularly in Newfoundland, now confine themselves, is not, strictly speaking, a nursery for seamen. The bank fishery, in which we are supplanted by the French and Americans, was always a school of hardy training for rearing sailors; and the eight or ten English vessels that now frequent the banks, are not of more value than one of the large French ships.

France has completely succeeded in making her fisheries in our American seas of the utmost political consequence, in answering the great end of training



seamen for her navy ; and the republic of the United States has derived from them, at the same time, great commercial profit, and vast political strength.

In the event of a war with either of those powers, the effect would be, in respect to their fishermen, that, by being thrown out of peaceable employment, they would at once enter the navies of their respective countries.\*

About 8000 of the inhabitants of Newfoundland can only be justly considered sea-going men. These are principally the crews of the sealing vessels, who go also in summer to Labrador. The seal fishery is increasing fast, and deserves every encouragement. The men employed in the schooners fitted out for the Labrador fishery, from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, may also be considered regular sea-going men.

The provincial governments of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick have extended every possible encouragement to the fisheries, in the shape of bounties ; but, as these are drawn from the colonial revenues, it is disposing of a portion of those funds, to enable their fishermen to compete with their rivals, which would be more judiciously expended on internal improvements. Yet it is found absolutely necessary to grant these bounties to protect the fishing adventurers from ruin. The Newfoundland fishermen receive no encouragement of this kind, nor can the condition and circumstances of the colony afford any.

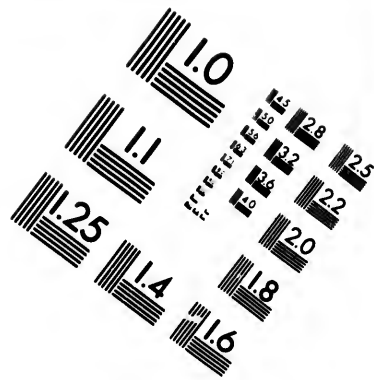
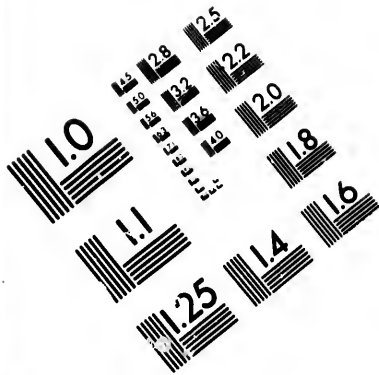
\* Note C.

The best protection that can now be extended to these fisheries, is, not to lay even the smallest duty on any article that is either directly or indirectly required for them. As respects Newfoundland, in particular, there is not an individual living on the island, who is not either immediately or indirectly connected with the fisheries.

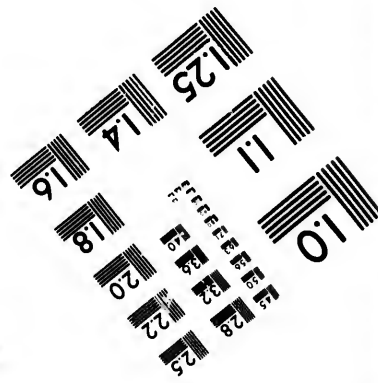
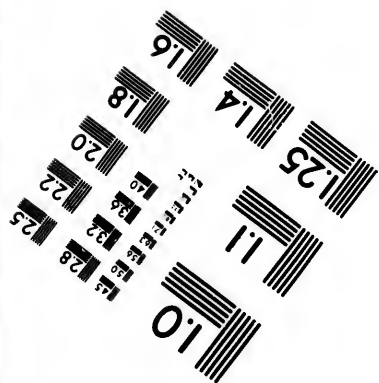
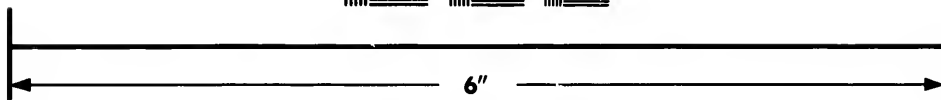
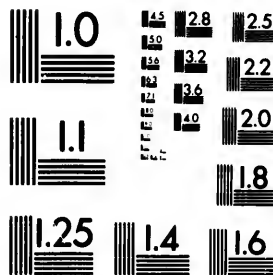
Every encouragement should be afforded, in order to supply our fisheries with provisions from our own colonies. Canada and Prince Edward Island could now supply them with bread-stuffs, cattle, and salted provisions. A reasonable bounty for some time on these articles might not be impolitic, as we give foreigners at present nearly the whole profit of supplying our fisheries with provisions; and money, or good bills of exchange, only are taken in payment for provisions purchased at Hamburg, and other foreign parts, for the fisheries. In our own colonies, the payments would be principally made in British manufactures.

The Labrador fishing, the seal fishery, a fishery to the banks, and the fitting out of vessels direct from England for the seal fishery, are objects of great consequence, and seriously worthy of national encouragement.





**IMAGE EVALUATION  
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic  
Sciences  
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET  
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580  
(716) 872-4503



## CHAPTER VIII.

Enquiry relative to the Aborigines of Newfoundland—Natives, called Red Indians, seen by Cabot, Cartier, and others—Whitbourne's Narrative—Scott's Adventure—Governor Montague and Captain Duff's Proclamations respecting them—Female Red Indian brought to St John's, and sent back with presents—Lieutenants Spratt and Buchan sent by Government in search of them—Mr Cormack's Expedition, and result.

THE people who inhabited Newfoundland, when first discovered, were a tribe of savages, usually called Red Indians, who have never had any reciprocal intercourse, or at least none that was properly understood, with Europeans.\* We know little of their history; and they will likely pass away from the face of the earth, if they be not even now extinct, without having known either the benefits or evils of civilisation, while they may only be remembered in history as a tribe that existed in the most rude and simple state of society, and hunted alike by Europeans and all the savage nations of America.

That they were originally a more savage, cruel, and treacherous race than the other American tribes, is not to be credited; and their vindictive, revengeful spirit, and their unconquerable aversion to be-

\* Note D.

come familiar with Europeans, may be very naturally accounted for.

When Cabot discovered Newfoundland, he saw the savages, "who were painted with red ochre, and covered with skins." Cartier, in 1534, saw the Red Indians, whom he describes "as of good size, wearing their hair in a bunch on the top of their head, and adorned with feathers." In 1574, Martin Frobisher, having been driven by the ice on the coast of Newfoundland, induced some of the natives to come on board; and with one of them he sent five sailors on shore, whom he never saw again. On this account, he seized one of the Indians, who died shortly after arriving in England. The following extracts from Whitbourne's book, published in 1620, throw some light on what the Red Indians were at that period:—"They believed that they were created from arrows stuck in the ground by the Good Spirit; and that the dead went into a far country to make merry with their friends." He says, "The poor infidel natives of Newfoundland, at that time, were ingenious, and apt, by a moderate and discreet government, to become obedient. Many of them join the French and Biscayans on the northern coast, and work hard for them, about fish, whales, &c., for some bread, or trifling trinkets. A party of them was surprised near Trinity Bay by a fishing crew; they left their canoes, a quantity of red ochre, bows, arrows, &c.; their two kettles, made of spruce (more probably birch) rind, were on the fire, with twelve ducks in each."

Captain Hayes also, who was second in command under Sir Humphrey Gilbert, says, "In the southern parts we found no inhabitants, which, by all likelihood, have abandoned these coasts, the same being frequented by Christians. But, in the north, are savages, altogether harmless."

For 130 years after, we can trace nothing of the history of the tribe, but that they were frequently shot by the northern fishermen and furriers, and that they were in the habit of coming suddenly from the unfrequented parts, and stealing nets, iron, or whatever they could lay their hands on. Indeed, we find all accounts respecting them agree in describing the Europeans and Red Indians as retaliating on each other, whenever opportunity offered; and it is difficult to say which were the most cruel and revengeful, except by making a proper allowance for moral instruction and civilisation, in which case we must certainly decide against the Europeans.

The governors made several attempts to establish an intercourse with the Red Indians, or, as they named themselves, Bœothics; but the deep feeling of injury which they entertained, and the inexorable, unforgiving spirit of savages, were not easily to be removed or conquered. About 1750, one Scott, a ship-master, with some others, went from St John's to the Bay of Exploits, where they built a place of residence, much in the manner of a fort. Some days afterwards, a party of Indians appeared, and halted near the place. Scott proceeded unarmed to them, contrary to the advice of his people, shook hands



with them, and mixed among them. An old man, who pretended friendship, put his arms round Scott's neck, when another immediately stabbed him in the back. The horrible yell or war-whoop immediately resounded ; a shower of arrows fell upon the English, which killed five of them, and the rest fled to their vessel, carrying off one of those who had been killed, with several arrows sticking in his body.

From this period, until the beginning of the present century, there appears to have been no farther intercourse with the Bœothics ; but that they continued to be hunted and shot like foxes, by the northern furriers and fishermen, is well known,—the only reason for such unjustifiable barbarity being, that the Bœothics came from their lurking places, and robbed the fishing-nets. We need not, therefore, be surprised at the unbending spirit of the Bœothics ; and as to their plundering the fishing-nets, they were undoubtedly compelled by hunger to do so, at the risk of being shot.

Captain Duff, Montague, and other governors, issued proclamations, which were intended to protect the Bœothics ; but little attention seems to have been paid by the settlers in the northern harbours, or by the furriers, to any legal authority, and the destruction of the Red Indians appeared to afford them as much sport as hunting beavers.

In 1803, a female Red Indian, in consequence of a reward offered by the governor, Admiral Lord Gambier, was taken by a fisherman, who surprised her while paddling her canoe towards a small island in

quest of birds' eggs. He carried her to St John's, where she was taken to the governor's, and kindly treated. She admired the epaulets of the officers more than any thing she saw; and although presents, and indeed whatever she asked for, were given her, she would never let her fur dress go out of her hands. She was afterwards sent back by the man who took her; but it is not known what became of her. It is not likely she ever joined her tribe.\*

It was hoped that the treatment she experienced would have induced some of her tribe to open an intercourse with the English; but this was doubtful, as they might have looked upon it as a plan to ensnare them.

In 1809, government sent a vessel to Exploits Bay, in order, if possible, to meet the Indians, and to open a friendly communication with them. Lieutenant

\* In consequence of Lieutenant Chapell having stated that this woman was murdered by the man who carried her back, I wrote to Mr Cormack on the subject, who informs me, "The old Red Indian woman whom you enquire about, was sent from St John's, in Admiral Gambier's time, with presents from the whites, to the woods from whence she came. Cull, the man who was intrusted with her and the presents, asked me, in 1827, 'if there was any means of getting at that lying fellow who wrote a book, and said that he' (Cull) 'killed the old woman when he got her into the country, and took her load of presents.' He then consulted me about proceeding against Chapell for the libel he wrote. I take it for granted that the old woman never joined her tribe, whatever became of her; but if the man who charged Cull with her murder, ever comes within the reach of Cull's gun, (and a long duck gun it is, that cost L.7 at Fogo,) he is as dead as any of the Red Indians that Cull has often shot."

Spratt, who commanded the vessel, had with him a painting, representing the officers of the royal navy shaking hands with an Indian chief, a party of sailors laying parcels of goods at his feet, Indians, men and women, presenting furs to the officers, an European and Indian mother looking at their respective children of the same age, and a sailor courting an Indian girl. This expedition did not, however, meet with any of the tribe.

In 1815-16, Lieutenant Buchan, in his Majesty's schooner, was dispatched to the river Exploits, with orders to winter there, and, if possible, to open an intercourse with the Bœothics. He had the fortune to meet them, and finally succeeded in communicating with them. He left two of his marines with them as hostages for the safe return of two of the tribe, whom he induced to accompany him to a depôt of baggage, among which were presents for the Indians. Something prevented the return of Lieutenant Buchan at the appointed time, and the Bœothics, considering the delay as treachery on the part of the whites, tore the heads of the marines from their bodies.

On Lieutenant Buchan returning, the hostages took to the woods, and he soon after found the bodies of the unlucky marines, the Indians having run off with the heads. This was a most unfortunate affair; and it is much to be lamented that Lieutenant Buchan, under any circumstances, did not return in due time.\*

\* Mr Cormack was afterwards informed by the captive Red Indian woman, Shanandithit, that there were other causes for the murder of the marines. All of the tribe that had remained were

Nothing further was known of this extraordinary tribe, until the winter of 1819, when a party of furriers proceeded up to the Red Indian Lake, where they met two men and a woman on the ice. They made a prisoner of the woman; but her husband, who became desperate, and determined to rescue her single-handed, was most unjustly and cruelly shot by the brutal party, who also shot the other man. They carried off the woman, whom they called Mary March, being the name of the mouth in which they made her a captive. Her husband, whom they murdered, was a most noble-looking man, about six feet high. This woman was carried to St John's, and, in the following winter, was sent back to the river Exploits, in charge of Captain Buchan. She died on board his vessel, at the mouth of the river; but he carried her body up to the lake, where he left it in a coffin, in a place where he knew her tribe would likely find it. It appears that a party of them was encamped at this time near the banks of the river, who observed Captain Buchan on the ice, and afterwards carried away the body of Mary March, which they deposited alongside of that of her husband.\*

The last time any of the Bœothics were seen, was then at the Grand Lake, in different encampments. A suspicion spread among them that Captain Buchan had gone down to bring up a party of men from the sea-coast to make all the Bœothics prisoners. They accordingly determined on breaking up their encampments, and to alarm and join the rest of their tribe, who were encamped on the western side of the lake. To prevent their proceedings being known, they decapitated the marines.

\* See Mr Cormack's Narrative hereafter.

during the winter of 1823, on the ice, at New Bay, an arm of Notre Dame Bay. Three of the women gave themselves up, in a starving condition, to a party of furriers; one of them, Shanandithit, was afterwards brought to St John's, through the humanity of the members of the Bœothic Institution. A few days before these women surrendered themselves, and not far distant, two English furriers shot a man and woman of the tribe, who appeared to approach soliciting food. The man was first killed; and the woman, in despair, remained calmly to be fired at, when she was also shot through the back and chest, and immediately expired. Mr Cormack was told this by the very white barbarian who shot her.

Such was the fate of this tribe; and to the enterprise and philanthropy of Mr Cormack, we owe all that remains to be told of them. That gentleman kindly furnished me with a brief narrative of his last expedition, as contained in the statement laid by him, on his return to St John's, before the Bœothic Institution. It is so very interesting, and, at the same time, so sufficiently brief, as to justify my transcribing it in full. Mr Cormack, in company with the Honourable Augustus Wallet Desbarres, one of the judges of the Supreme Court of Newfoundland, proceeded in a government vessel to Twillingate, the most northerly settlement. Before Mr Cormack's final departure from this place, a numerous meeting of the friends of the expedition was held. On this occasion, Mr Cormack, after the object of the expedition had been eulogized by Judge Desbarres, addressed

those around him, and said, among other matters, "Is there no honest pride in him who protects man from the shafts of injustice? Nay, is there not an inward monitor, approving of all our acts which shall have the tendency to lessen crime and prevent murder? We now stand on the nearest part of the New World to Europe, of Newfoundland to Britain; and, at this day, and on this sacred spot, do we form the first assembly that has ever yet collected together to consider the condition of the invaded and ill-treated first occupiers of this country. Britons have trespassed here, to be a blight and a scourge to a portion of the human race; under their, in other respects, protecting power, a defenceless, and once independent tribe of men, have been nearly extirpated from the face of the earth, scarcely causing an enquiry how or why. Near this spot, man is known to remain in all his primitive rudeness, clothed in skins, and armed only with a bow and arrow, by which to gain his subsistence, and to repel the attacks of his reckless and lawless foes.

"It would appear from what we can glean from tradition, that about a century and a half ago, this tribe was numerous and powerful, like its neighbours, the Micmacs. Both tribes were then on friendly terms. A misunderstanding with the French, who then held the sway in those parts, led, in the result, to hostilities between them; and the sequel of the tradition runs as follows:—

"The European authorities, who, we may suppose, were not over scrupulous in dealing out equity here

in those days, offered a reward for the persons or heads of certain of the Red Indians. Some of the Micmaes were tempted by the reward, and took off the heads of two of them. Before the heads were delivered to obtain the reward, they were by accident discovered concealed in the canoe which was to convey them, and recognised by some of the Red Indians as those of their friends. The Red Indians gave no intimation of the discovery to the perpetrators of the unprovoked outrage, but consulted among themselves, and determined on having revenge. They invited the Micmaes to a feast, and arranged their guests in such order, that every Bœothic had a Micmae by his side; at a preconcerted signal, every Bœothic slew his guest. They then retired quickly from those parts bordering on the Micmae country. War of course ensued. Fire-arms were little known to the Indians at this time, but they soon came into more general use among such tribes as continued to hold intercourse with Europeans. This circumstance gave the Micmaes an undisputed ascendancy over the Bœothics, who were forced to betake themselves to the recesses of the interior, and other parts of the island, alarmed, as well they might be, at every report of the firelock.

“ Since that day, European weapons have been directed from every quarter (and in later times, too often) at the open breasts and unstrung bows of the unoffending Bœothics. Sometimes these unsullied people of the chase have been destroyed wantonly, because they have been thought more fleet and more

evasive than men ought to be. At other times, at the sight of them, the terror of the ignorant European has goaded him on to murder the innocent, at the bare mention of which civilisation ought to weep. Incessant and ruthless persecution, continued for many generations, has given these silvan people an utter distrust and abhorrence of the very signs of civilisation. Shanandithit, the surviving female of those who were captured four years ago by some fishermen, will not now return to her tribe, for fear they should put her to death; a proof of the estimation in which we are held by that persecuted people.

“The situation of the unfortunate Bœothics carries with it our warmest sympathy, and loudly calls on us all to do something for the sake of humanity. For my own satisfaction, I have, for a time, released myself from all other avocations, and am here now on my way to visit that part of the country which the surviving remnant of the tribe have of late years frequented, to endeavour to force a friendly interview with some of them, before they are entirely annihilated; but it will most probably require many such interviews, and some years, to reconcile them to the approaches of civilized man.”\*

Mr Cornack proceeded from Twillingate, by sea, to the Bay of Exploits, and he gives us the narrative of his journey in a statement laid before the Bœothic Institution at St John's. “Having,” says he, “so

\* At this meeting a society was formed, and called the Bœothic Institution, the primary object of which was to discover and open a friendly intercourse with the Red Indians, or Bœothics.



recently returned, I will now only lay before you a brief outline of my expedition in search of the Bœothics, or Red Indians, confining my remarks exclusively to its primary object.

“ My party consisted of three Indians, whom I procured from among the other tribes ; the first, an intelligent and able man of the Abenakee tribe, from Canada ; an elderly mountaineer from Labrador ; and an adventurous young Micmac, a native of the island, together with myself. It was difficult to obtain men fit for the purpose ; and the trouble attendant on this, prevented my entering on the expedition a month earlier in the season. It was my intention to have commenced our search at White Bay, which is nearer the northern extremity of the island than where we did ; but the weather not permitting to carry my party thither by water, after several days' delay, I unwillingly changed my line of route.

“ On the 31st October, 1827, we entered the country at the mouth of the river Exploits, on the north side, at the branch called the Northern Arm ; we took a north-westerly direction, which led us to Hall's Bay, through an almost uninterrupted forest, and over a hilly country, in eight days. This tract includes the interior country, extending from New Bay, Badger Bay, Seal Bay, &c., being minor bays branching from Notre Dame Bay, and well known to have been heretofore always the summer residences of the Red Indians.

“ On the fourth day after our departure, at the east end of Badger Bay, Great Lake, at a portage

known by the name of the Indian Path, we found traces made by the Red Indians, evidently in the spring or summer of the preceding year. Their party had had two canoes; and here was a canoe rest, on which the daubs of red ochre, and the roots of trees, used to fasten or tie it together, appeared fresh. A canoe rest is simply a few beams, supported horizontally, about five feet from the ground, by perpendicular posts. A party with two canoes, when descending from the interior to the sea-coast, through such a part of the country as this, where there are troublesome portages, leave one canoe resting, bottom up, on this kind of frame, to protect it from injury by the weather, until their return. Among other things which lay strewn about here, were a spear-shaft, eight feet in length, recently made and ochred, parts of old canoes, fragments of their skin dresses, &c. For some distance around, the trunks of many of the birch, and of that species of spruce-pine, called here the var, (*pinus balsamifera*,) had been rinded; these people using the inner part of the bark of that kind of tree for food. Some of the cuts in the trees with the axe were evidently made the preceding year. Besides these, we were elated by other encouraging signs. The traces left by the Red Indians are so peculiar, that we were confident those we saw here were made by them.

“ This spot has been a favourable place of settlement with these people. It is situated at the commencement of a portage, which forms a communication by a path between the sea-coast at Badger Bay,

about eight miles to the north-east, and a chain of lakes extending westerly and southerly from hence, and discharging their surplus waters into the river Exploits, about thirty miles from its mouth. A path also leads from this place to the lakes, near New Bay, to the eastward. Here are the remains of one of their villages, where the vestiges of eight or ten winter mamateeks, or wigwams, each intended to contain from six to eighteen or twenty people, are distinctly seen close together. Besides these, there are the remains of a number of summer wigwams. Every winter wigwam has close by it a small square-mouthed or oblong pit, dug into the earth, about four feet deep, in which to preserve their stores, &c. Some of these pits were lined with birch-rind. We discovered also in this village the remains of a vapour-bath. The method used by the Bœothics to raise the steam, was by pouring water on large stones made very hot for the purpose, in the open air, by burning a quantity of wood around them; after this process, the ashes were removed, and a hemispherical framework, closely covered with skins to exclude the external air, was fixed over these stones. The patient then crept in under the skins, taking with him a birch-rind bucket of water, and a small bark dish with which to pour it on the stones, and to enable him to raise the steam at pleasure.

“ At Hall's Bay, we got no useful information from the three (and the only) English families settled there; indeed, we could hardly have expected any; for these, and such people, have been the unchecked

and ruthless destroyers of the tribe, the remnant of which we were in search of. After sleeping one night in a house, we again struck into the country to the westward.

“ In five days we were in the high lands south of White Bay, and in sight of the high lands east of the Bay of Islands, on the west coast of Newfoundland. The country south and west of us was low and flat, consisting of marshes extending southerly more than thirty miles. In this direction lies the famous Red Indian Lake. It was now near the middle of November, and the winter had commenced pretty severely in the interior. The country was everywhere covered with snow, and for some days past we had walked over the small ponds on the ice. The summits of the hills on which we stood had snow on them, in some places many feet deep. The deer were migrating from the rugged and dreary mountains in the north, to the low and mossy ravines, and more woody parts in the south; and we inferred, that if any of the Red Indians had been at White Bay during the past summer, they might at that time be stationed about the borders of the low tract of country before us, at the deer-passes, or employed somewhere else in the interior, killing deer for winter provisions. At these passes—which are particular places in the migration lines of path, such as the extreme ends of, and straits in, many of the large lakes, the bottoms of valleys, between high and rugged mountains, fords in the large rivers, and the like—the Indians kill great numbers of deer, with very little trouble, during their

migrations. We looked out for two days from the summits of the hills adjacent, trying to discover the smoke from the camps of the Red Indians, but in vain. These hills command a very extensive view of the country in every direction.

“ We now determined to proceed towards the Red Indian Lake, sanguine that at that known rendezvous we would find the objects of our search.

“ Travelling over such a country, except when winter has fairly set in, is truly laborious.

“ In about ten days, we got a glimpse of this beautifully majestic and splendid sheet of water. The ravages of fire which we saw in the woods, for the last two days, indicated that man had been near. We looked down upon the lake, from the hills at the northern extremity, with feelings of anxiety and admiration. No canoe could be discovered moving on its placid surface. We were the first Europeans who had seen it in an unfrozen state; for the three parties who had visited it before, were here in the winter, when its waters were frozen and covered with snow. They had reached it from below, by way of the river Exploits, on the ice. We approached the lake with hope and caution, but found, to our mortification, that the Red Indians had deserted it for some years past. My party had been so excited, so sanguine, and so determined to obtain an interview of some kind with these people, that on discovering, from appearances everywhere around us, that the Red Indians, the terror of the Europeans, as well as the other Indian inhabitants of Newfoundland, no

longer existed, the spirits of one and all of us were very deeply affected. The old mountaineer was particularly overcome. There were everywhere indications that this had long been the central and undisturbed rendezvous of the tribe, when they had enjoyed peace and security. But these primitive people had abandoned it, after having been tormented by parties of Europeans during the last eighteen years. Fatal rencontres had, on these occasions, unfortunately taken place.

“ We spent several melancholy days wandering on the borders of the east end of the lake, surveying the various remains of what we now contemplated to have been an unoffending and cruelly extirpated people. At several places, by the margin of the lake, are small clusters of summer and winter wigwams in ruins. One difference, among others, between the Bœothic wigwams and those of other Indians is, that in most of the former there are small hollows, like nests, dug in the earth, around the fire-place, and in the sides of the wigwam, so that I think it probable these people have been accustomed to sleep in a sitting position. There was one wooden building constructed for drying and smoking venison in, still perfect; also a small log-house, in a dilapidated condition, which we took to have been a store-house. The wreck of a large handsome birch-rind canoe, about twenty-two feet in length, comparatively new, and certainly very little used, lay thrown up among the bushes at the beach. We supposed that the violence of a storm had rent it in the way it was found, and

that the people who were in it had perished, for the iron nails, of which there was no want, all remained in it. Had there been any survivors, nails being much prized by these people, they never having held intercourse with Europeans, such an article would most likely have been taken out for use again. All the birch-trees in the vicinity of the lake had been rinded, and many of those of the spruce-fir or var, (*pinus balsamifera*, Canadian balsam-tree,) had the bark taken off, to use the inner part for food, as noticed before.

“ Their wooden repositories for the dead are in the most perfect state of preservation. These are of different constructions, it would appear, according to the rank of the persons entombed. In one of them, which resembled a hut, ten feet by eight or nine, and four or five feet high in the centre, floored with square poles, the roof covered with the rinds of trees, and in every way well secured against the weather, and the intrusion of wild beasts, the bodies of two full-grown persons were laid out at length on the floor, and wrapped round with deer skins. One of these bodies appeared to have been entombed not longer than five or six years. We thought there were children laid in here also. On first opening this building, by removing the posts which formed the ends, our curiosity was raised to the highest pitch; but what added to our surprise, was the discovery of a white deal coffin, containing a skeleton neatly shrouded in white muslin. After a long pause of conjecture how such a thing existed here, the idea of Mary March

occurred to one of the party, and the whole mystery was at once explained.

“ In this cemetery were deposited a variety of articles, in some instances the property, in others the representations of the property and utensils, and of the achievements, of the deceased. There were two small wooden images of a man and woman, no doubt meant to represent husband and wife; a small doll, which we supposed to represent a child, (for Mary March had to leave her only child here, which died two days after she was taken;) several small models of their canoes, two small models of boats, an iron axe, a bow, and quiver of arrows, were placed by the side of Mary March's husband, and two fire-stones (radiated iron pyrites, from which they produce fire, by striking them together) lay at his head; there were also various kinds of culinary utensils, neatly made of birch-rind, and ornamented; and many other things, of some of which we did not know the use or meaning.

“ Another mode of sepulture which we saw here, was, when the body of the deceased had been wrapped in birch-rind, it was, with his property, placed on a sort of scaffold about four feet and a half from the ground. The scaffold was formed of four posts, about seven feet high, fixed perpendicularly in the ground, to sustain a kind of crib, five feet and a half in length by four in breadth, with a floor made of small squared beams laid close together horizontally, and on which the body and property rested.

“ A third mode was, when the body, bent together,



and wrapped in birch-rind, was enclosed in a kind of box on the ground. The box was made of small square posts, laid on each other, horizontally, and notched at the corners to make them meet close. It was about four feet by three, and two and a half feet deep, and well lined with birch-rind, to exclude the weather from the inside. The body lay on its right side.

“ A fourth, and the most common mode of burying among these people, has been to wrap the body in birch-rind, and cover it over with a heap of stones, on the surface of the earth, in some retired spot. Sometimes the body thus wrapped up is put a foot or two under the surface, and the spot covered with stones. In one place, where the ground was sandy and soft, they appeared to have been buried deeper, and no stones placed over the graves.

“ These people appear to have always shown great respect for their dead ; and the most remarkable remains of them, commonly observed by Europeans at the sea-coast, are their burying-places. These are at particular chosen spots ; and it is well known that they have been in the habit of bringing their dead from a distance to them. With their women they bring only their clothes.

“ On the north side of the lake, opposite the river Exploits, are the extremities of two deer fences, about half a mile apart, where they lead to the water. It is understood that they diverge many miles in a north-westerly direction. The Red Indians make these to lead the deer to the lake, during the periodical

migration of those animals. The Indians, stationing themselves near where the deer get into the water to swim across, the lake being narrow at this end, pursue the animals in their canoes, and kill them with spears. In this way they secure their winter provisions before the severity of the winter sets in.

“ There were other remains of different kinds peculiar to these people, met with about this lake.

“ One night we encamped on the foundation of an old Indian wigwam, on the extremity of a point of land which juts out into the lake, and exposed to the view of the whole country around. A large fire at night is the life and soul of such a party as ours; and, when it blazed up at times, I could not help observing, that two of my Indians evinced uneasiness and want of confidence in things around, as if they thought themselves usurpers on the Red Indian territory. From time immemorial, none of the Indians of the other tribes had ever encamped near this lake, fearlessly, and as we had now done, in the very centre of such a country; the lake and territory adjacent having been always considered to belong exclusively to the Red Indians, and to have been occupied by them. It had been our invariable practice hitherto to encamp near hills, and be on their summits by the dawn of day, to try and discover the morning smoke ascending from the Red Indians' camps; and, to prevent the discovery of ourselves, we extinguished our own fire always some length of time before daylight.

“ Our only and frail hope now left, of seeing the

Red Indians, lay on the banks of the river Exploits, on our return to the sea-coast.

“The Red Indian Lake discharges itself about three or four miles from its north-east end ; and its waters form the river Exploits. From the lake to the sea-coast is considered about seventy miles ; and down this noble river the steady perseverance and intrepidity of my Indians carried me on rafts in four days ; to accomplish which otherwise, would have required probably two weeks. We landed at various places on both banks of the river on our way down, but found no traces of the Red Indians so recent as those seen at the portage at Badger Bay, Great Lake, towards the beginning of our excursion. During our descent, we had to construct new rafts at the different waterfalls. Sometimes we were carried down the rapids at the rate of ten miles an hour, or more, with considerable risk of destruction to the whole party, for we were always together on one raft.

“What arrests the attention most, in gliding down the stream, is the extent of the Indian fences to entrap deer. They extend from the lake downwards, continuous, on the banks of the river, at least thirty miles. There are openings left here and there for the animals to go through and swim across the river, and at these places the Indians are stationed, and kill them in the water with spears out of their canoes, as at the lake.

“Here, then, connecting these fences with those on the north-west side of the lake, is at least forty miles of country, easterly and westerly, prepared to inter-

cept all the deer that pass that way in their periodical migrations. It was melancholy to contemplate the gigantic, yet rude, efforts of a whole primitive nation, in their anxiety to provide subsistence, forsaken and going to decay.

“There must have been hundreds of Red Indians, and that not many years ago, to have kept up these fences and pounds. As their numbers were lessened, so was their ability to keep them up for the purposes intended, and now the deer pass the whole line unmolested.

“We infer that the few of these people who may yet survive, have taken refuge in some sequestered spot, in the northern part of the island, where they can procure deer to subsist on.

“On the 29th of November, we again arrived at the mouth of the river Exploits, thirty days after our departure from thence, after having made a complete circuit of 220 miles in the Red Indian territory.

“The materials collected on this, as well as on my excursion across the interior a few years ago, and on other occasions, put me in possession of a general knowledge of the natural condition and productions of Newfoundland; and, as a member of an institution formed to protect the aboriginal inhabitants of the country in which we live, and to prosecute enquiry into the moral character of man in his primitive state, I can, at this early stage of our institution, assert, trusting to nothing vague, that we already possess more information concerning these people, than has been obtained during the two centuries and a half

that Newfoundland has been in the possession of Europeans. But it is to be lamented, that now, when we have taken up the cause of a barbarously treated people, so few should remain to reap the benefit of our plans for their civilisation. The institution and its supporters will agree with me, that after the unfortunate circumstances attending past encounters between the Europeans and the Red Indians, it is best now to employ Indians belonging to the other tribes, to be the medium of beginning the intercourse we have in view ; and, indeed, I have already chosen three of the most intelligent men, from among the others met with in Newfoundland, to follow up my search.

“ I have the pleasure to present to the Bœothic Institution several ingenious articles, the manufacture of the Bœothics ; some of which we had the good fortune to discover on our recent excursion, models of their canoes, bows and arrows, spears of different kinds, &c., and also a complete dress worn by that people. Their mode of kindling fire is not only original, but, as far as we at present know, is peculiar to their tribe. These articles, together with a short vocabulary of their language, consisting of from 200 to 300 words, which I have been enabled to collect, prove the Bœothics to be a distinct tribe from any hitherto discovered in North America. One remarkable characteristic of their language, and in which it resembles those of Europe more than any other Indian languages do, with which we have had an opportunity of comparing it, is its abounding in

diphthongs. In my detailed report, I would propose to have plates of these articles, and also of the like articles used by other tribes of Indians, that a comparative idea may be formed of them; and when the Indian female, Shanandithit, arrives in St John's, I would recommend that a correct likeness of her be taken, and be preserved in the records of the institution. One of the specimens of mineralogy which we found in our excursion, was a block of what is called Labrador felspar, nearly four and a half feet in length, by about three feet in breadth and thickness. This is the largest piece of that beautiful rock yet discovered anywhere. Our subsistence in the interior was entirely animal food, deer and beavers, which we shot."

The Bœothic Institution of St John's placed the Indians who had accompanied Mr Cormack, on their establishment, to be employed under his immediate direction and control, as president, for the purpose of discovering the abodes of the Red Indians.

The Indian woman, Shanandithit, was also brought to St John's, where she lived in Mr Cormack's house, until he left the colony in 1829, when she was taken into the house of the Attorney-General, Mr Simms. She died in June following. A Newfoundland paper of the 12th June, 1829, notices her death by stating—"Died, on Saturday night, the 6th instant, at the hospital, Shanandithit, the female Indian, one of the aborigines of this island. She died of consumption, a disease which seems to have been remarkably prevalent among her tribe, and

which has unfortunately been fatal to all who have fallen into the hands of the settlers. Since the departure of Mr Cormack from the island, this poor woman has had an asylum afforded her in the house of James Simms, Esq. Attorney-General, where every attention has been paid to her wants and comforts; and, under the able and professional advice of Dr Carson, who has most kindly and liberally attended her for many months past, it was hoped that her health might have been re-established. Lately, however, her disease had become daily more formidable, and her strength had rapidly declined; and, a short time since, it was deemed advisable to send her to the hospital, where her sudden decease has but too soon fulfilled the fears that were entertained for her. With Shanandithit has probably expired nearly the last of the native Indians of the island; indeed, it is considered doubtful by some whether any of them now survive. It is certainly a matter of regret, that those individuals who have interested themselves most to support the cause of science and humanity, by the civilisation of these Indians, should have their labours and hopes so unfortunately and suddenly terminated. They have, however, the satisfaction of knowing that their object has been to mitigate the sufferings of humanity, and that, at least, they have endeavoured to pay a portion of that immense debt which is due from the European settlers of Newfoundland to those unfortunate Indians, who have been so long oppressed and persecuted, and are almost, if not wholly, exterminated."

The relics of the Bœothics, which Mr Cormack brought to England, are exceedingly interesting to all those who take an interest in the study of man, and who would trace his progress from his rude and natural state to what we consider civilisation.

The Indians employed by the Bœothic Institution have been unsuccessful in their journeys, and it is now believed that the tribe is extinct. A very few may possibly still exist in the most hidden and wild places, among deep ravines, or in dark inaccessible solitudes, determined never to appear again in the presence of Europeans.



## NOTES TO BOOK III.

## NOTE A, page 182.

“ AMONG all the settlements with which the Europeans have covered the New World, there is none of the nature of Newfoundland. The others have generally been the destruction of the first colonists they have received, and of a great number of their successors: this climate, of itself, hath not destroyed one single person; it hath even restored strength to some of those whose health had been affected by less wholesome climates. The other colonies have exhibited a series of injustice, oppression, and carnage, which will for ever be holden in detestation. Newfoundland alone hath not offended against humanity, nor injured the rights of any other people.\* The other settlements have yielded productions, only by receiving an equal value in exchange. Newfoundland alone hath drawn from the depths of the waters riches formed by nature alone; and which furnish subsistence to several countries of both hemispheres.

“ How much time hath elapsed before this parallel hath been made! Of what importance did fish appear, when compared to the money which men went in search of in the New World! It was long before it was understood, if even it be yet understood, that the representation of the thing is not of greater value than the thing itself; and that a ship filled with cod, and a galleon, are vessels equally laden with gold. There is even this remarkable difference, that mines can be exhausted, and the fisheries never are.† Gold is not reproduced, but the fish are so incessantly.”—Raynal, vol. v. p. 296.

\* The sufferings of the Red Indians form an exception which the Abbé was unacquainted with.

† An able naturalist, who is said to have had the patience to count the eggs contained in the roe of a single cod, found the number to be 9,344,000.

## NOTE B, page 217.

“ IT is a very general custom at Newfoundland for the labouring classes and others, in the winter season, as a compliment to the clergyman, to bring him from the interior a quantity of wood or fuel. The friends of the clergyman of the established church at Saint John's, some short time ago, proposed what is there called a ‘ general haul of wood’ for his benefit. I had the gratification of hearing the good, pious, and venerable bishop of the Roman Catholic church address his numerous congregation, and request of them that they would join in the haul of wood, and that their general exertions, in behalf of his brother of the established church, would be more gratifying than any thing they could do for himself. On the day of the haul, it was most gratifying to observe the Roman Catholics, united with their brethren of every other religious persuasion, moving immense masses of wood in the direction of the house of the worthy minister. The great body of the working people were Irish, or their immediate descendants ; and I can assure your lordship, that it warmed my heart, though the mercury was fifteen degrees below zero, to observe the perspiration floating down their manly brows, whilst vying with the people of other countries, and other religions, as to who should pay the greatest compliment to the respected individual. The quantity of wood hauled out by the united efforts of the people was great indeed ; but it would be an act of injustice to the individual for whose nominal benefit this haul was made, not to state that it was soon conveyed from his residence to warm the cheerless cottages of the poor, the sick, the widow, and the orphan.”—Mr Morris's Letter to Lord Bexley.

## NOTE C, page 250.

WERE it not for the sailors who are bred in the United States fishing vessels, that nation never could man a fleet ; and Mr de Roos's conclusions would have been correct, had we not given the Americans a participation in our fisheries. It is well known, that during the last war, the Americans never could have sent their

ships of war to sea, if it were not for the vast number of English sailors, principally deserters, whom they hire: but their fisheries will henceforth make up the necessary crews, although with some difficulty at first, to man a formidable fleet. What the late Judge Haliburton of Nova Scotia has said, in a small but valuable pamphlet, written by him, "On the Importance of the Colonies," and from which Mr de Roos, in his narrative, has quoted some paragraphs, to prove that the American navy is not likely ever to become formidable, would also hold true, were it not for the advantages we have given them, by allowing them to fish on all our American coasts. There is no country that can more easily build a great fleet than the United States. The only difficulty with them would be to furnish sailors, and we have ourselves removed that difficulty.

## NOTE D, page 252.

AMONG the Norwegian and Icelandic historical records, the discovery of a country, called by them Winland, on account of its abounding in grapes, is frequently mentioned; and that, in 1221, Eric, Bishop of Greenland, went to Winland to reform his countrymen, who had degenerated into savages; that he never returned, and that nothing more was heard of Winland for several centuries. It is very probable that the adventurous Norwegians discovered Newfoundland and Labrador; but that they made settlements in either, as they did in Greenland, is very doubtful. As to grapes abounding in Newfoundland, we may safely deny this. The vast quantities of wild cranberries, which are large, red, and juicy, might very naturally have been called grapes by the Norwegians, or Northmen.

Robertson is of opinion that Newfoundland was settled by the Norwegians; and Mr Pinkerton is very positive on the subject. The latter considers that the Red Indians are their descendants. He, however, in another place, concludes that the whole of the race were destroyed by the Esquimaux. I regret to find so respectable a writer as Mr Pinkerton so frequently in error, and at times treating in the manner of historical truths, what can only be regarded, in respect to the Indians, as mere conjectures. The Bœothics were, from the form of their implements, dress, and language, a distinct

warlike tribe of North American Indians; but, from their features and stature, certainly of the same race, and not allied to the Esquimaux, as some writers have asserted.

If we are justified in concluding that any of the American tribes are of the Northmen, or European origin, we can only by comparison consider the Esquimaux as such: their stature, habits, and features being not only different from the aborigines of America, but closely resembling those of the Greenlanders, who are believed to be of European descent.

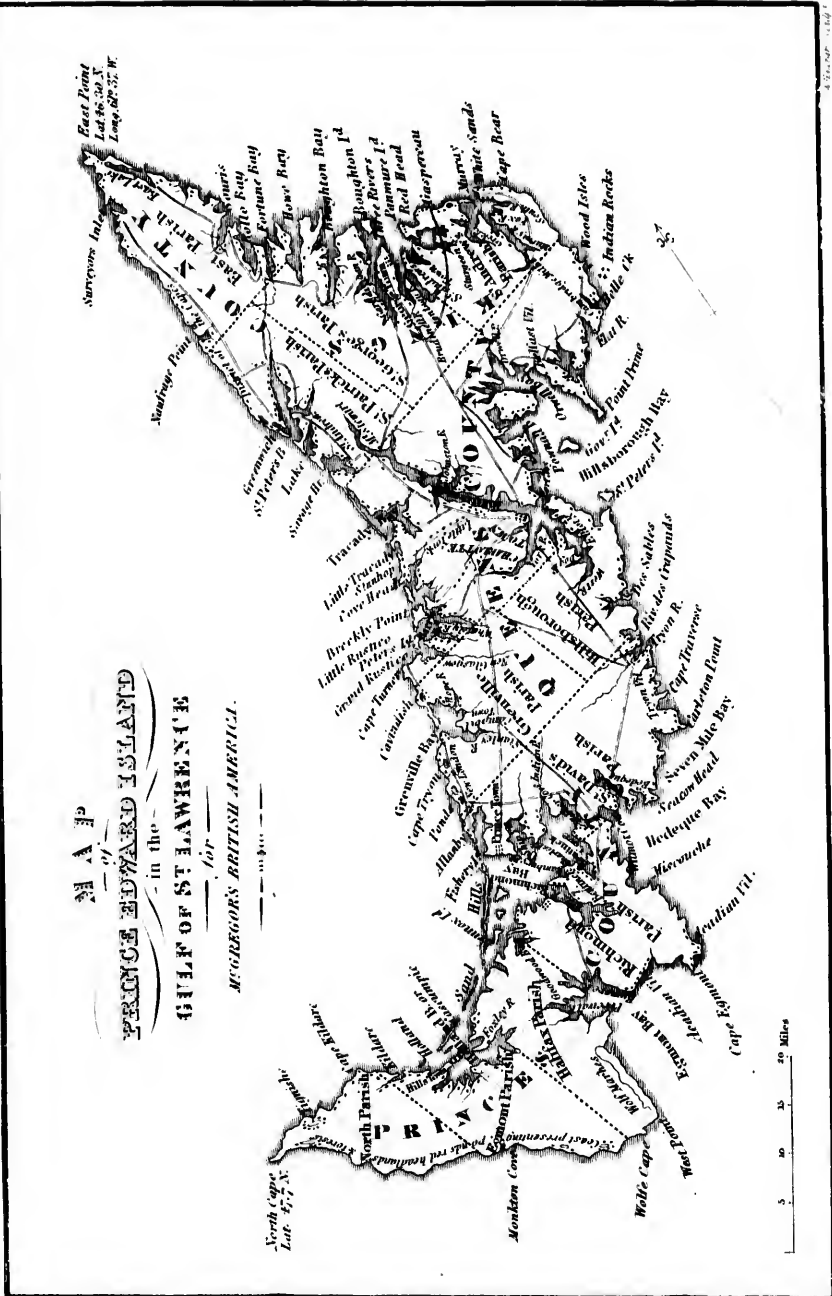
tures  
squi-

ribes  
mpa-  
and  
rica,  
eved

**M A P**  
 of  
**PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND**  
 - in the -  
**BAY OF ST. LAWRENCE**  
 for  
**MCGREGOR'S BRITISH AMERICA.**

East Point  
 Lat. 46. 30 N.  
 Long. 67. 57 W.

North Cape  
 Lat. 47. 7 N.



5 10 15 20 Miles

A. S. W. 1877

## BOOK IV.

## PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

## CHAPTER I.

Geographical Position of Prince Edward Island—General Aspect of the Country—Counties, and Lesser Divisions—Description of Charlotte Town and the Principal Settlements.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND is situated in the Gulf of St Lawrence, within the latitudes of  $46^{\circ}$  and  $47^{\circ} 10'$  N., and longitudes of  $62^{\circ}$  and  $65^{\circ}$  W. Its length, following a course through the centre of the island, is 140 miles; and its greatest breadth, thirty-four miles. It is separated from Nova Scotia by Northumberland Strait, which is only nine miles broad, between Cape Traverse and Cape Tormentine. Cape Breton lies within twenty-seven miles of the east point; and Cape Ray, the nearest point of Newfoundland, is 125 miles distant. The distances from Charlotte Town to the following places, are—to the Land's End, England, 2280 miles; to St John's, Newfoundland, 550 miles; to St John's, New Brunswick, by sea, 360 miles, and across the peninsula of Nova Scotia, 135 miles; to Quebec, 580 miles; to Halifax, through the

40 Miles  
20  
10  
5

Gut of Canso, 240 miles, and by Pictou, 140 miles ; to Miramichi, 120 miles ; to Pictou, 40 miles.

In coming within view of Prince Edward Island, its aspect is that of a level country, covered to the water's edge with trees, and the outline of its surface scarcely curved with the appearance of hills. On approaching nearer, and sailing round its shores, (especially on the north side,) the prospect becomes interesting, and presents small villages, cleared farms, red headlands, bays, and rivers which pierce the country ; sandhills covered with grass ; a gentle diversity of hill and dale, which the cleared parts open to view, and the undulation of surface occasioned by small lakes or ponds, which from the sea appear like so many valleys.

On landing and travelling through the country, its varied, though not highly romantic scenery, and its agricultural and other improvements, attract the attention of all who possess a taste for rural beauties. Owing to the manner in which it is intersected by various branches of the sea, there is no part at a greater distance from the ebbing and flowing of the tide than eight miles.

It abounds with streams and springs of the purest water ; and it is remarked, that in digging wells, no instance of being disappointed in meeting with good water has occurred. There are no mountains in the island. A chain of hills intersects the country between Disable and Grenville Bay ; and, in different parts, the lands rise to moderate heights ; but, in general, the surface of the island may be considered as devia-



ting no more from the level than could be wished, for the purpose of agriculture.

Almost every part affords agreeable prospects and beautiful situations. In summer and autumn, the forests exhibit a rich and splendid foliage, varying from the deep green of the fir, to the lively tints of the birch and maple ; and the character of the scenery at these seasons, displays a smiling loveliness and teeming fertility.

The island is divided into three counties, these again into parishes, and the whole subdivided into sixty-seven townships, containing about 20,000 acres each. The plot of a town, containing about 400 building lots, and the same number of pasture lots, are reserved in each county. These are, George Town, in King's County; Charlotte Town, in Queen's County; and Prince Town, in Prince County.

Charlotte Town, the seat of government, is situated on the north bank of Hillsborough river, near its confluence with the rivers Elliot and York. Its harbour is considered one of the best in the Gulf of St Lawrence. The passage into it leads from Northumberland Strait, to the west of Point Prime, between St Peter's and Governor's Islands, up Hillsborough Bay, to the entrance of the harbour. Here its breadth is little more than half a mile, within which it widens, and forms a safe, capacious basin, and then branches into three beautiful and navigable rivers. The harbour is commanded by different situations that might easily be fortified, so as to defend the town against any ordinary attack by water. At present, there is a

battery in front of the town, near the barracks ; another on Farming Bank ; and a block-house, with some cannon, on the western point of the entrance.

Charlotte Town stands on ground which rises in gentle heights from the banks of the river, and contains about 350 dwelling-houses, and about 3400 inhabitants. The plan of the town is regular ; the streets broad, and intersecting each other at right angles ; five or six vacancies are reserved for squares ; and many of the houses lately built are finished in a handsome style, and have a lively and pleasing appearance. The court-house—in which the Courts of Chancery, as well as the Court of Judicature, are held, and in which the Legislative Assembly also sit—the Episcopal church, the New Scotch church, and the Catholic and Methodist chapels, are the only public buildings. The barracks are pleasantly situated near the water, and a neat parade or square occupies the space between those of the officers and privates. The building lots are eighty-four feet in front, and run back 160 feet. To each of these a pasture-lot of twelve acres was attached in the original grants ; and there was formerly a common, lying between the town and pasture-lots, which, however, the Lieutenant-Governor Fanning found convenient to grant away in lots to various individuals.

On entering and sailing up the harbour, Charlotte Town appears to much advantage, with a clean, lively, and prepossessing aspect, and much larger than it in reality is. This deception arises from its occupying

an extensive surface in proportion to the number of houses, to most of which large gardens are attached.

Few places offer more agreeable walks, or prettier situations, than those in the vicinity of Charlotte Town. Among the latter, Spring Park, St Avar'd's, the seat of the Attorney-General, Mr Johnston; Fanning Bank, on which his excellency Governor Ready has made great improvements, and some farms lying between the town and York river, are conspicuous.

On the west side of the harbour lies the Fort, or Warren, Farm. This is perhaps the most beautiful situation on the island; and the prospect from it embraces a view of Charlotte Town, Hillsborough river for several miles, part of York and Elliot rivers, a great part of Hillsborough Bay, Governor's Island, and Point Prime. A small valley and pretty rivulet wind through the middle of its extensive clearings; and the face of this charming spot is agreeably varied into gently rising grounds, small vales, and level spaces. When the island was taken, the French had a garrison and extensive improvements in this place; and here the commandant chiefly resided. Afterwards, when the island was divided into townships, and granted away to persons who were considered to have claims on government, this tract was reserved for his majesty's use. Governor Patterson held possession of it while on the island, and expended a considerable sum in its improvement.

The late Abbé de Calonne (brother to the famous financier) afterwards obtained the use and possession

of this place, during his residence on the island ; and since then, the family of the late General Fanning have by some means obtained a grant of this valuable tract.\*

During the summer and autumn months, the view from Charlotte Town is highly interesting. The blue mountains of Nova Scotia appearing in the distance ; a long vista of the sea, through the entrance of the harbour, forming, with the basin, and part of Elliot, York, and Hillsborough rivers, a fine branching sheet of water ; and the distant farms, partial clearings, grassy glades, intermingled with trees of various kinds, but chiefly the birch, beech, maple, and spruce fir, combine to form a landscape that would please even the most scrupulous of picturesque tourists.

No part of the island could have been more judiciously selected for its metropolis, than that which has been chosen for Charlotte Town ; it being situated almost in the centre of the country, and of easy access, either by water, or by the different roads leading to it from the settlements.

\* There has been much said about the claim of right to this property ; and a wish not to hurt the feelings of private individuals prevents me from detailing particulars contained in original documents which I possess. I will, however, assert, that no grant of this property was made to M. de Calonne ; but I believe he was offered it as an asylum for himself and a number of French refugees. He had, however, too much ambition to retreat like a hermit from the great world ; and his grand purpose at the time, was to plan and effect a counter revolution in France. I have by me several letters written by his brother the Abbé, while on the island, to official persons there at the same time, which throw much light on this subject.

George Town, or Three Rivers, is also situated near the junction of three fine rivers, on the south-east part of the island. Very little has been yet done in order to form a town in this place, although it has often been pointed out as better adapted for the seat of government than Charlotte Town. It has certainly a more immediate communication with the ocean, but it is not so conveniently situated for intercourse with many parts of the island. Its excellent harbour, however, and its very desirable situation for the cod and herring fisheries, will probably, at no very distant period, make it a place of considerable importance. It is well calculated for the centre of any trade carried on within the Gulf of St Lawrence. The harbour is not frozen over for some time after all the other harbours in the gulf, and it opens earlier in the spring. A few hours will carry a vessel from it to the Atlantic, through the Gut of Canso; and vessels can lay their course from thence to Three Rivers with a south-west wind, (which prevails in the summer,) which they cannot do to Charlotte Town. This harbour lies also more in the track to Quebec, and other places up the gulf. Its access is safe, having a fine broad and deep entrance, free from sand-bars, or indeed any danger; and can be easily distinguished by two islands, one on each side. Excellent fishing-grounds lie in its vicinity; and herrings enter it in large shoals, early in May. On Saturday evenings, or on Sunday mornings, the Acadian French fishing-shallops come in from the fishing-grounds, close to Three Rivers, to pass Sunday within the harbour.

The entrance to Three Rivers Bay is between Boughton and Panmure islands. A sandy beach connects them with the main. Pilots are ready to attend when a signal is hoisted ; and, although the channel is broad, and many masters of large ships venture in with the assistance of sounding, it is as well not to run the risk of grounding on some sandy spits. Within the bay there are several harbours ; the best is Montague River.

The settlements contiguous to George Town, on Cardigan, Montague, and Brudnelle rivers, are rapidly extending, and the settlers are directing their attention more to agriculture than formerly. A considerable quantity of timber has, within the last twenty years, been exported from hence ; and a number of superior ships have also been built here for the British market. At present, there are two well-established ship-yards, one at Brudnelle Point, where the French, under Count de Raymond, had an extensive fishery, and some hundreds of acres, now overgrown with trees, under cultivation. The other ship-yard is at Cardigan River. Several large and beautiful vessels have been built at each ; but the late ruinous depression in the value of shipping has brought the business of constructing vessels here, as elsewhere, to a stand.

The district of country bordering on Three Rivers must, when populously settled, become, if not the first, one of the most important districts in the colony. Its great natural advantages cannot but eventually secure its prosperity.

Prince Town (or more properly, the point of a peninsula so called) is situated on the south side of Richmond Bay, and on the north side of the island. There are no houses, however, erected on the building lots; and the pasture lots have long since been converted into farms, which form a large straggling settlement.

Darnley Basin lies between Prince Town and the point of Allanby, which forms the south side of the entrance to Richmond Bay. Along Allanby Point, and round the basin, a range of excellent farms extends, some of which stretch across the point, and have two water fronts, one on the basin, the other on the gulf shore.

The district of Richmond Bay, called by the French, Malpeque, and still generally known by that name, comprehends a number of settlements, the principal of which (after Prince Town and Darnley Basin) are, Ship-Yard, Indian River, St Eleanor's, Bentinck River, Grand River, and the village along the township No. 13.

Richmond Bay is ten miles in depth, and nine miles in breadth. The distance across the isthmus, between the head of this bay and Bedeque, on the opposite side of the island, is only one mile.

There are six islands lying within or across the entrance of Richmond Bay; and its shores are indented with numerous coves, creeks, and rivers. It has three entrances formed by the islands, but the easternmost is the only one that will admit shipping. This place is conveniently situated for cod and her-

ring fisheries, and was resorted to by the New England fishermen before the American Revolution. During the last twenty years, several cargoes of timber have been exported from this port ; and a number of ships and brigs have been built here for the English market.

The inhabitants of Richmond Bay are principally Scotch ; many of whom, or their parents, emigrated along with Judge Stewart's family, in 1771, from Cantyre, in Scotland. They retain most of the habits, customs, and superstitions, then prevalent in their native country ; so much so, that in mixing with them, I have heard old people, who remembered the amusements common at Christinas, Hallowe'en, and other occasions, fifty years ago, say they could fancy themselves carried back to that period. The old music, the old songs, the old tales of Covenanters and Papistry, the ghost stories of centuries past, are often heard in this district ; and I must also add, that I have seen, at the kirk at Prince Town, and in its immediate vicinage, striking delineations of some of the most highly-coloured pictures in the Holy Fair of Burns. I may here observe generally, that customs and manners, which are nearly forgotten in Scotland, have become domiciliated in this district, and in some other parts of the island. There are a few English families, and a great number of Irish, settled among the other inhabitants at Richmond Bay. The Irish settlers were generally employed previously in the Newfoundland fisheries.

At St Eleanor's there was a popular settlement of



Acadian French. Some difficulties about the tenures of their lands, occasioned them to abandon the place, and settle in other parts of the island.

The inhabitants of Richmond Bay are, generally speaking, a moral and orderly people. The majority profess the Presbyterian faith; and their clergymen are in connexion with the synod of Pietou. At Prince Town, where the Reverend Mr Keir, a man of exemplary piety and sincerity of character, has officiated for about twenty years, there is a very respectable kirk, and a grammar-school; and there are two other kirks on the opposite side of the bay. At St Eleanor's, there is a church erected for the Reverend Mr Jenkins, who has since removed to Charlotte Town. The Scotch Highlanders, and the French Acadians, have also Catholic chapels.

On Lemnox Island, within Richmond Bay, the Indians, who are of the once numerous Miemac tribe, and profess the Roman Catholic religion, have a chapel and burying-place. This island, where their chief has a house, is their principal rendezvous; they assemble here about midsummer, on which occasion they meet their priest, or the bishop, who hears confessions, administers baptisms, marries those who are inclined to enter into that state, and makes other regulations for their conduct during the year. After remaining here a few weeks, the greater number resume their accustomed and favourite roving life, and wander along the shores, and through the woods of the neighbouring countries.

Cascumpeque is about sixteen miles north from

Richmond Bay, and twenty-four miles from the north cape of the island. Its harbour is safe and convenient. The lands are well adapted for agriculture; and this place, by its advantageous situation, is well calculated for extensive fishing establishments. The population consists of Acadian French, and some English families; and the stores, houses, &c., of Mr Hill, the proprietor of the surrounding valuable and fertile lands, on the beautiful point at the harbour's entrance, are most conveniently situated for the trade and fisheries of the Gulf of St Lawrence.

New London, or the district of Grenville Bay, includes the settlements round the bay, and on the rivers that fall into it, and those at the ponds, between the harbour and Allanby Point. On the east lies the very pretty settlement called Cavendish. The harbour of New London will not admit vessels requiring more than twelve feet water; otherwise it is safe and convenient. It is formed by a ridge of sandy downs, stretching from Cavendish, four miles across the mouth of Grenville Bay, until it contracts the entrance on the west side to half a mile. The bar is dangerous; several vessels have been lost on it, but the crews have never perished.

Cape Tryon, three miles to the north, shelters the bar during north-westerly winds. The lands on the west side of this harbour have long been cultivated; and formerly there were some extensive establishments erected here for the purposes of carrying on the fisheries, but circumstances occurred which prevented their prosperity.

The situation and beauty of the lands here, are equal, if not superior, to any spot on this side of the island. I never even fancied a more delightful walk than along the green swards, and among the clumps of wood, that extend from the west side of this harbour to Cape Tryon. The shore is indented with coves and beaches, which are separated again by high perpendicular cliffs. We have also, at the same time, a broad view of the ocean, in all its states of impetuous turbulence, gentle motion, or smooth serenity, and the charming beauty of the country, in the picturesque features of which, woods with luxuriant foliage, cultivated farms, and high sandy downs, covered with green grass, are conspicuous.

Harrington, or Grand Rustico Bay, has two entrances, and a harbour for small brigs and schooners. Here are two villages inhabited by Acadian French. The surrounding parts of the bay, with Whately and Hunter Rivers, have, within the last ten or twelve years, become populously settled, by an acquisition of useful and industrious peasantry from different parts of Scotland. There is an island lying across between the two entrances, part of which is covered with wood, and the rest, about three miles in extent, forms sandy downs, on which grows a sort of strong bent grass. On the west side of the harbour, there are on the point several buildings erected in 1814 by one Le Seur, who called himself a French refugee. He began a fishery, which he carried on until the fall of that year, and then absconded in a schooner, which he had previously purchased, but not paid for.

He left, very adroitly, several people to whom he was much in debt; but the property he had in this place was, under judicious management, quite sufficient to pay them all. It was never discovered what this man was. Some considered him a spy of Napoleon. He had certainly the talents and address to conceal his own purposes; and his insinuating and genteel manners made him very popular. He even had a commission as captain in the militia given him by the governor.

On Hunter river, which falls into Harrington Bay, a very flourishing settlement, named New Glasgow, was planted in 1819 by Mr Cornack, the Newfoundland traveller. The settlers emigrated from the neighbourhood of Glasgow; and they have made extensive clearings and improvements since they were located.

Brackley is one of the most flourishing and pleasantly situated settlements on the island. It lies between Grand Rustico and Stanhope Cove. The inhabitants, who are in easy circumstances, and have all fine farms, which are their own property, are among the most industrious and exemplary people in the colony. It has a harbour for fishing-boats.

Little Rustico, or Stanhope Cove, is esteemed one of the most beautiful settlements on the island. Its situation is agreeable, and the prospects and exposures of many of the extensive farms are delightful. Its distance from Charlotte Town, by a good road across the island, is only eleven miles. The lands

are the property of Sir James Montgomery and his brothers. The harbour will only admit small vessels.

The inhabitants, however, are not generally in a thriving condition. The facility of reaching Charlotte Town market, with a few trout or fresh herrings, or a dozen or two of eggs, to buy rum and tea, is usually said, in Charlotte Town, to be the cause of poverty in this settlement. They certainly cannot be selling eggs in Charlotte Town market and cultivating their lands at the same time.

Bedford, or Tracaday Bay, is five miles to the eastward of Stanhope Cove. It is a harbour for schooners and small brigs, the entrance to which is strait, and lies at the west end of a narrow ridge of sand-hills, which stretch across from the east side of the bay.\*

The inhabitants are chiefly Scotch Highlanders, or their descendants; and, having settled many years ago, they are unacquainted with improvements in agriculture, and are still but indifferent farmers. On the west side of the bay, and from that to Stanhope Cove, there was, when the island surrendered in 1759, a dense population. The late Captain Macdonald of Glenalladale removed to this place in 1772, with a

\* The entrances to all the harbours on the north side of the island, are either at the end, or through narrow ridges of sandy downs;—thus, the entrances to the harbours of Cascumpeque, New London, Grand Rustico, and Tracaday, are at the west end of such ridges; and the other harbours, except that of Richmond Bay, have their entrances through similar downs. Strangers are apt to be deceived when approaching these harbours, as they have a general resemblance. It is therefore advisable to have a pilot.

colony of Highlanders, who settled round the harbour. The property still belongs to his family.

Savage Harbour lies a few miles to the eastward of Tracad. Its entrance is shallow, and will only admit boats. The lands are tolerably well settled, and the inhabitants are chiefly Highlanders. The distance across the island, between this place and Hillsborough River, is about two miles.

The Lake Settlement, situated between Savage Harbour and St Peter's, is a pretty, interesting place. The farms have extensive clearings, and front on a pond, or lagoon, which has an outlet to the gulf.

St Peter's is on the north side of the island, about thirty miles to the eastward of Charlotte Town. Its harbour, owing to a sandy bar across the entrance, will only admit small vessels.\* There are a number of settlers on each side of its bay, which is about nine miles long; and the river Morell, falling into it from the south, is a fine rapid stream, frequented annually by salmon. The lands fronting on this bay belong principally to Messrs C. and E. Worrell. They reside on the property, where they are making considerable improvements, and have built granaries,

\* A most worthy gentleman, but ill calculated, however, for a merchant, owned a brig, which he loaded at Liverpool with salt for St Peter's. He had lived sufficiently long at the last place to know that nothing but small fishing schooners could pass over the bar; yet he quite overlooked this in his calculation in loading his ship, until he arrived abreast of the harbour, where, fortunately, fine weather favoured him so far as to admit anchoring on the outside for a few days. The ship was then sent to seek for a deeper harbour to unload her cargo—I believe to Gaspé or Quebec.

an immense barn, a very superior grist-mill, offices, &c., on the lands occupied by themselves. The lands round the bay and rivers have, however, been most wretchedly managed, although this part of the country was in a very flourishing condition, and well cultivated, when possessed by the French.

Greenwich, situated on a peninsula, between St Peter's Bay and the Gulf of St Lawrence, is a charming spot, with extensively cleared lands, once well cultivated. This estate is involved in a Chancery suit, not yet, I believe, decided; and the son of the original complainant died old and grey, five years ago, completely worn out in the cause. It justly belongs to Mr Cambridge of Bristol.

District of the Capes.—This district extends along the north shore of the island, from St Peter's to the east point. There are no harbours between these two places; but several ponds, or small lakes, intervene. For a considerable distance back from the gulf shore, the lands are entirely cleared, with the exception of detached spots or clumps of the spruce fir. The inhabitants are principally from the west of Scotland, and from the Hebrides, and their labour has been chiefly applied to agriculture. They raise, even with the old mode of husbandry, to which they tenaciously adhere, valuable crops; and the greater part of the wheat, barley, oats, and pork brought to Charlotte Town, is from this district. It has the advantage of having a regular supply of seaware (various marine weeds) thrown on its shore, which makes excellent manure, particularly for barley.

Colville, Rollo, Fortune, and Boughton Bays, are small harbours, with thriving settlements, situated on the south-east of the island, between Three Rivers and the east point. The inhabitants are principally Highlanders and Acadian French.

Murray Harbour lies between Cape Bear and Three Rivers. It is well sheltered; but the entrance is intricate, and large ships can only take in part of their cargoes within the bar. Several cargoes of timber have been exported from this place, and a number of excellent ships, brigs, and small vessels, have been built here by Messrs Cambridge and Sons, whose extensive establishments, mills, ship-yards, &c., have for many years afforded employment to a number of people. The cultivation of the soil has, however, for a long time been neglected; but an accession of industrious people, who have settled here within the last few years, are making great improvements.

The lands in the townships abutting and adjoining Murray Harbour, are very fertile, and form an extensive district, extending from Three Rivers to the Earl of Selkirk's property, at Wood Island. There are some fine and beautiful farms fronting on the shores, and some small lagoons, particularly at Gaspereau pond, situated to the eastward of Murray Harbour.\*

Belfast.—This district may be said to include the villages of Great and Little Belfast, Orwell, and Point Prime, with the settlements at Pinnette River, Flat River, Belle Creek, and Wood Islands. At

\* Note A.



the time the island was taken from the French, a few inhabitants were settled in this district; but from that period, the lands, in a great measure, remained unoccupied until the year 1803, when the late enterprising Earl of Selkirk arrived on the island with 800 emigrants, whom he settled along the fronts of the townships that now contain those flourishing settlements. His lordship brought his colony from the Highlands and Isles of Scotland, and by the convenience of the tenures under which he gave them lands, and by persevering industry on their part, these people have arrived at more comfort and happiness than they ever experienced before. The soil in this district is excellent; the population has increased in number, with the accession of friends and relatives chiefly, and the natural increase of the first colonists, to nearly 4000. They raise heavy crops, the overplus of which they carry either to Charlotte Town, Pictou, Halifax, or Newfoundland.

His lordship observes, in his able work on emigration—"I had undertaken to settle these lands with emigrants whose views were directed towards the United States; and, without any wish to increase the general spirit of emigration, I could not avoid giving more than ordinary advantages to those who should join me. \* \* \* To induce people to embark in the undertaking, was, however, the least part of my task. The difficulties which a new settler has to struggle with, are so great and various, that in the oldest and best-established colonies they are not to be avoided altogether. \* \* \* Of these discou-

agements the emigrant is seldom fully aware. He has a new set of ideas to acquire: the knowledge which his previous experience has accumulated can seldom be applied; his ignorance as to the circumstances of the country meet him on every occasion.

\* \* \* The combined effect of these accumulated difficulties is seen in the long infancy of most new-settled countries. \* \* \*

I will not assert that the people I took there [to Prince Edward Island] have totally escaped all difficulties and discouragements, but the arrangements for their accommodation have had so much success, that few, perhaps, in their situation, have suffered less, or have seen their difficulties so soon at an end. \* \* \*

These people, amounting to about eight hundred persons, of all ages, reached the island in their ships, on the 7th, 9th, and 27th August, 1803. It had been my intention to come to the island some time before any of the settlers, in order that every requisite preparation might be made. In this, however, a number of untoward circumstances occurred to disappoint me; and on arriving at the capital of the island, I learned that the ship of most importance had just arrived, and the passengers were landing at a place previously appointed for the purpose. \* \* \* I lost no time in proceeding to the spot, where I found that the people had already lodged themselves in temporary wigwams (tents composed of poles and branches).

“ The settlers had spread themselves along the shore for the distance of about half a mile, upon the site of an old French village, which had been de-

stroyed and abandoned after the capture of the island by the British forces in 1758. The land, which had formerly been overgrown with wood, was overgrown again with thickets of young trees, interspersed with grassy glades. \* \* \* I arrived at the place late in the evening, and it had then a very striking appearance. Each family had kindled a large fire near their wigwams, and round these were assembled groups of figures, whose peculiar national dress added to the singularity of the surrounding scene; confused heaps of baggage were everywhere piled together beside their wild habitations; and by the number of fires, the whole woods were illumined. At the end of the line of encampment I pitched my own tent, and was surrounded in the morning by a numerous assemblage of people, whose behaviour indicated that they looked to nothing less than a restoration of the happy days of clanship. \* \* \* These hardy people thought little of the inconvenience they felt from the slightness of the shelter they put up for themselves."

His lordship then states numerous difficulties attending the location of the emigrants, and then proceeds:—"I could not but regret the time which had been lost; but I had satisfaction in reflecting that the settlers had begun the culture of their farms, with their little capitals unimpaired. \* \* \* I quitted the island in September 1803, and after an extensive tour on the continent of America, returned at the end of the same month in the following year. It was with the utmost satisfaction I then found that my plans had been followed up with attention and judg-

ment. \* \* \* I found the settlers engaged in securing the harvest which their industry had produced. There were three or four families who had not gathered a crop adequate to their own supply ; but many others had a considerable superabundance."

I had, while in America, frequent opportunities of knowing the condition of these colonists ; and, if possessing land, good houses, large stocks of cattle, abundance of provisions, and a large overplus of produce to sell for articles of convenience, together with being free of debt, be considered to constitute independent circumstances, they are certainly in that state.

Tryon is situated about twenty miles west of Charlotte Town, nearly opposite to Bay de Verts, in Nova Scotia. It is one of the most populous, and considered the prettiest village on the island. A serpentine river winds through it ; on each side of which are beautiful farms. The tide flows up about two miles ; but the harbour will only admit of small schooners and boats, it having a dangerous bar at the entrance : extensive clearings were made here when possessed by the French.

Bedeque is situated on the south-west part of the island, about eighteen miles from Tryon. It is populously settled on the different sides of the two rivers into which the harbour branches. The harbour is well sheltered by a small island, near which ships anchor and load. There are two or three ship-building establishments here ; and it has for some time been a shipping port for timber.

Egmont Bay lies to the west of Bedeque. It is

a large open bay, sixteen miles broad from the west point to Cape Egmont, and about ten deep. Perceval, Enmore, and two other small rivers, fall into it; on the borders of which are excellent marshes. There is no harbour within this bay for large vessels; and as the shoals lie a considerable distance off, it is dangerous for strangers to venture in, even with small vessels. The inhabitants are chiefly Acadian French, who live in three small thriving villages, on the east side of the bay. The whole population consists only of thirty-nine families.\*

\* Coming down the Gulf of St Lawrence, from the Bay de Chaleur, in 1819, in a large whale boat, we were driven into this bay, but could not approach within a quarter of a mile of the shore, in consequence of its being there lined by a succession of narrow sand bars, with channels about four feet deep between them. An Acadian, nearly one hundred years old, came out to us on horseback, and carried us, one at a time, behind him on the horse to the shore. We met with great hospitality among the simple Acadians. I stopped in the old patriarch's house; and the bed in which the priest, who visited the village twice a-year, slept, was allotted to me.

There were none except the venerable Acadian and his wife living in the house. He laboured daily in the fields; and she not only frequently assisted him, but cooked, washed, and made and mended his clothes. He gave me much information about the early condition of the island, as he was born on it, and was present when it surrendered to the English, in 1758. Talking of himself, he said, "I am the father of every family" (twenty-four at that time) "in the village; for there is not one of those houses in which I have not either a son, daughter, grandson, or grand-daughter married; and I have also several great-grand-children. Look at my old wife and me," said he, "now living alone as we were when first married. We need not work, it is true, for our children would willingly provide us plenty, even if we had not money laid by. But we know, that if we did not work, we would soon die. Be-

Hillsborough river enters the country in a north-easterly direction. The tide flows twenty miles farther up than Charlotte Town; and three small rivers branch off to the south.

The scenery at and near the head of this river, is rich and pretty. Mount Stewart, the property and present residence of John Stewart, Esq., late paymaster to the troops at Newfoundland, and Speaker of the present House of Assembly, is a most charming spot; and the prospect from the house, which stands on a rising ground, about half a mile from the river, is truly beautiful. Downwards, the view commands several windings of the Hillsborough, and part of Pisquit river: the edges of each are fringed with marsh grass, and fertile farms range along the banks, while trees of majestic birch, beech, and maple, grow luxuriantly on the south side, and spruce-fir, larch, beech, and poplar on the north, fill up the background. Upwards, the meandering river, on which one may now and then see passengers crossing in a log canoe, or an Indian, with his family, paddling along in a bark one, together with a view of the large Catholic chapel at St Andrew's, the seat of the Catholic bishop,\* and the surrounding farms and woods, form another agreeable landscape.

sides, we are in good health and strong, and therefore it would be a great sin to be idle. Neither of us were scarcely ever sick. I never had a headach; and I never took physic in my life." This man and his wife are, I believe, both still living.

\* The Right Reverend Aneas M'Eacharen, titular Bishop of Rouen, an excellent and venerable character, equally esteemed by the members of every religious profession in the colony.

York river penetrates the island in a north-westerly course, the tide flowing about nine miles up. On each side there is a straggling settlement; and many of the inhabitants have excellent farms, with a considerable portion of the land under cultivation.

Elliot river branches off nearly west from Charlotte Town harbour, the tide flowing about twelve miles up. A number of small streams fall into this river; and the lands on both sides exhibit beautiful farms, with rather a thickly-settled population. The scenery about this river has as much of the romantic character as is to be met with in any part of the island.

There are a number of other, though lesser settlements. The principal of these are—Tigniche, near the North Cape, the inhabitants of which are Acadian French; Crapaud and De Sable, both thriving fast, between Hillsborough Bay and Tryon; Cape Traverse and Seven Mile Bay, between Tryon and Bedeque; and the Acadian settlement at Cape Egmont. Settlements are also forming along the roads, particularly in the vicinity of Charlotte Town. The only tract of extent, bordering on the coast, without settlers, is that lying between the North Cape and the West Point. There are several fine streams and ponds in this district; and the soil is rich, and covered with lofty trees. Its only disadvantage is, having no harbour; but it is always safe to land in a boat, if the wind does not blow strongly on the shore. Fish of various kinds swarm along the coast.

## CHAPTER II.

Climate—Soil—Natural Productions—Wild Animals, &c.

THE climate of Prince Edward Island, owing to its lying within the Gulf of St Lawrence, partakes, in some measure, of the climate of the neighbouring countries; but the difference is greater than any one who has not lived in the colony would imagine.

In Lower Canada, the winter is nearly two months longer, the frosts more severe, and the snows deeper; while the temperature, during summer, is equally hot. In Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Cape Breton, the frosts are equally severe, the transitions from one extreme of temperature to another more sudden, and fogs frequent along those parts that border on the Atlantic and Bay of Fundy.

The atmosphere of this island is noted for being free of fogs. A day foggy throughout seldom occurs during a year; and in general not more than four or five that are partially so. A misty fog appears sometimes on a summer or autumnal morning, occasioned by the exhalation of the dew that falls during night, but which the rising sun quickly dissipates.

The absence of fogs in this colony has been vari-



ously accounted for, but never yet from what I conceive the true cause; and which I consider to be, in the first place, that the waters which wash the shores of the island do not come in immediate contact with those of a different temperature; and, secondly, that Cape Breton and Newfoundland, both of which are high and mountainous, lie between it and the Atlantic. These islands arrest the fogs, which would otherwise be driven by strong easterly winds from the banks to Prince Edward Island. Fogs are, it is true, occasionally met with at the entrance of the river St Lawrence; but these are produced by known natural causes. A strong current of cold water runs from the Atlantic through the strait of Belle Isle; its principal stream passes between the island of Anticosti and the coast of Labrador, and coming in contact with the warmer stream of the St Lawrence, a fog is produced.

Prince Edward Island lies so far within the deep bay, formed between Cape Rosier and the north cape of Cape Breton, that the waters which surround it do not mix within many miles of its shores with those of the Atlantic.

As regards the salubrity of the island, it is agreed by all who have lived any time on it, and have compared its climate with that of other countries, that there are few places where health is enjoyed with less interruption. What Mr Stewart, in his excellent account, at the time it was written, of Prince Edward Island, says of the climate, is, I think, strictly true:

“ The fevers and other diseases of the United States are unknown here ; no person ever saw an intermittent fever produced on the island, nor will that complaint, when brought here, ever stand above a few days against the influence of the climate. I have seen thirty Hessian soldiers, who brought this disease from the southward, and who were so much reduced thereby as to be carried on shore in blankets, all recover in a very short time ; few of them had any return or fit of the complaint after the first forty-eight hours from their landing on the island.”

Pulmonary consumption, which is so common and so very destructive in the northern and central states of America, is not often met with here. Probably ten cases of this complaint have not occurred since the settlement of the colony. Colds and rheumatisms are the most common complaints : the first generally affect the head more than the breast, and the last seldom prove mortal. A very large proportion of the people live to old age, and then die of no acute disease, but by the gradual decay of nature.

“ Deaths between twenty and fifty years of age are but few, when compared with those of most other countries ; and I trust I do not exaggerate the fact, when I state, that not one person in fifty (all accidents included) dies in a year. It follows, from what has been said, that mankind must increase very fast in such a climate ; accordingly, large families are almost universal. Industry always secures a comfortable subsistence, which encourages early marriages :

the women are often grandmothers at forty ; and the mother and daughter may each be seen with a child at the breast at the same time.”\*

The diseases at present commonly known, are usually the consequence of colds or intemperance, if we except consumptions, which I have observed in most cases to be constitutional ; and the young women born on the island appear to be more subject to this malady than those who remove to the colony from Europe. The climate is decidedly salubrious. Bilious complaints are unknown ; and I have conversed with several people who were affected with ill health previous to their settling in this colony, who afterwards enjoyed all the comforts of an unimpaired constitution.

The absence of damp weather and noxious exhalations, those certain generators of disease ; and the island having no lakes, or few ponds of fresh water, while it is at the same time surrounded by the sea, will account satisfactorily for the excellence of its climate.

The general structure of the soil is, first, a thin layer of black or brown mould, composed of decayed vegetable substances ; then, to the depth of a foot, or more, a light loam prevails, inclining in some places to a sandy, in others to a clayey character ; below which, a stiff clay, resting on sandstone, predominates. The prevailing colour of both soil and stone is red.

\* Account of Prince Edward Island, by John Stewart, Esq., late paymaster to the forces at Newfoundland. London, 1806.

To this general character of the soil there are but few exceptions: these are the bogs, or swamps, which consist either of a soft spongy turf, or a deep layer of wet black mould, resting on white clay, or sand.

In its natural state, the quality of the soil may be readily ascertained by the description of wood growing on it; it being richest where the maple, beech, black birch, and a mixture of other trees, grow, and less fertile where the pine, spruce, larch, and other varieties of the fir tribe, are most numerous.

The soil is fertile; and there is scarcely a stone on the surface of the island that will impede the progress of the plough. There is no limestone nor gypsum, nor has coal yet been discovered, although indications of its existence are produced. Iron ore is by many thought to abound, but no specimens have as yet been discovered, although the soil is in different places impregnated with oxide of iron; and a sediment is lodged in the rivulets running from various springs, consisting of metallic oxides.

Red clay, of superior quality for bricks, abounds in all parts of the island; and a strong white clay, fit for potters' use, is met with, but not in great quantities. A solitary block of granite presents itself occasionally to the traveller; but two stones of this description are seldom found within a mile of each other.

Volney and some other writers have remarked, that the granite base of the Alleghany mountains extends so far as to form the rocky stratum of all the countries of America lying to the eastward of them. To this, as a general rule, there is more than one

exception. The base of Prince Edward Island, which is sandstone, appears to extend under the bed of Northumberland Strait, into the northern part of Nova Scotia, and into the eastern division of New Brunswick, until it is lost in its line of contact with the granite base of the Alleghanies, about the river Nipisighit.

On some of the bogs, or swamps, of this island, there is scarcely any thing but shrubs and moss growing; these are rather dry, and resemble the turf bogs in Ireland. Others again are wet, spongy, and deep, producing dwarf species of alder, long grass, and a variety of shrubs. Cattle are frequently, in the spring of the year, lost in these swamps. Such portions of these lands as have been drained, form excellent meadows.

There are other tracts called barren, some of which, in a natural state, produce nothing but dry moss, or a few shrubs. The soil of these spots is a light brown, or whitish sand. Some of the lands formerly covered with pine forests, now incline to this character. Both swamps and barren, however, bear but a small proportion to the whole surface of the island; and as they all may, with judicious management, be improved advantageously, it cannot be said that there is an acre of the whole incapable of cultivation. The marshes, which are overflowed by the tide, rear a strong nutritious grass, and, when dyked, yield heavy crops of wheat or hay.

Large tracts of the original pine forests have been destroyed by fires, which have raged over the island at

different periods. In these places white birches, spruce-firs, poplars, and wild cherry-trees, have sprung up. The largest trees of this second growth that I have seen, were from twelve to fifteen inches diameter, and growing in places laid waste by a tremendous fire, which raged in 1750. At its first settlement, and previous to the destruction, by fire, at different periods, of much valuable timber, the island was altogether covered with wood, and contained forests of majestic pines. Trees of this genus still abound, but not in extensive groves; and from the quantity which has been exported to England, there is not more pine at present growing on the island than will be required by the inhabitants for house and ship-building, and other purposes. The principal kinds of other trees are spruce-fir, hemlock, beech, birch, and maple, growing in abundance; oak, elm, ash, and larch, are not plentiful, and the quality of the first very inferior.

Poplars, of great dimensions, are plentiful; white cedar is found growing in the northern parts. Many other kinds of trees are met with, such as dogwood, alder, wild cherry-tree, Indian pear-tree, &c., and most of the shrubs, wild fruits, herbs, and grasses, common to other parts of British North America. Sarsaparilla, ginseng, and probably many other medicinal plants, are plentiful in all parts of the island. Among the wild fruits, raspberries, strawberries, cranberries, which are very large, blueberries, and whortleberries, are astonishingly abundant.

The principal native quadrupeds are, bears, loup-

cerviers, foxes, hares, otters, musquashes, minks, squirrels, weasels, &c.

For many years after the settlement of the colony, bears were very numerous, and exceedingly annoying and injurious to the inhabitants, destroying their black cattle, sheep, and hogs. They are now much reduced in number, and rarely met with. A premium for their destruction, as well as that of the loup-cervier, is granted by the colonial government.

The loup-cervier still commits great ravages among the sheep; and one will kill several of those innocent creatures during a night, as it sucks the blood only, leaving the flesh untouched.

Foxes and hares are numerous. Otters, martins, and musk-rats, being so long hunted on account of their skins, have become scarce. The flying, brown, and striped varieties of squirrels, are plentiful. Weasels and ermines are native animals, but very rarely seen.

Formerly, mice were in some seasons so very numerous, as to destroy the greater part of the corn about a week before it ripened. Within the last twenty years, little injury has been done by these mischievous animals, although they have been known in such swarms, previous to that period, as to cut down whole fields of wheat in one night.

For many years after the settlement of the colony, walruses, or sea-cows, frequented different parts along the shores, and the numbers killed were not only considerable, but they afforded a source of advantageous enterprise to the inhabitants. Their teeth,

from fifteen inches to two feet in length, were considered as fine a quality of ivory as those of the elephant; and their skins, about an inch in thickness, were cut into stripes for traces, and used on the island, or exported to Quebec. They afforded also excellent oil. None of these animals have appeared near the shores of the island for thirty years, but are still seen occasionally at the Magdalene Islands, and other places to the northward.

Seals of the description called harbour seal, appear in the bays, and round the shores, during summer and autumn; and in the spring, immense numbers sometimes come down on the ice from the northward. These are the same kind as the ice seals of Newfoundland.

Most of the birds described in a former chapter frequent this island; and owls, crows, ravens, woodpeckers, partridges, with some others, remain during the whole year.

Partridges are larger, and considered finer, than in England. A provincial law prohibits the shooting of them between the first of April and the first of September. Wild pigeons arrive in great flocks in summer from the southward, and breed in the woods.

Wild geese appear in March, and, after remaining five or six weeks, proceed to the northward to breed, from whence they return in September, and leave for the southward in November. Brent geese and wild ducks are plentiful.

There are no game laws, unless the provincial act for preserving partridges during four months be



considered such ; nor does it appear that persons can be hindered from shooting, even on lands under cultivation, unless by proceeding against them as trespassers.

The only reptiles known on the island are brown and striped snakes, neither of which are venomous, and the red viper, toad, bull-frog, and green-frog. There are several beautiful varieties of the butterfly, which, with locusts, grasshoppers, crickets, horned-beetle, bug-adder, black fly, adder fly, horse fly, sand fly, mosquito, ant, horned wasp, humble bee, fire fly, and a numerous variety of spiders, are the principal insects.

Mosquitoes and sand flies are only annoying during the heat of summer, in the neighbourhood of marshes, and in the woods ; where the lands are cleared to any extent, they are seldom troublesome.

The varieties of fishes that swarm in the harbours and rivers, or around the shores, and that abound on the different fishing banks in the vicinage of the island, are numerous, each abounding in great plenty, and of the same kind and quality as those already described.

The varieties of shell-fish are oysters, clams, mussels, razor shell-fish, wilks, lobsters, crabs, shrimps, &c.

The oysters are considered the finest in America, and equally delicious as those taken on the English shores. There are two or three varieties, the largest of which is from six to fifteen inches long. There were so many cargoes taken away annually to Que-

bee and Halifax, that the legislative assembly passed an act, four years ago, prohibiting their export for some time.

Lobsters are very plentiful, and, when in season, excellent.

The kinds of fish usually brought to Charlotte Town market, with which, however, it is but badly supplied, are cod, haddock, mackerel, herring, salmon, trout, eels, perch, smelts, &c. No market can be more easily or regularly supplied with fish than that of Charlotte Town; yet, from indolence, and the ease with which the labouring classes can procure food from the soil, it is the worst fish-market in the world.

## CHAPTER III.

Agricultural Productions—Seed-time—Harvest—Horned Cattle—Sheep—Swine—Horses—Scotch Highlanders slovenly Farmers—Manner of Clearing and Cultivating Forest Lands—Consequence of Fires in the Woods—Manures—Agricultural Society—Habitations of New Settlers, &c.

THE excellence of its soil, its climate, and the configuration of its surface, adapt the lands of Prince Edward Island more particularly for agriculture than for any other purpose.

All kinds of grain and vegetables raised in England, ripen in perfection. Wheat is raised in abundance for the consumption of the inhabitants, and a surplus is exported to Nova Scotia. Both summer and winter rye, and buckwheat, produce weighty crops; but the culture of these grains is scarcely attended to. Barley and oats thrive well, and are, in weight and quality, equal to any met with in the English markets, and superior to what are produced in the United States.

Beans of all kinds yield plentiful returns. Peas, when not injured by worms, which is often the case, thrive well; and turnips are sometimes liable to injury from flies and worms. In no country do parsnips, carrots, beets, mangel-wurzel, or potatoes, yield

more bountiful crops. Cucumbers, salads, cabbages, cauliflowers, asparagus, and indeed all culinary vegetables common in England, arrive at perfection. Cherries, plums, damsons, black, red, and white currants, ripen perfectly, and are large and delicious. Gooseberries do not always succeed, but probably from improper management.

The apples raised are inferior in quality, but certainly from want of attention, as many of the trees planted by the French, previous to the conquest of the island in 1758, are still bearing fruit ; and some fine samples of apples are produced by those farmers who have taken pains in rearing the trees.

Indian corn, or maize, is occasionally planted, but it does not by any means thrive so well as in New Brunswick or Nova Scotia, nor do I consider it so congenial to the soil.

Flax is raised, of excellent quality, and manufactured by the farmers' wives into linen for domestic use. This article might be cultivated extensively for exportation.

Hemp will grow, but not to the same perfection as in Upper Canada, or some parts of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

The principal grasses are timothy, red and white clover, and a kind of soft indigenous upland grass, of which sheep are very fond ; also marsh grasses, on which young and dry cattle are fed during the winter months.

As a few cold days and wet weather frequently occur in the latter end of April, or the first week

of May, wheat or oats are seldom sown until the first of the latter month. Barley will ripen if sown before the 20th of June, although it is generally sown earlier. Potatoes are planted about the last of May, or before the middle of June, and often later. Turnip seed is sown about the middle of July; some prefer sowing it the first week in August, in which case the leaves are not so liable to injury from worms. Gardening commences early in May, and generally combines the different departments of fruits, flowers, and vegetables.

Haymaking begins in the latter end of July, and as the weather is commonly very dry at this time, it is attended with little trouble in curing. Hay is sometimes put away under cover, but oftener made up into stacks or ricks. Experienced farmers say, that the common run of old settlers on the island dry their hay before they stack it. Barley is reaped in August; there are two varieties of it, five-rowed and two-rowed ears. The wheat and oat harvest commences sometimes before, but generally after the first of September. Some use a cradle for cutting their grain, and afterwards make it up into sheaves and stooks, but the common way is to reap and lay it up in sheaves, and then gather and stack it in the same manner as in England.

Potatoes and turnips are left undug until the middle or end of October: the first are generally ploughed up, except on new land, where the hoe alone is used. Parsnips may remain in the ground during winter,

and are finer when dug up in spring than at any other period.

Milch cows, and such horses and cattle as require most care, are housed in November ; but December is the usual month for housing cattle regularly. Sheep thrive better by being left out all winter ; but they require to be fed, and it is necessary to have a shelter without a roof, to guard against the cold winds and snow drift.

Black cattle are generally smaller than in England : a good ox will weigh from eight to nine hundred pounds, but the common run will not exceed six or seven hundred. The beef is usually very fine and tender.

Sheep thrive remarkably well ; but, until lately, very little care was observed in improving the breed. The late Attorney-General, Mr Johnston, kept a flock of fine sheep, equal to any in England, on his excellently cultivated farm near Charlotte Town ; and since that time, other farmers are following the example, from observing that the quantity of wool they produced was more than double the weight yielded by the common breed. The mutton, however, of the old breed, is usually fat and well-flavoured.

Swine seem to thrive here as well as in any country, and the pork brought to Charlotte Town by the farmers, is probably equal in general to that met with in the Irish market ; but from want of proper care in rearing, and possessing a good breed of pigs, one half the number raised on the island are tall, long-snouted animals, resembling greyhounds nearly

as much as they do the better kind of hogs ; and when, as they generally are, left during summer to range uncontrolled through the woods, they are as wild and swift as foxes.

The horses are, with few exceptions, small, and capable of performing long journeys, and enduring great fatigue, with much spirit. During summer, it is usual to take them off the grass, and ride them the same day thirty or forty miles without feeding, frequently on bad roads, then turn them loose to feed on grass during night, and ride them back on the following day : all this is performed frequently without apparent injury to the animal. The old Canadian breed, originally from Normandy, are the hardiest horses, and seem as if formed for the severe usage they undergo. Their owners take them almost every week during winter to Charlotte Town, twenty or thirty miles, and leave them tied, often without food, to a post or fence for several hours, and return home with them the same night ; the horse hungry and sober, but the master rarely in the latter state. I have been told by an old Acadian Frenchman, that for several years after the conquest of the island, a vast number of horses were running in a wild state about the eastern parts. Such horses as are taken good care of, and have been trained, make very agreeable saddle, or carriage horses. The breed is likely now to improve fast, from those introduced by Colonel Ready, the present governor ; and this may be said of horned cattle, sheep, and hogs ; for, when last on the island, in 1828, I was astonished at the

improvement in the horses, cattle, hogs, and sheep exhibited at the agricultural show, and also at the excellence of the wheat, oats, and other produce.

The greater number of farmers, particularly the Highland Scotch, keep by far too many cattle for the quantity of provender they usually have to feed them with during winter. These people think if they can manage to carry their cattle through the winter, they are doing well; but the consequence is, that their cattle, especially milch cows, are in such lean condition in spring, that they are not in tolerable order until July. Until milch cows also are prevented from ranging at large, as almost all the cattle are allowed to do, and until they are better fed during winter, one half the quantity of butter and cheese that might be expected, will not be made on the island. Those who keep their cows within enclosures are sensible of this. The prejudices of the old settlers, however, as regards this, and other customs and habits, must necessarily give way to the force of example set before them by the superior management of many farmers who follow the most approved modes of husbandry and grazing.

Much may also be expected from the exertions of agricultural societies, established since Governor Ready's appointment to the administration. Cattle shows, and exhibitions of agricultural produce, are established. Prizes are given to those who produce the best specimens of each. It is also pleasing to observe the improvement in the mode of cultivating the lands, which has spread over the colony during



the last few years, and which may be attributed principally to the force of example, set by a few of the old settlers, chiefly the loyalists and Lowland Scotch, and by an acquisition of industrious and frugal settlers from Yorkshire, in England, and from Dumfries-shire and Perthshire, in Scotland.

The principal disadvantage connected with this island, and in fact the only one of any importance, is the length of the winters, which renders it necessary to have a large store of hay for supporting live stock ; and which also, from the abrupt opening of spring and summer, abridges the season for sowing and planting. These disadvantages are, however, felt with equal severity in Prussia, and over a great part of Germany, where the people employed in agricultural pursuits form the majority of the inhabitants.

About a ton of hay, with straw for each, taking large and small together, is requisite to winter black cattle properly. The winter season has also many advantages—wood and firing poles are easily brought from the forests, over the smooth slippery roads made by the frosts and snows, and distances are shortened by the bays and rivers being frozen over. The ground is also considered to be fertilized by deep snows and frosts ; and there are few farmers who consider the winter an impediment to agriculture, otherwise than the spring opening so suddenly upon them, and the astonishing quickness of vegetation, leaving them only five or six weeks for preparing the soil, and sowing and planting. When we consider, however, that the autumn and fall are

much finer, and of longer duration than in Europe, and the winter setting in generally much later, the farmers have, in reality, little cause to complain of the seasons, as they have abundant time to plough all the grounds in the fall, which is, at the same time, known to be the most proper season for American tillage.

The common plan of laying out farms in this colony, is in lots containing one hundred acres each, having a front of ten chains, either on the sea-shore, a bay, river, or road, and running one hundred chains back. This plan, from the farms being in strips instead of square blocks, is often objected to ; but it has many advantages, by giving a greater number of settlers the benefits of roads, shores, and running streams.

It is curious and interesting to observe the progress which a new settler makes in clearing and cultivating a wood farm, from the period he commences in the forest, until he has reclaimed a sufficient quantity of land to enable him to follow the mode of cultivation he practised in his native country. As the same course is, with little variation, followed by all new settlers in every part of America, the following description may, to avoid repetition, be considered applicable to all the British American settlements :—

The first object is to select the farm among such vacant lands as are most desirable, and after obtaining the necessary tenure, the settler commences, usually assisted in his first operations by the nearest

inhabitants, by cutting down the trees on the site of his intended habitation, and those growing on the ground immediately adjoining. This operation is performed with the axe, by cutting a notch on each side of the tree, about two feet above the ground, and rather more than half through on the side it is intended the tree should fall on. The lower edges of these notches are cut horizontally, the upper making an angle of about 60° with the ground. The trees are all felled in the same direction, and after lopping off the principal branches, cut into ten or twelve feet lengths. On the spot on which the house is to be erected, these junks are rolled away, and the smaller parts cleared off, or burnt.

The habitations which the new settlers first erect, are all nearly in the same style, and in imitation of, or altogether like, the dwellings of an American backwoodsman, constructed in the rudest manner. Round logs, from fifteen to twenty feet long, without the least dressing, are laid horizontally over each other, and notched in at the corners to allow them to come, along the walls, within about an inch of each other. One is first laid on each side to begin the walls, then one at each end, and the building is raised in this manner, by a succession of logs crossing and binding each other at the corners, until the wall is six or seven feet high. The seams are closed with moss or clay; three or four rafters are then raised to support the roof, which is covered with boards, or more frequently with the rinds of birch or fir-trees, and thatched with spruce branches, or, if near the sea-

coast, with a long marine grass, which is found in quantities along the shores. Poles are laid over this thatch, tied together with birch withes, to keep the whole securely down. A wooden frame-work, placed on a slight foundation of stone roughly raised a few feet above the ground, leads through the roof, which, with its sides closed up with clay and straw kneaded together, forms the chimney. A space large enough for a door, and another for a window, is cut through the walls; and in the centre of the cottage, a square pit or cellar is dug, for the purpose of preserving potatoes or other vegetables during winter; over this pit, a floor of boards, or logs hewed flat on the upper side, is laid, and another over head, to form a sort of garret. When the door is hung, a window sash, with six or nine, or sometimes twelve panes of glass, is fixed, and one, two, or three truckle beds are put up: the habitation is then considered ready to receive the new settler and his family. Although such a dwelling has certainly nothing handsome, comfortable, or even attractive, unless it be its rudeness in appearance, yet it is by no means so miserable a lodging as the habitations of the poorer peasantry in Ireland, and in some parts of England and Scotland. In a few years, however, a much better house is built, with two or more rooms, by all steady industrious settlers.\*

\* The manner of building these habitations, and the mode of clearing and cultivating forest lands, may be considered equally applicable to all the other colonies.

Previous to commencing the cultivation of wood lands, the trees that are cut down, lopped, and cut into lengths, are, when the proper season arrives, generally in May, set on fire, which consumes all the branches and small wood. The logs are then either piled in heaps and burnt, or rolled away for fencing. Those who can afford the expense, use oxen to haul off the large unconsumed timber. The surface of the ground, the remaining wood, is all black and charred; working on it, and preparing it for the seed, is as disagreeable probably as any labour in which a man can be engaged. Men, women, and children, however, must employ themselves in gathering and burning the rubbish, and in such parts of labour as the strength of each adapts them to. If the ground be intended for grain, it is sown, without tillage, over the surface, and the seed covered with a hoe. By some a triangular harrow is used, in place of the hoe, to shorten labour. Others break up the earth with a one-handled plough, (the old Dutch plough,) which has the share and coulter locked into each other, drawn also by oxen, while a man attends with an axe, to cut the roots in its way. Little regard is paid in this case, to making straight furrows, the object being no more than to work up the ground. With such rude preparation, however, three successive good crops are raised without any manure. Potatoes are planted in round hollows, scooped four or five inches deep, and about twenty in circumference, in which three or five sets are planted, and covered over with a hoe. Indian corn, cucumbers, pumpkins, pease, and

beans, are cultivated on new lands, in the same manner as potatoes. Grain of all kinds, turnip, hemp, flax, and grass seeds, are sown over the surface, and covered by means of a hoe, rake, or harrow. Wheat is usually sown on the same ground, the year after potatoes, without ploughing, but covering the seed with a rake or harrow; and oats are sown on the same land the following year. Some farmers, and it is certainly a prudent plan, sow timothy, or clover seed, the second year, along with the wheat, and afterwards let the ground remain under grass until the stumps of the trees can be easily got out, which usually requires three or four years. With a little additional labour, these obstructions to cultivation might be removed the second year. The roots of spruce, birch, and beech decay soonest; those of pine and hemlock scarcely decay in an age. After the stumps are removed from the soil, and those natural hillocks, called cradle hills,\* which render the whole of the forests of America full of inequalities of from one to three feet high, are levelled, the plough may always be used, and the system of husbandry followed that is most approved of in England or Scotland.

When the soil is exhausted by cropping, which, on alluvial lands, is scarcely ever the case, various manures may be procured and applied. In many parts of America, limestone, gypsum, &c. are abundant; but little else except stable dung is ever used.

\* These tumuli have been formed during the growth of the forest trees, by the extension of their large roots, and the portion of the trunks under ground, swelling the earth gradually into hillocks.

Composts are rarely known ; and different manures, that would fertilize the soil, are so much disregarded, that, generally speaking, the cultivation of the soil is conducted in so slovenly a manner, that it appears astonishing how many of the settlers raise enough to support their families. In this island, within many of the bays and rivers, numerous banks of mussel-mud abound, which consists of mussels, shells, and mud composed of decayed vegetable and other substances. This forms an extremely rich manure, containing about forty-five parts of the carbonate of lime, and imparts extraordinary fertility for ten or twelve years to the soil. Sea-weed, or ware, which is thrown on the shores, especially on the north side of the island, in great quantities, is another excellent manure, particularly for barley crops ; and even the common mud, which abounds in the creeks, may be applied as a manure with advantage.

## CHAPTER IV.

Trade, &amp;c.

WHEN this island was possessed by the French, the population being unimportant, little trade was carried on by the inhabitants; and the government, aware that its superior natural advantages would drain off most of the settlers at and near Louisburg, discouraged its fisheries, by not allowing them to be carried on except in one or two harbours. The inhabitants were, in consequence, confined to agriculture.

On the colony being settled by the British, a trade, of no great extent, however, was carried on in the articles of fish, oil, sea-cow skins, and seal-skins, which were exported to Quebec, Halifax, and Boston. The people then engaged in the fisheries were principally Acadian French, who built them small shallops and boats on the island.

As the best fishing banks within the Gulf of St Lawrence lie in the immediate vicinage of this island, it seems, at first, rather surprising that extensive fisheries have not before this time been established. There have been, it is true, some attempts of the kind made, which, from different causes, have failed. The American revolutionary war affected the first



trials, and the others fell through from mismanagement, want of capital, and circumstances peculiar to the natural state of the colony. The last cause might naturally be considered as a decided advantage over Newfoundland, for carrying on the fisheries, when we discover that it arises from the island producing great plenty of all kinds of provisions for fisheries, abundance of wood for building vessels and boats, and numerous safe and convenient harbours. The fact is, that the prime necessaries of life being procured with such ease from the soil, and small vessels being so readily built, for carrying overplus produce from the different harbours to where it is wanted, and for which various articles of luxury are obtained, form the great obstacle at present to the success of fishing establishments. This objection will also continue until the country becomes so populous that a livelihood can be obtained from the sea, with much the same labour, or price of labour, as from the soil; for at present it is out of the question for a merchant who would supply people for fishing voyages, to depend on the industry of those whom he employed or trusted, as is the case in Newfoundland, where the fisheries have so long formed the primary occupation of the inhabitants.

The timber trade has been for many years of some importance, by employing a number of ships and men; but, as regards the prosperity of the colony, it must be considered rather as an impediment to its improvement than an advantage, by diverting the inhabitants from agriculture, demoralizing their habits, and from its enabling them to procure ardent spirits

with little difficulty, which in too many instances has led to drunkenness, poverty, and loss of health.

A trade from which the island has derived, and will probably continue to receive, considerable benefit, is that of supplying Newfoundland with schooners for the seal and cod fisheries, black cattle, sheep, hogs, poultry, oats, potatoes, turnips, &c.; the returns for which are made either in money, West India produce, or such other articles as may best answer. Agricultural produce is also exported to Halifax, Miramichi, and other places in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Beef, pork, sheep, hams, cheese, oats, potatoes, flour, and fish, are occasionally exported to Bermuda.

The branch of trade in which the largest capital has been invested, and that which has given employment to the greatest number of men, while it has at the same time been of great benefit to the colony, although to none of the merchants engaged in it, was the building of ships for the British market. More than one hundred and fifty ships, registering from one hundred and fifty to six hundred tons, have been built within the last few years in different parts of the island. It must be admitted, however, that many of these ships have been built by careless and unprincipled workmen; but the greater number are fine substantial vessels, sailing now principally from the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, and Plymouth.

The wood of this colony used in ship-building is, if allowed proper time to season, of superior quality, although a most unfair prejudice has been hatched

and kept up against it, as well as against that growing in all our American colonies. It is, however, a well-known fact, that vessels built in this island, from fifteen to twenty years ago, are still substantial and tight: this circumstance alone should be sufficient to remove the most inveterate prejudice.

When we view the position of Prince Edward Island, in regard to the countries bordering on the Gulf of St Lawrence, the excellence of its harbours for fishing stations, and take into account that the whole of its surface may, with little exception, be considered fertile and easily-cultivated soil, it does not certainly require the spirit of prophecy to perceive, that unless political arrangements may interfere with its prosperity, it will at no very remote period, or as soon as its population increases to about one hundred thousand inhabitants, become a valuable agricultural as well as commercial country. But before the trade of the island can either flourish or maintain a regular or respectable character, several alterations and improvements must take place. A system ruinous to the cultivators of the soil, and injurious to the credit of the merchants and shopkeepers, grew out of circumstances which might have been, during the early settlement of the colony, in many instances necessary, and perhaps benevolent. This at first was no more than giving credit for a few indispensable articles to emigrants. During the war, it became a systematic business to sell rum, tobacco, tea, and various articles, on credit to the farmer, at enormous advances, which for some years swallowed

up the whole fruits of his industry, leaving but a bare subsistence for his family.

I have been repeatedly told that a shopkeeper, who had at that time little opposition in his business, always enquired of a new customer who wanted a gallon of rum, a little tea, or a few gallons of molasses, on credit, if he possessed a cow; and if it turned out that he did, the fat shopkeeper grunted out, "Hah, well, let him have it." At that time, and long after, when Newfoundland, in consequence of the war, was precariously supplied with fresh meat, a cow was an object of profitable importance to a Charlotte Town shopkeeper.

At length shopkeepers multiplied, and the system of selling goods to the farmers on credit rather increased than diminished. But the shopkeepers must raise money to remit, or their own credit must end; and farmers, especially after the war, could not pay them. A list of debts was accordingly made out by the shopkeeper, and those under five pounds given to a magistrate to sue for immediately, while the rest were probably given to an attorney to recover. In a country where specie is exceedingly scarce, a vast quantity of property is sacrificed even to satisfy the demand for costs; and it has often happened, that the most respectable and good-natured shopkeepers have, after suing for their debts, had to pay not only the expenses, but to let the debt itself remain over for another year. This last observation is, however, more applicable to those who were in a more general business than mere shopkeeping.

The system of giving credit gave birth to another evil, which combined in itself the elements of scheming, overreaching, evading the fulfilment of contracts, and petty litigation. This state of things was ruinous to reputable merchants, who had spirit enough to attempt the fisheries, or to conduct business on a general and respectable scale ; and when the contracts which people entered into with them, for building vessels, or furnishing cargoes of timber, or indeed any other engagement, were not fulfilled, such was the condition of justice, that redress was seldom to be had. The merchants engaged in ship-building felt the full weight of all these evils ; and the shopkeepers must now bear with the difficulties attending payment for the goods they sell, when bills are not to be had, and when the current specie of the island, if it were even plentiful, can only be remitted at a loss of 25 to 30 per cent.

This state of things must continue until there is at least a sufficient quantity, in value, of agricultural produce and fish, to export as payment of the imports. Very moderate industry, and an honest degree of punctuality, would bring this about. If the proprietors of the lands would take payments of the rents due them in wheat, oats, and barley, at such a price as would bear the expense of exporting to England, the prosperity, and the trade of the island would be rapidly increased, the rents would be better paid, as there would then be no excuse on the part of the tenant, and the value of the lands would in a very short time be doubled. There is nothing but the raising of

sufficient agricultural productions for staple export commodity can ever create any prosperous trade in this colony. Its fisheries can only thrive when it has a dense population, as a subsistence is too easily obtained from the soil to tempt men away to the more laborious business of fishing.

Ship-building, unless it be the building of vessels for the carrying trade of the colony, and a few schooners for the Newfoundland fisheries, is at an end.

The selling of goods on credit to the farmers must be limited, and litigation also discouraged, before trade can thrive, or before spirited men can enter into business with any degree of confidence.

## CHAPTER V.

Society—Amusements—Pursuits of the Inhabitants—English Settlers—  
Scotch Highlanders—Irish American Loyalists—Acadian French—Mic-  
mac Indians, &c.—Religion—Education—Administration of Justice—  
Prospects for New Settlers, &c.

SOCIETY in any country, as is well known, takes its tone from the spirit and character of its government, and from the education, pursuits, professions, and religion of its inhabitants. The population of Charlotte Town is composed of English, Scotch, and Irish, who have at different times settled on the island, and the descendants of the first settlers, part of whom were American loyalists, the rest emigrants from Great Britain and Ireland. There are scarcely three families in the town that came from the same part of other countries; and there is consequently, from their education and habits having been dissimilar, a diversity of manners among them, very unlike the sameness in language and habits observed in the lesser towns of the United Kingdom.

During the administration of Governor Patterson, and of his successors, General Fanning, and Governor Desbarres, the best circle of society in Charlotte Town was not only more extensive in numbers than at present, but allowed to be both elegant and respect-

able; and however much the members who composed it might have differed in their views and opinions in regard to the political affairs of the colony, they did not allow either to interfere with public amusements or private hospitality. Indeed, the politeness and attention with which respectable strangers were received, became proverbial.

During the course of Governor Smith's long administration, those social and kindly feelings which render society delightful, and which are necessary to make a residence in any place agreeable, unhappily weakened and languished in the same ratio as the number of respectable residents diminished. Some of the leading people left the colony in disgust; others by their deaths left blanks, at that period not readily to be filled up.

The last American war gave animation and vigour to society; and the loyalty of the inhabitants, under many unpleasant circumstances of misrule and overbearing government, manifested particularly on some of the review days at Charlotte Town, was remarkably conspicuous. Several companies of militia went to great expense in finding handsome uniforms; and they also took great pride in acquiring a mastery in military exercises. The artillery company, the cavalry company, and some of the light companies, became remarkably alert in going through their movements and exercises. An act of seeming caprice, however, on the part of the governor, which removed their favourite officers, and the order for placing Captain Barrington of the regulars under arrest, apparently



for countenancing them, destroyed the pride which animated the militia.

The amusements of Charlotte Town, although not on so extensive a scale, are in imitation of those at Halifax, which will be described more fully hereafter, when treating of Nova Scotia. During winter, assemblies are usual, once a month, or oftener. An amateur theatre, very respectably fitted up, affords an opportunity of spending some pleasant hours. Picnic parties\* are common during summer and winter. Dinner parties were at one time usual, but have not been so much so for some time past. The principal gentlemen of Charlotte Town generally dine together, at one of the hotels, on the anniversaries of the titular saints of each of the three kingdoms, and also during the sittings of the colonial legislature, and of the courts of law. The ice, during winter, frequently affords excellent skating. Shooting and fishing are other sources of amusement; and annual races, near Charlotte Town, have for some time been fairly supported. A public subscription library, on a respectable footing, affords, either to those who read merely for amusement, or to such as wish to keep pace, in the acquirement of knowledge, with the growing intelligence of the world, a variety of entertaining and standard works. There is also a very well-conducted weekly paper, published at Charlotte Town. As the expense of keeping a horse is trifling, almost every housekeeper has one or two; and during win-

\* Note B.

ter, it is a favourite amusement among all classes to drive in cabrioles, which are slight open carriages set on runners, which slip easily and rapidly over the snow and ice.

The inhabitants of Charlotte Town support themselves by various means. Those connected with the government offices, custom-house, &c., receive their pay from government; for the colony does not pay its civil list, nor would it at present be prudent to require the legislature to provide for the same, as the improvement of the colony, by opening roads, erecting bridges, and the encouragement of agriculture, to which the colonial revenue is appropriated, would be retarded. The legislature have voted a sum annually to the present worthy Governor, but probably not so much as they should, as he spends his full salary, as well as the sum voted by the Assembly, in the country; and the whole is barely sufficient to support the respectability of the government.

Many of the inhabitants are engaged in trade; but the most extensive merchants having been ruined by their heavy speculations in ships, the present trade of Charlotte Town is confined to the selling of various kinds of British goods, and West India produce, for money, or, in the way of barter, for agricultural produce. The other inhabitants follow various kinds of handicraft, or support themselves by keeping taverns, or dram-shops.

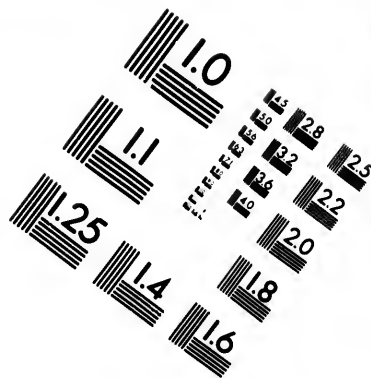
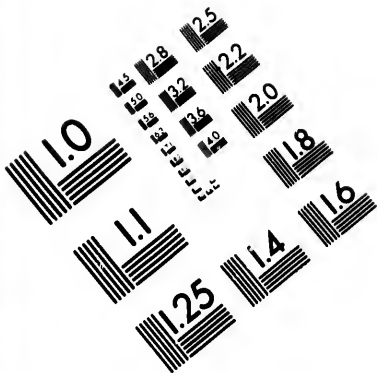
When travelling through the settlements, we discover the inhabitants of Prince Edward Island to consist of Englishmen, who, though fewer than any

others in numbers, are found from almost every county in England; Scotchmen, who form more than half of the whole population, from the Highlands, Hebrides, and the southern counties; Irishmen from different parts of the Emerald Isle; American loyalists; and a few Dutch, Germans, and Swedes. The whole population may be estimated at thirty-five thousand.

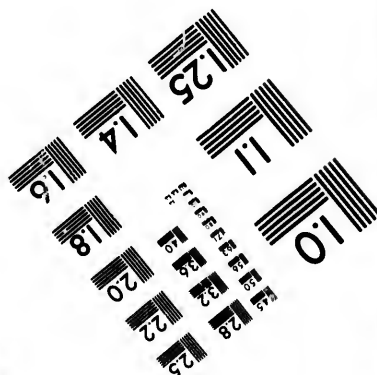
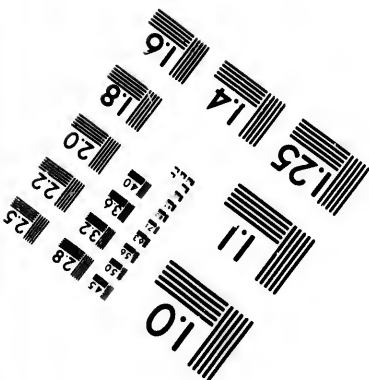
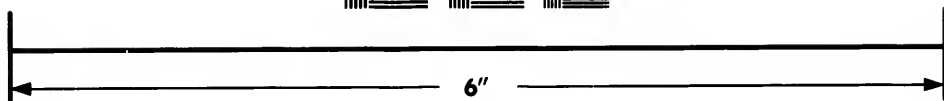
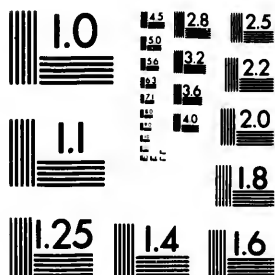
The English settlers, although for some time discontented with their condition, are generally found to thrive, particularly those from Yorkshire; and they are much more attentive to in-door comfort and cleanliness than most other new settlers.

The Highland Scotch, particularly those who settled first in the colony, and their descendants, are exceedingly regardless of domestic cleanliness or neatness, while they are at the same time in much better circumstances than they would be in their native country. The Lowland Scotch make probably the best settlers, at least those who have during late years removed to the island may be considered so; and the Perthshire Highlanders, as well as those sent to the colony by the late Earl of Selkirk, may also be classed among the most thriving part of the population. The American loyalists, who removed to the island after the revolutionary war, are generally most industrious in their occupations; and although frequently, in consequence of following too many pursuits, not so substantial in their means as those who live by farming alone, yet they have, with few exceptions, good houses, and live very comfortably. They



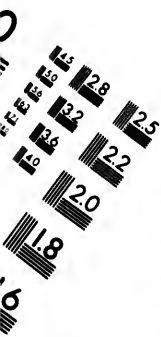


**IMAGE EVALUATION  
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic  
Sciences  
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET  
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580  
(716) 872-4503



are extremely ingenious, building their own houses, are carpenters and joiners, make their own shoes, ploughs, harrows, carts, sledges, cabrioles, &c. The women spin, knit, and weave linens, cottons, and woollen cloth for domestic use.

The Irish emigrants soon better their condition in this colony ; but they are certainly a less steady class of settlers than any other.

There are about 5000 Acadian French on the island, who are principally the descendants of the French who were settled in Nova Scotia before the conquest of Cape Breton ; they profess the Catholic religion. Their priests are educated in Canada ; and by their example, as well as precepts, teach morals and propriety to their flocks. These people are not in such easy circumstances as the other inhabitants of the island. Those who confine themselves to agriculture are, it is true, more affluent, perhaps sufficiently so for people in their station, especially when we consider that few of them can either read or write. At the villages of Rustico, they follow so many different pursuits, that they cannot possibly succeed. At one time they are employed building vessels, at another cutting timber in the woods, then for a few weeks farming, then fishing, and too often idling their time at Charlotte Town. It follows, that they are poor, while the Acadians, in other parts of the island, although their mode of husbandry, from which the force of example will not induce them to depart, is rude and tardy, acquire what renders their condition independent.

The Indians who wander about the colony, are now few in number; probably not more than thirty families are seen on the island. They are part of the remnant of the once numerous Mic-mac tribe; profess the Roman Catholic religion; and have a chapel and burying-place, as already observed, on Lennox Island, Richmond Bay.

The inhabitants of the colony, particularly the old farmers, are hospitable, kind, and obliging, and, generally speaking, a moral people. Litigation, which the timber business, and the credit given by the tavern-keepers and small shopkeepers, have produced, and the low price of rum, form the sole causes of immorality, and the most baneful evils connected with the island; and it is much and sincerely to be regretted, that many of the magistrates, and some of the attorneys, have fostered, rather than discouraged, these causes of iniquity and of any common wretchedness that can be discovered in the colony.

The farmers are employed during winter in attending to their cattle, thrashing out their corn, cutting and hauling home fire-wood for winter use, and a stock of fuel for summer; these occupations, with many other little matters connected with his farm, house, and markets, engage the constant attention of a managing, industrious man. Those, however, who think they will succeed better by attempting more, go into the woods to hew timber for exportation, or neglect their farms to become carpenters in the ship-yards, which has ruined many.

The farmers' wives and daughters are generally very



industrious, decorous, and correct, and strictly domestic and attentive to household duties. They assist in the labours of the farm during seed-time, hay-making, and harvest; and, during winter, prepare their flax and wool for spinning and knitting, and many of them also weave their home-spun cloth.

Hitherto almost all the farmers have caught the fish required for their own consumption; and it is generally necessary for new settlers to do so; but those who have been some time settled on their farms, will find it more profitable to attend altogether to husbandry, and buy the fish they want from others. Formerly a considerable quantity of sugar was procured by the inhabitants from the sap of the maple-tree. At present there is scarcely any made except by the Acadians and Indians.

The different denominations of religion that have places of worship, are the Church of England, as established by law; the Kirk of Scotland; Anti-burghers, or Seceders from the Kirk of Scotland; Roman Catholics; Methodists, and Baptists. All the members of these professions associate together as neighbours, and frequently attend the places of worship of each other, with great good feeling. All religions are free; the Roman Catholics alone were, until lately, precluded from being members of the Assembly, or voting at elections; but this disability, happily for the colonies, no longer exists.

The members of the Church of England are not numerous, although those of most other professions attend the service at St Paul's Church, Charlotte

Town. Indeed the right of property in this edifice is considered as equally vested in the members of the Kirk of Scotland, which has hitherto prevented its being consecrated ; and the Bishop of Nova Scotia seemed convinced of this being the case, when he visited this part of his diocese in 1826. There is another English church at St Eleanor's, a handsome building, erected for the reverend Mr Jenkins, who has lately succeeded the late worthy Rector of Charlotte Town, the reverend Mr Desbrisay, who officiated about forty years, beloved and venerated by all who knew him.

The first place of worship built on the island, directly in connexion with the Kirk of Scotland, stands near Pinnette River, in the centre of the flourishing settlement planted by the late Earl of Selkirk. This church was built in 1826 ; and the exemplary character and ministration of the reverend Mr MacLennan, a gentleman of education and ability, who preaches both in Gaelic and English, will preserve or improve the morals of a people brought up in their native country under a due sense of correctness and piety. A large and well-planned church, for a minister of the Kirk of Scotland, has lately been built at Charlotte Town. The congregation which will attend this church, when opened, will be very large. The Anti-burghers have ten places of worship ; the Methodists about the same number ; and the Baptists have two or three.

The Roman Catholics have a large chapel at St Andrews, eighteen miles from Charlotte Town, where

Bishop MacEacheran resides. This venerable pastor has, with the Catholics of this island, those of New Brunswick, Cape Breton, and the Magdalen Islands, under his care. There is also, besides, a handsome chapel at Charlotte Town, and about twelve others in different settlements. It has been frequently asserted in these kingdoms, that the inhabitants of this and other American colonies were in the most deplorable want of religious instruction. Such will not, I think, appear, as respects this island, from the above statement ; and such is certainly not the case.\* The inhabitants generally are as well informed in religious and other matters, as the people of any other country. Those born on the island are remarkably apt to learn, and singularly quick of apprehension ; and there are very few of the young people, except among the Acadians, who cannot read and write.

There is at Charlotte Town a very respectable grammar-school, a school on the Madras system, and schools in most of the settlements for elementary instruction. The Legislative Assembly vote money for the partial support of these schools.

The constitution of the island is nearly a transcript of that of England, and, in all civil matters, inde-

\* The inhabitants of this colony were lately disturbed in many places by a young female, who, giving out that she was inspired from above, left her service to expound the Bible. She preached, or rather raved, loud, long, and passionate harangues. I do not know what were her particular tenets. She called herself a Brienite ; and my knowledge of sectarianism does not extend to an acquaintance with any apostate, or religion-founder, of the name of Brien. His disciple called herself Martha Jago.

pendent of any jurisdiction in America. The government and legislature are vested in a lieutenant-governor, who represents the king<sup>a</sup>; a council, which acts in an executive as well as legislative capacity; and a House of Assembly, of eighteen representatives elected by the people, and who conduct their proceedings according to the forms of the British House of Commons. The governor is chancellor of the Court of Chancery; the chief-justice and attorney-general are appointed by the king; and the high-sheriff is appointed annually by the local government. The practice of the Court of Chancery is the same as in England; but the power given it has been most wantonly exercised. The present governor, however, has too much sense to admit of any overbearing or oppressive proceedings in this court. The Supreme Court of Judicature, is that in which all criminal and civil matters of consequence are tried, by a jury of twelve men; and the practice of which is regulated by that of the Court of King's Bench. Matters of small debt are decided by special magistrates; and justices of the peace take cognizance, as in England, of all breaches of the peace.

As to the prospects which this colony may present to persons in the United Kingdom who are desirous to emigrate, they will, I hope, appear pointed out free from bias in the foregoing pages, to which I will only add, that the lands, as already stated, having originally been granted away in large tracts, not more than 20,000 acres, if so much, are at present held by the crown. Woodlands, in convenient situations, may,

however, be purchased for from 10s. to L.2, per acre; and leases, in perpetuity, or, what amounts to the same thing, for 999 years, can be obtained for the annual rent of from 1s. to 2s. per acre, and in some situations for less. So that, taking into consideration the advantages of residing in the vicinity of well-disposed society, the opportunity that is afforded of having children instructed in the rudiments of education; of roads communicating between all the settlements; of corn-mills and saw-mills being almost everywhere in the neighbourhood; and having the convenience and benefit, by living near the shipping ports, of ready markets for the produce of the land or sea, it may be reasonably concluded, that the terms on which lands are now to be had in this island, are much more favourable than those on which they can be had in the United States.

The value of land, however, cannot long remain so low in this island, as it must rise along with the natural increase of the population. The prices of live stock and other articles vary from the lowest to the highest of the following prices:—A good horse, for saddle or harness, L.20 to L.35. A serviceable horse, for farmer's work, and of the Canadian breed, L.10 to L.18. A yoke of oxen, L.10 to L.20, according to the size. A cow, L.4 to L.7. A calf, 12s. to 18s. A wedder sheep, 10s. to 15s. An ewe and lamb in the spring, 15s. to 18s. The price of pigs depends on size and breed. Turkeys, 2s. to 3s. Stubble geese, 1s. 6d. to 3s. Ducks, 9d. to 1s. 3d. Fowls, 6d. to 10d. Fresh beef, 2d. to 4½d.; sometimes in spring,

for about a week or two, as high as 6d. Pork, 2½d. to 5d. Mutton, 2d. to 5d. Veal, 2d. to 5d. Butter, 8d. to 1s. Cheese, 6d. to 10d. Partridges, 4d. to 6d. Hares, in abundance, 6d. Codfish, fresh, weighing from 12lbs. to 20lbs., 6d. each. Salmon, 2s. to 2s. 6d. each. Herrings, fresh, 3d. to 8d. per dozen. Lobsters, very fine, ½d. to 1d. each; other kinds of fish in proportion. Ham, 12s. to 25s. per cwt. Wheat, 4s. to 6s. per bushel. Oats, 1s. 3d. to 2s. Barley, 2s. to 3s. Potatoes, 10d. to 1s. 3d. Turnips, 1s. to 1s. 3d. Carrots, cabbages, and other vegetables, are usually very low. Rum, 3s. 6d. to 5s. per gallon. Port wine, 8s. to 12s. Madeira, 10s. to 15s. Brandy, 7s. to 9s. Hollands, 6s. to 8s., all duty paid. Good souchong tea, 4s. to 6s. Good hyson, 5s. to 7s. Sugar, 6d. to 8d. per lb. These prices are in Halifax currency, nominally more, but always one-tenth, and sometimes one-sixth, less in value than British sterling.

## CHAPTER VI.

Sketch of its History—Condition under the Government of France—Settlement by the British—Erected into a distinct Colonial Government—Governors Patterson, Fanning, Desbarres, Smith, Colonel Ready.

THE first land Cabot met with after leaving Newfoundland, appears to have been this island, which he discovered on the 24th June, 1497, (St John's day,) and called it St John's Island. On the right of this discovery, the English neglected to make any claim ; and the French, after the settlement of Canada, took possession of it, as within the limits of New France, and as having been discovered, in 1523, by Verazani. It appears to have been granted, in 1663, by the company of New France, together with the Magdalen, Bird, and Brion isles, to the Sieur Doublet, a captain in the French navy, to be held by him in vassalage of the Company of Miscou.

The Sieur's associates were two companies of fishing adventurers, from the towns of Grenville and St Maloes, who never made any permanent settlement on the island, except trifling fishing-posts at two or three places.

After the peace of Utrecht, many of the French, who lived in Acadia, came and settled on this island ;

and others flocked to it from Cape Breton, on finding they could have the advantage of a fertile soil, as well as the benefit of a plentiful fishery; but so great was the apprehension of the French government that these great natural advantages would drain off the fishermen settled at the important harbour of Louisburg, that the inhabitants were prohibited from fishing, except at two or three harbours. After this, the French garrison at Louisburg received from this island grain, vegetables, and cattle; and two commissaries were stationed at different places for collecting and shipping the same.

From the observations of a French officer, who visited this island in 1752, we may have some idea of its condition before it was taken by the British forces. He says, "St John's is the largest of all the islands in the Gulf of St Lawrence, and has the advantage of Cape Breton in point of fertility. It has safe harbours, plenty of wood, and as great a convenience for fishing as any place on the coast. It had been altogether neglected, as well as Cape Breton, until, necessity having shown the French the utility of the latter, their eyes were also opened in regard to the former. They have since been at pains to plant it, though not enough, considering its advantageous situation.

"Though the island of St John is subject to no particular commandant, he receives his orders from the governor of Cape Breton, and administers justice conjunctly with the sub-delegate of the intendant of New France. They reside at Port la Joye," (now



Charlotte Town,) " and the governor of Louisburg furnishes them with a garrison of sixty men.

" It was from this place we set out in the beginning of the month of August, 1752. We ascended the river to the north-east seven leagues, up to its very source, from whence we proceeded to the harbour of St Peter's, after having made a carriage of four leagues across a plain, well cultivated, and abounding in all sorts of grain." After remaining some days at St Peter's, he visited the harbours of Fortune, De la Souris, and Matieu: " the neighbouring lands of which," he continues, " are exceeding good and proper for culture. We found several sorts of trees, with a prodigious number of foxes, martens, hares, partridges, &c. The rivers abound in fish, and are bordered with pasture lands, which produce exceeding good grass. The inhabitants came over here from Acadia, during the last war, and are about eight and forty in number. After coasting along, we doubled the east point, which we found deserted, because a fire had obliged the inhabitants to abandon it, in order to go and settle two leagues farther upon the north side.

" We continued our course six leagues, until we arrived at the Pool de Naufrage. The coast, though very level, presents the eye with nothing but a country laid waste by fire; and farther on it is covered with woods. We met with but one inhabitant, who told us the lands about the Pool were exceeding good, and easy to cultivate, and that every thing grows there in great plenty. Of this he gave us a demonstration

that afforded us a singular pleasure; this was a small quantity of wheat he had sown that year, and indeed nothing could be more beautiful than the ears, which were longer and fuller than any I had seen in Europe.

“ This place took the name of Pool de Naufrage, from a French ship that had been cast away on the coast. The vessel was lost four leagues out at sea; but a few passengers saved themselves upon the wreck, and were the first that settled at the harbour of St Peter’s. The coast swarms with all sorts of game, and with a variety of the very best fish.” This writer, after briefly describing places at that time settled, namely, Port la Joye, Point Prime, St Peter’s, Savage Harbour, Fortune, Souris, Matieu, Trois Rivières, Tracadie, Raico (Rustico), Malpec (Richmond Bay), Cascampec, Bedec, Rivières aux Blonds (Tryon), Rivières des Crapauds, and Des Sables, farther observes, “ The plantation of this island is of great consequence, as well in regard to the fishery, as to the commerce which the inhabitants may carry on in the interior parts; but to render it more solid and durable, they should attend to the more essential parts, namely, to agriculture, and pasturage, for the breeding and maintaining of all sorts of cattle, and especially sheep: by keeping them together in folds, the upper lands might be improved, and the meadows and corn-fields laid out; from whence the inhabitants would reap a plentiful harvest of all kinds of grain. For if they had but the proper means of making these improvements, their own lands would abundantly supply all their wants,

and they would be beholden to foreigners for nothing but salt, lines, hooks, and other fishing-tackle.

“ Here they have likewise a vast quantity of plaice, thornbacks, mackerel, and herrings. In several pools and lakes along the downs, they have excellent trout, and such a prodigious quantity of eels, that three men might fill three hogsheads of them in four and twenty hours. Lastly, you meet in all parts of the island with great plenty of game. It is therefore surprising that so plentiful a country should have so long been overlooked by the French.” \*

From the foregoing extracts, it is probable that the French government would not have allowed the natural resources of this island to have remained dormant, if they had retained its sovereignty.

In 1758, this island surrendered to Great Britain, when its population is stated to have been 10,000; but an old Acadian, who is still living, and was then on the island, told me that he recollected well the number of families in all the settlements, and that the population could not have exceeded 6000. Lieutenant-Colonel Rollo was sent from Louisburg, by General Amherst, to take possession of the island; and, to the eternal disgrace of the French governor, a vast number of English scalps were found hung up in his house. The island, for many years pre-

\* Genuine Letters and Memoirs relating to the Natural, Civil, and Commercial History of the Islands of Cape Breton and St John's, from the first settlement there, to the taking of Louisburg by the English in 1758, by an impartial Frenchman. London translation, 1761.

ceding, was the principal resort of the Micmac Indians; and, from the immense quantity of oyster shells on the banks of rivers and bays in the neighbourhood of oyster beds, where the savages generally pitched their wigwams or tents, we may conclude that it was their rendezvous for many centuries. In several places, these shells, which are partly in a pulverised state, cover several acres to the depth of from one to five or six feet.

The old Acadian French, driven from Nova Scotia, assimilated themselves at that time in a great measure to the habits of the Indians. Some of these Acadians were sent to Canada, others to the southern colonies.

At the peace of 1763, this colony and Cape Breton were annexed to the government of Nova Scotia. In 1764, a general survey of the British empire in America was begun by order of government, and that of this island completed in 1776.

Some difference having arisen as to the plan of settling it, Lord Egremont, then First Lord of the Admiralty, proposed doing so on a feudal plan, according to which, his Lordship was to be lord paramount of the colony, which was to be divided into twelve baronies, to be held of him. Each baron was to erect a castle, to maintain a certain number of men, who, with under tenants, were to perform suit and service. This idle scheme was very properly rejected; and the lands of the colony being considered too valuable to be granted away indiscriminately to individuals, like the rest of the newly-

acquired territories in America, the island was divided into sixty-seven townships, of about 20,000 acres each, which were granted, by recommendation of the Board of Trade and Plantations, to certain persons who were considered to have claims on the government.

By the terms of the first grant, a quit-rent was reserved to his Majesty of six shillings per hundred acres on some, of four shillings on others, and of two shillings per hundred acres on the remaining townships, payable on the Feast of St Michael. A reservation was made at the same time of all such parts to his Majesty as had then been set apart, or should thereafter be set apart, for erecting fortifications, building wharfs, enclosing naval yards, or laying out highways for the convenience of communication from one part of the island to another; and of all mines of gold, silver, and coals. Also a reservation on each township for church and school lands, and for a fishing on the sea-coast, within the distance of 500 feet from high-water mark.

The grantees of each township were to settle the same within ten years from the date of their grants, in the proportion of one person to every 200 acres, one-third of which, in this proportion, was to be settled in four years, with Protestants from the continent of Europe, or who had resided for two years in America, antecedent to the date of the respective grant of each township.\*

\* At that period, an idea was seriously entertained, that these kingdoms would be depopulated by emigration to America; and the conditions stipulated in the large grants of land made to va-

Thus was the whole of this valuable colony, except the above small reservations, and three others for intended county towns, given away in one day. Great expectations were formed of this plan for its settlement, from the flattering report drawn up by Captain Holland, surveyor-general of North America. But many of the proprietors, from necessity, or other motives, sold their lands to persons who were either unable, or unwilling, to settle them on the original plan; and the colony falling in this manner into the hands of a few individuals, has been the great cause of its not having been long ago populously settled. It was not until lands in convenient situations in the neighbouring colonies were located, that the lands of this island were considered worth the value set on them by the proprietors; and the very prejudice against settling on lands unless held in free soccage from the crown, has had a powerful influence in directing emigrants to other places

In 1768, a majority of the proprietors presented a petition to his Majesty, praying that the island might be erected into a separate government from that of Nova Scotia. This was granted, and Walter Patterson, Esq. appointed governor, who, with the other officers of government, arrived on the island in 1770, at which time there were not living on it more than 150 families, and only five resident proprietors. Shortly after his arrival, Governor Patterson planted

rious individuals, of settling them with foreigners, were occasioned by this opinion.

a number of Acadian French along the front of lot 17, (St Eleanor's,) and the proprietors of lot 18 (fronting on Richmond Bay) brought several families from Argyleshire, who were settled on this township in 1770 and 1772. The settlement of New London, Rustico, and Elliot River, began in 1773; and Cove Head, and lot 59 at Three Rivers, were settled early by the late Chief Baron Montgomery, who did more than any other proprietor, at that time, for the settlers.

Tracadly was planted with about 300 Highlanders by the late Captain Macdonald; and a few other places were partially settled about the same period.

The first House of Assembly met in 1773, by his Majesty's royal commission, which gave a complete constitution to the colony. The remainder of Governor Patterson's administration, which ended in 1789, was filled up with angry differences between himself and the proprietors; and he resorted to measures, on the ground of realizing crown or quit-rents, that were considered ill-judged and improper. In other respects he was a man of kind and benevolent character.

During the American revolutionary war, several of the enemy's armed vessels were captured and carried to Charlotte Town; and the frigates that brought out the Quebec convoys, generally spent part of the summer on this station. Barracks were at the same time erected, to accommodate four provincial companies sent from New York. The late General Fanning succeeded Governor Patterson; and although his administration was productive of no advantage in

promoting the prosperity of the colony, it was not apparently injurious to private individuals. His ruling passion, during his administration, was that of acquiring landed property in the colony, and he succeeded in securing to himself some of the best tracts, without proceeding to any violent measures against the proprietors; but he was considered the most severe landlord in the colony, in respect to rents and terms, which, with the common objections of new settlers to become tenants in wilderness lands, retarded the improvement and settlement of the island. He was born and brought up in the United States; and he owed his fortune to accidental circumstances, the advantages of which he had the finesse to seize. Soon after his appointment to this government, two provincial corps were raised, by order of his Majesty, for the protection of the island; and the barracks, as they now (1829) stand, were rebuilt, by order of the Duke of Kent. Three troops of volunteer cavalry were also formed; and the name of the island changed, in 1799, from St John's, and called, by an act of the colonial legislature, Prince Edward, in honour of his Royal Highness the Duke of Kent, then commanding the army in America.

Governor Desbarres, who had previously been Lieutenant-Governor of Cape Breton, and who succeeded General Fanning, was a man of considerable talent, liberal education, and well known as an expert and correct hydrographer. He possessed also many kind and generous qualities; but, from being very old, (having been a captain of foot at the siege of Que-



bee,) designing men acquired an influence over him, which led him to do a number of foolish things, and some unjust ones. The settlement of the country, and its general improvement during his administration, were more rapid than for some years after.

He was succeeded, in 1813, by Charles Douglas Smith, Esq., a brother of Sir Sydney Smith. The period at which he entered on the administration was as propitious as he could wish, the country being in a condition to enable him to direct all its resources to the general benefit of the colony. Had he taken any interest in the welfare of the country committed to his care, he might have still governed it with credit to himself, and satisfaction to the people, instead of making his administration obnoxious to almost every individual in the colony. For three years previous to his removal, the colonial legislature was not suffered to assemble; and the proceedings instituted in 1823, (which will ever be recollected as a period of calamity in the history of the colony,) occasioned a simultaneous feeling in the public mind, which made the inhabitants persevere in the proper constitutional way to effect his dismissal from office. A requisition for convening county meetings was made to the High Sheriff,\* by the principal people on the island. These

\* The High Sheriff of the colony is appointed, as in the counties of England, annually, and invested, by virtue of his commission and office, with precisely the same powers and duties. I had the honour to hold the appointment this year (1823); and on receiving a requisition, signed by the principal persons in the colony, to convene county meetings, for the purpose of petitioning his Majesty for the

meetings were held and conducted with great propriety, decorum, and unfeigned feelings of loyalty. Resolutions, embodying charges against the Governor, were unanimously agreed to, and a committee appointed by each of the county meetings, to prepare a petition to his Majesty for the removal of the Governor and Chief Justice. These petitions were grounded on the charges contained in the resolutions of the county meeting, and were signed by almost every landholder and householder in the colony. John Stewart, Esq., one of the committee of Queen's

redress of grievances, I considered it my bounden duty, under existing circumstances, to afford the inhabitants the constitutional privilege of doing so, and gave public notice of the same. On this, his excellency the Governor immediately held a council, the majority of the members of which, being appointed by himself, concurred with him in forbidding me to sanction the county meetings, of which I received official notice. I felt, however, clearly convinced that I could not, in conformity to the oath I had taken on entering upon the duties of my office, but allow his Majesty's subjects the privilege of petition. As a dernier resort, the Governor then attempted to supersede me the day before the meeting of the Supreme Court of Judicature, directing my deputy, who had given no sureties, to take upon him the duty of "acting sheriff," and whose first act was to erase from the grand jury list, which I had only an hour before returned into the Crown Office, the names of John Stewart, Esq. and another gentleman, then in court, as jurors, in obedience to my summons. As this interfered with trial by jury, on the Attorney-General rising, and, in his forcibly impressive manner, expressing his positive disapprobation of what had been done, and the alarming state of justice under such circumstances, the Chief Justice was lost in his usual absence of energy, the court was thrown into confusion, and no legal business of any importance ventured upon in the colony, until the Governor and Chief Justice were dismissed from their offices.

county, was appointed agent for the island, to carry home the petitions. Previously, however, to his leaving, the Governor thought fit, as if to crush the whole proceedings by a *coup de main*, to issue attachments out of the Court of Chancery, against Mr Stewart, and the other gentlemen who formed the committee for Queen's county, under pretence of their being guilty of contempt of that court, by taking upon them to state, in one of the resolutions of the county meetings, the grievous truth, that the Governor had sanctioned illegal fees in that court, since his appointing his son-in-law, a lieutenant on the half-pay of the 98th regiment, to the offices of master and registrar. Mr Stewart, however, escaped over to Nova Scotia with the petitions, and the necessary evidence to support the charges they contained; and, at the advanced age of sixty-six years, came to England, in the month of December. He succeeded, soon after his arrival in London, in having the Governor and Chief Justice removed from their offices. The Governor, meantime, arrested the other gentlemen of the committee, and had them brought up before himself as chancellor, and ordered them into the custody of the serjeant-at-arms. But, from the great assemblage of people at Charlotte Town on that day, and dreading that the inhabitants would become desperate if their representatives were confined in the cells prepared for them in the common prison, he did not venture to commit them. He, at the same time, suspended the highly-respected and learned Attorney-General, Mr Johnston, merely for having the hardi-

hood to express in court, when the members of the committee, who were brought to the bar, had been ordered into custody without being heard, that it was novel law to him to hear an order made for committing gentlemen who had the misfortune to be brought to the bar of court on an implied charge, without being allowed the privilege of defending themselves, except by the tardy course of petitioning, while they must at the same time remain in custody.

After this, Governor Smith remained within the barrack gates, apparently inactive as respected the local affairs of the colony, until he left the colony on the arrival of his successor, Colonel Ready.

The Attorney-General was soon after reinstated in his office. Writs for a new election of members for the Representative Assembly were issued; and Mr Stewart, who returned to the colony in the same ship with the Governor, was chosen speaker of the House of Assembly. During the first session of which, twenty-three acts of great importance to the country were passed, and added to the code of colonial laws.

Governor Ready has since been in England, but has returned again to the island, the improvement and prosperity of which appeared, with him, paramount to every other consideration. The roads, all over the island, have been widened, and rendered fit for carriages. New bridges have been erected, and the old ones repaired. The legislature have appropriated money for aiding the support of schools in Charlotte Town, and the county settlements. Agriculture, and the breeding of cattle, are encouraged; and what has

been effected in so short a period, proves how much might have formerly been done, without any expense but the proper application of the colonial revenue.

Governor Ready, in order to teach by the force of example, is a farmer himself. When last in England, he sent a beautiful full-bred stallion and mare to the island; an agricultural society has been established under his auspices; and the cultivation of the soil, fostered by his government, is extending rapidly over all parts of the colony.

The island has been at last so far prosperous, and much will hereafter depend on the inhabitants themselves. Let not their energies and industry be divided by petty bickering in private society, by family quarrels, by jealous feelings, or by contemptible political squabbles. Much has been done for them, but they must still do much more for themselves. They possess one of the most beautiful spots of the habitable globe; and their happiness may be secured by industry, economy, unanimity, punctuality to engagements, and an aversion to litigation.

## NOTES TO BOOK IV.

## NOTE A, page 300.

At this place there lived lately a most respectable farmer, William Graham. He emigrated about sixty years ago from Annandale, and by industry secured plenty and comfort on the large farm which he had occupied for fifty years. His mind was a sort of chronological register, and he was one of the best tellers of a plain story I ever knew. The most detailed, and the most interesting, except Sir Walter Scott's, account of the "Battle of Dryfe Sands," was related to me by "honest Willie Graham," as he was usually called. I have just learned that my excellent acquaintance died soon after I left America.

## NOTE B, page 341.

PIC-NIC excursions are much in vogue all over America. To show how far these differ from any thing to which they may be compared in England, it may be sufficient to observe, that pic-nic parties generally consist of families of respectability, with their friends, who are on a perfectly intimate footing with each other. In summer, some romantic spot is fixed upon, to which the party proceed; if by water, which is most commonly the case, in an open boat; or if by land, in gigs, or in calashes, and on horseback. The ladies consider it as within their particular province to furnish the eatables. The gentlemen provide wines and spirits. At these parties, there is usually less restraint, and more enjoyment, than at the assemblies. On some grassy glade, shaded by the luxuriant branches of forest trees, and not far from a clear spring or rivulet, the contents of

well-filled baskets are disclosed, feasting on which forms certainly the most substantial part of their day's enjoyment; but perhaps the most agreeable is that which succeeds, when the party divides for the pleasure of walking; and there are undoubtedly worse occupations in the world, than wandering with a pretty woman through the skirts of a wood, or along the margin of the sea, enjoying "sweet converse," and the delights of the open air and surrounding scenery. As the evening approaches, they reassemble, and the party, followed by their servants, bringing along the fragments of the picnic, return to the boat, in which they embark.

The evenings at this season are usually clear, agreeably warm, and tranquil; the sea calm and unruffled; and as neither the wine nor the wreck of the fowls, hams, &c., are forgotten, a repetition of the picnic may be said to take place on the water.

It sometimes happens, that in returning from these parties, the tide has ebbed so far that the boat cannot approach within a hundred yards of the shore; but, as it would be extremely ungracious to allow the ladies to remain any time without landing, the gentlemen, let their rank in society be what it may, (if even members of his Majesty's Colonial Council, Judges of the Supreme Court, or the principal officers of his Majesty's customs,) all get into the water; and although often sinking at every step more than a foot in the mud, each carries a lady in his arms to dry *terra firma*.

The rendezvous for winter pic-nics is usually a respectable farmhouse, some miles distant in the country. No small part of the pleasure of these excursions is enjoyed in driving to the appointed place with a lady, in a well-furred and cushioned cabriole, drawn over the snow or ice by one or two horses. These carriages take but two persons; the gentleman drives, as there is no seat in front for a servant. If the ice be smooth and glibby, and if the wind blows across the cabriole, it is frequently turned round, bringing the horse up at the same time with it, although generally going at great speed. These carriages, in turning corners, or passing over uneven roads, frequently overturn, leaving the passengers behind on the snow, but scarcely ever injured, although annoyed by the laugh which their awkward situation irresistibly excites in the by-standers.

As servants are seldom brought to attend at these winter parties, the gentlemen, as soon as they hand their fair companions out of

the carriages, and usher them into the house, leave them for a short time to see their horses properly taken care of. By the time they return, the ladies have disencumbered themselves of muff's, cloaks, and pelisses; and the frosty and bracing temperature of the season having by this time produced a corresponding sharpness of appetite, the pic-nic, to which they now all sit down, is enjoyed with all possible zest and good humour. Soon after, a country dance is announced; the music strikes up, and the party, "tripping it on the light fantastic toe," seldom breaks up before daylight the following morning. The night is thus, with eating, drinking, and dancing, spent in high delight; and when the hour of departure draws nigh, the ladies retire to wrap themselves up in their winter habiliments, while the gentlemen have their cabrioles brought to the door; and then each drives home with the lady who honoured him with her company.

## NOTE C, page 313.

A FARMER from Yorkshire, who settled a few years ago on lands belonging to Sir James Montgomery, in Prince Edward Island, with which I had at the time something to do, was complaining one day of his hard work and hard living at the same time. He said, with a sigh that reminded one of the murmuring children of Israel when longing for the "flesh-pots of Egypt," "Aye, measter, if I wur in Yorkshire neow, Ize had some good fat beakin poys." This same man has since surmounted his difficulties, and may have "fat bacon pies" as often as he pleases.

## NOTE D, page 313.

I HAVE frequently heard many of the old settlers declare their belief in the power of witches, and the influence of what they term an "evil eye," in such cases as being offered a fair price for a horse or cow, and refusing it, and the animal dying, or some accident happening to it soon after. When their cows give less milk than



usual, it is not uncommon to impute the cause to the infernal agency of some unlucky old woman.

Several years ago one of the settlers went to a magistrate and lodged a complaint against his neighbour, alleging that he was guilty of witchcraft. The magistrate was silly enough, but probably through ignorance, to summon the accused man before him, who was, however, declared innocent of holding any intercourse with his Satanic majesty. The man insisted on a written statement from the magistrate to that effect, which, as was related to me by a very respectable gentleman in the colony, ended in a kind of accidental rhyme, and in the following words :

“ Of witchcraft he's as free  
As man can be.  
William M'Kie, J. P.”

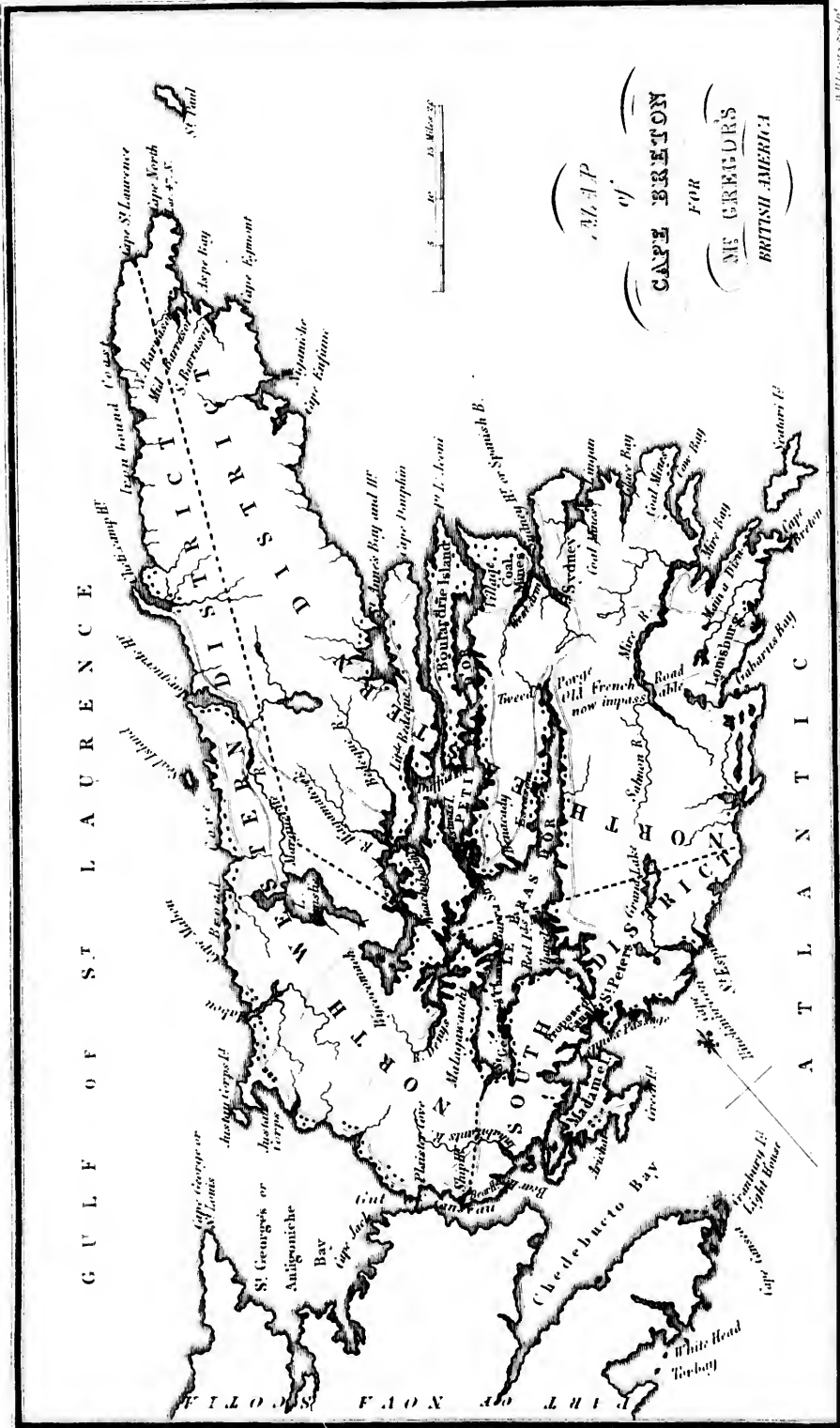
An old man at Richmond Bay, who gave out that he was gifted with the second sight, was so far infatuated, that being on the shore on a calm day in summer, near where a young man at the time had turned over in a broken canoe, quite within the reach of this old man to save him, he calmly allowed him to drown, in consequence, as he said, of a supernatural sight which his “ gift ” had enabled him to perceive a few days before.

the infernal

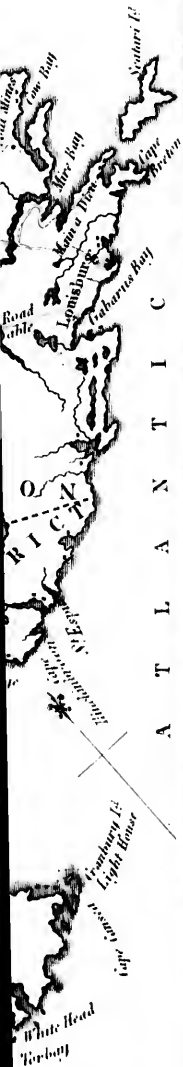
magistrate and  
that he was  
but probably  
re him, who  
rcourse with  
atement from  
me by a very  
of accidental

e was gifted  
on the shore  
the time had  
of this old  
onsequence,  
had enabled

GULF OF ST. LAURENCE



MAP  
OF  
**CAPE BRETON**  
FOR  
**NEW BRUNSWICK**  
**BRITISH AMERICA**



## BOOK V.

## CAPE BRETON.

## CHAPTER I.

Geographical Situation—Configuration and General Description—Sketch of its History.

CAPE BRETON is bounded on the south and east by the Atlantic ocean, and on the north and north-west by the Gulf of St Lawrence. The Gut of Causseau separates it on the west from Nova Scotia, and forms also a deep and safe passage into the gulf; to which, however, the principal entrance, 57 miles in width, is between Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, and the north cape of Cape Breton.

The aspect of Cape Breton is romantic and mountainous. The coast, washed by the Gulf of St Lawrence, is of dangerous access, and without harbours, and its iron-faced cliffs are high, and in many places perpendicular. On the Atlantic, the shores are broken and rugged, but indented with numerous harbours and bays. A vast inlet, named the Bras d'Or, entering by two narrow passages, and afterwards spreading into

numerous bays and arms, nearly divides the island into two.

Woods, with the exceptions of small patches cleared for cultivation, and such spots as are thrown open where rocks occupy the surface, cover the whole island. The trees are of much the same kind and description as those in Prince Edward Island, unless it be on the sea-coast and mountains, in which situations they are of a dwarfish character.

It is usually conjectured that this island has been detached from the continent of America by some violent convulsion. This, like most speculative opinions for which we have no historical data, will most likely ever remain uncertain. The Gut of Canseau, which divides Cape Breton from Nova Scotia, is not, for a distance of five leagues, more than a mile and a half wide, and in some places less. The Highlands also, rising on each side rather abruptly, make the width of the strait to seem much less, and impart to it, at the same time, the appearance of an immense fissure laid open by the explosion of some tremendous agency.

There is not, however, a striking resemblance in the geological structure of the opposite shores of Cape Breton and Nova Scotia; but this is no uncommon circumstance in nature; and we often, in America, meet with a chain of granite predominating on one side of a river, and a calcarious region prevailing on the other.

The geology and mineralogy of Cape Breton, can only be said to be known in outline. From all that I have observed, however, and from all the information

I have been able to obtain, I may remark, that almost all the rocks named in the discordant nomenclature of Werner, are found in this island.

Among the primitive rocks, granite prevails in the peninsular country south-east of the Bras d'Or; and it probably forms the nucleus of the Highlands between this inlet and the Gulf of St Lawrence. Sienite, trap, mica, clayslate, and occasionally quartz, also appear on the Gulf coast.

Primitive trap, sienite, mica-slate, and clayslate, show themselves, together with transition limestone, greywacke, gypsum, and coal, generally in all parts of the island.

The class of floetz rocks appears, however, to be the most numerous; and coal exists in such abundance, that persons unacquainted with geology have stated seriously to me that they considered this mineral formed the base of the whole island. Coal, in a field, or fields, of vast extent, abounds in the south-eastern division of the island, surrounded by carboniferous limestone, new red sandstone, &c. The quality of this coal is excellently adapted for common fire-places.

The extent or quality of the coal fields north of the Bras d'Or, have not been ascertained. Gypsum occurs in great plenty along the shores of the Bras d'Or, at the Gut of Canseau, on the Gulf coast, and in some other parts of the island.

We may conclude, from the strongly saturated salt springs which are found in different places, that the rock-salt formation is extensive. Iron ore, in various

forms, iron pyrites, red ochre, &c., exist in great abundance. Pieces of copper ore, lead, &c., have also been found, and various other minerals will probably be discovered.

The varieties of fish which abound in the seas surrounding Cape Breton, are of the same kind as those already described, as are also the birds and wild animals.\* The latter are the moose-deer, cariboo, bear, beaver, loup-cervier, fox, hare, marten, otter, musquash, mink, squirrel, racoon, porcupine, and weasel.

Moose-deer have now become scarce, in consequence of the vast numbers slaughtered at one time by the English, merely for the sake of their skins. Cariboo deer are still plentiful, and pursued principally by the Indians. Various kinds of wild fowls, foxes, and hares, are very numerous, and afford abundant sport.

Salmon, and remarkably large trout, are plentiful in the rivers; and there are few countries that offer greater temptations to the followers of honest Izaak Walton.

The soil in many places is thin, rocky, and unfit for cultivation; in others, wet, and inclining to the character of mossy bogs. In the interior, on the borders of the Bras d'Or Lake and its inlets, and along the numerous streams that rise in the mountains and which wind through the country to the sea, there are extensive tracts of excellent land; and, on the north-

\* Mr Haliburton states, that "remains of vast animals are found, which, it would appear, formerly ranged in the vicinity of the Bras d'Or. Enormous bones, resembling thigh-bones, six feet in length, are reported to have been seen lying at the bottom of the lake."

west coast, also in the valleys, and along the small rivers, low lands with deep and rich soils prevail.

The land fit for profitable cultivation on the island may be considered about 500,000 acres, a great part of which is alluvial. The whole of the lands afford good pasturage, and great numbers of black cattle and sheep might be reared. From the humidity of the climate, especially on the Atlantic coast, wheat is liable, in ripening, to casual failures, which would likely not be the case if the country were extensively opened, by clearing away the woods, as cultivation and exposure to the sun would dry up the ground more readily, and early frosts would not be so frequent. Barley, buck-wheat, potatoes, and all culinary vegetables may be raised in abundance; and I believe hemp and flax would succeed here as well as in Russia or Canada.

The climate of Cape Breton differs from that of Prince Edward Island, in its being subject, particularly on the Atlantic coast, to fogs; and, in the inland parts, to a more humid atmosphere, which may be accounted for by its geographical position, and the interior abounding with lakes and arms of the sea; while the soil, owing to its stiffness, does not so readily absorb the rain, nor the water which remains on the ground after the snow melts. Fogs are not, however, frequent in the interior, or within the Bras d'Or, and a clear sky is visible generally, even when fogs prevail, which seldom rise high from the surface of the land or sea.

The bays and rivers which open to the Atlantic,



are not so long frozen over as those within the gulf: the difference at the beginning and termination of winter, may be considered at each period from fifteen to twenty days. On the Atlantic coast of Cape Breton, wet weather prevails much more during the year than in Prince Edward Island or Canada. The climate, however, is salubrious; and, while unhealthy subjects are exceedingly rare, instances of longevity from ninety to one hundred years are common.

It has been said that Cape Breton obtained its name from the first discoverers being natives of Brittany; but this is not true, as it was first discovered by Cabot, and afterwards by Verazani, who named it *Isle du Cap*. The name of Cape Breton it received from its most easterly point, which projects into the sea between Louisburg and Scatari, being first so called, and afterwards extended to the whole island. In 1713, it was called by the French, *Isle Royale*; but it remained unplanted until 1714, when the French of Newfoundland and Acadia made some settlements on it near the shore, where each person built according to his fancy, as he found ground convenient for drying cod-fish, and for small gardens.

In 1715, Louis XIV., after having been long contending with the united powers of Europe, made an offer to Queen Anne of part of the French possessions in North America, in order to detach Great Britain from that formidable alliance; and, by the treaty of Utrecht,\* the British became possessed of Newfoundland, Hudson Bay, and Acadia (Nova Scotia.) In

\* Note A.

short, all France could do was to preserve Canada, the islands of Cape Breton and St John (Prince Edward.)

Cape Breton had, before this time, been considered altogether unfit for making any settlement on. In summer time, it was frequented by a few fishermen; and during winter, the inhabitants of Acadia resorted thither for the purpose of trading for furs with the Indians.

But the French, in order partly to repair the loss they sustained,—as it was of the utmost consequence not to be entirely driven out of the cod-fishing,—and also to preserve a post that would enable them to command the mouth of the River St Lawrence, by which a communication was kept open with Canada, were by such solid considerations induced to colonize Cape Breton, and to build the town and fortify the harbour of Louisburg.

The Seneglay, a French ship-of-war, commanded by M. de Contreville, arrived at Louisburg on the 13th August, 1713, and took possession of it, but it was not fortified until 1720. It was taken by the British forces from New England, in 1745, at which time they built a fort at Indian Bay, where they discovered coal, and opened a pit. The command of these forces, amounting to 4000, was given to William Pepperal,\* a colonel of militia, but brought up to trade, and extensively engaged in commerce. His affability, and the excellence of his character, made him very popular among these volunteer troops.

There was something of the spirit of the crusades

\* Afterwards created a Baronet.

in this expedition. The famous Mr Whitfield supplied them with the motto, "Nil desperandum Christo duce," for their banner; and the military feeling of these forces was probably acted upon as much by fanaticism as by love of country.

Commodore Warren, after some delay, joined the transports from New England; and after a siege of forty-nine days, during which the provincials distinguished themselves by their endurance and bravery, Louisburg surrendered on the 18th of June. Commodore Warren, a few days before, captured the *Vigilant* of 74 guns, commanded by the Marquis de la Maison Forte, with a great supply of stores; and some time after, two French East India ships, and a South Sea ship, valued at L.600,000, were decoyed into Louisburg, by hoisting the French flag in the usual place.

St John's Island fell into the possession of England a little after; and the inhabitants were transported to France. Some English, on that occasion, ventured incautiously into the country, where they were surprised by the Indians, and twenty-eight were either massacred or made prisoners.

The stores, merchandise, fish, &c. taken in Louisburg, were of immense value; and the importance of this place to France, as a rendezvous for its West and East India fleets, and as the head-quarters of their fisheries, was of vast consequence. Privateers were also fitted out here to disturb our fisheries, and to infest our colonial coasts. The Micmac Indians resorted here with the scalps of the English who

became the victims of their cruelty; and although the French pretended to consider them an independent people, they even countenanced, during peace, the aggressions of the savages on the English.

Cape Breton was restored to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in return for Madras, and remained in possession of that power until the surrender of Louisburg, on the 26th July, 1758, to the British forces under the command of General Amherst and Brigadier-Generals Lawrence and Wolfe, and the fleet commanded by Admiral Boscawen.

The French, commanded by M. de Drucourt, defended Louisburg, from the 8th of July until its capitulation, with extraordinary bravery, against a powerful fleet, consisting of twenty-three ships of the line, eighteen frigates, with sloops of war and transports amounting to one hundred and fifty-seven ships, and against 16,000 land forces. On this occasion, Madame de Drucourt behaved with great heroism, appearing daily on the ramparts, animating the soldiers in the unceasing duty which the defence of the place required.

The merchants, and the greater part of the inhabitants of Louisburg, were, after its capture, sent to France in English vessels. But the officers of government, the military and naval officers, soldiers, marines, and sailors, in number 5720, were transported as prisoners of war to England. The stores and ammunition, besides 227 pieces of artillery, found in Louisburg, were of great value.

The following description of the then metropolis

of Cape Breton, was written by a gentleman who was residing in Louisburg during the siege.\* "The French began to fortify this town in 1720. It is built on a neck of land which juts out into the sea south-east of the island. It is of an oblong figure, and nearly a league in circumference. The streets are wide and regular; and near the principal fort and citadel, there is a handsome parade. To the north of the town there are three gates, and a spacious quay. They have likewise constructed a kind of bridges, called in French *calles*, (wharfs,) which project considerably into the sea, and are extremely convenient for loading and unloading goods.

"The fortifications consist of two bastions, called the King's and Queen's, and two demi-bastions, distinguished by the names of Dauphin and Princess. These two out-works are commanded by several eminences. The houses are almost all of wood; the stone ones have been built at the king's expense, and are designed for the accommodation of the troops and officers. When the English were masters of the town, in 1745, they built very considerable caserns. The French transplanted the materials of their stone buildings, as well as their other works, from Europe.

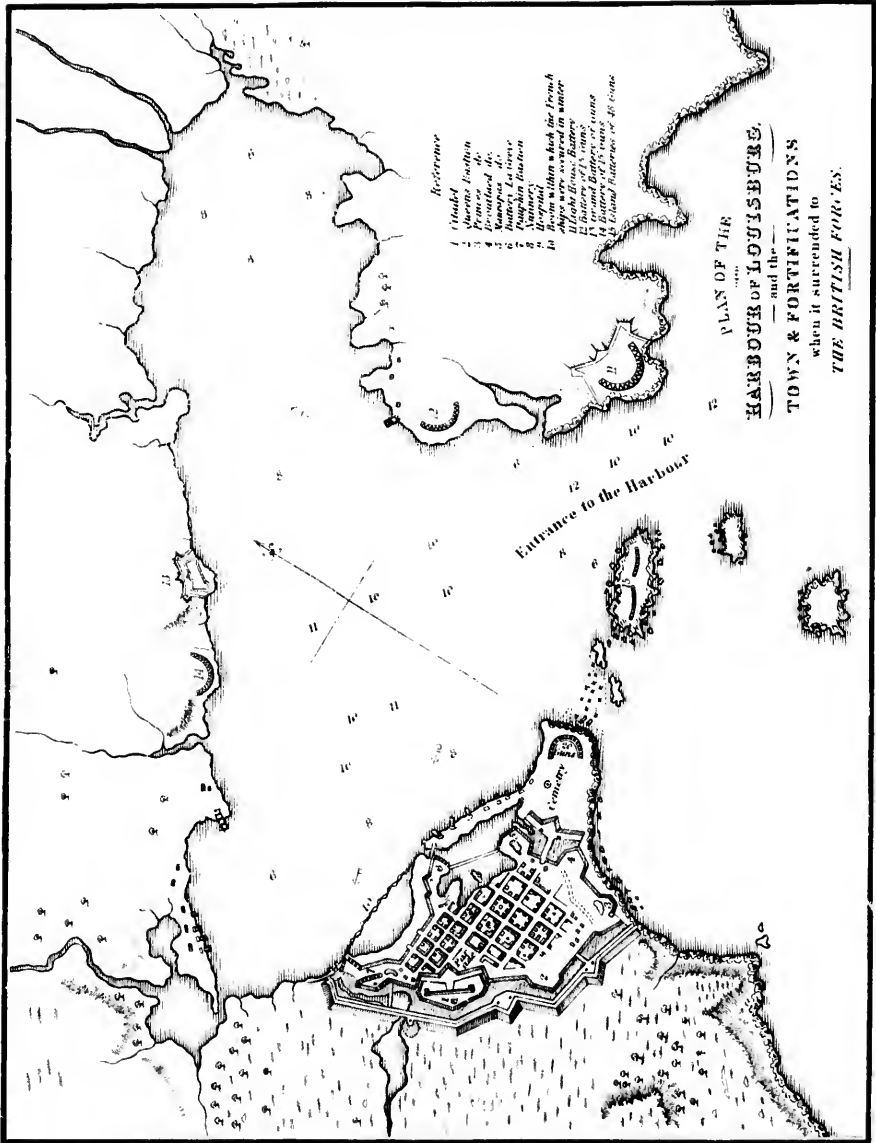
"There is hardly a settlement that has been attended with more expense to the French nation than this of Louisburg. It is certain that they have laid out above thirty millions of livres; and so cogent

\* Genuine Letters and Memoirs relating to the Natural, Civil, and Commercial History of the Islands of Cape Breton and St John, by an impartial Frenchman. English translation. London, 1761.

man who  
\* "The  
D. It is  
to the sea  
g figure,  
e streets  
ipal fort  
To the  
d a spa-  
d a kind  
,) which  
xtremely

s, called  
ons, dis-  
Princess.  
ral emi-  
d; the  
nse, and  
oops and  
of the  
caserns.  
eir stone  
Europe.  
as been  
nation  
ey have  
o cogent

ral, Civil,  
St John,  
on, 1761.



were the motives which induced them to put this scheme into execution, that the preservation of Louisburg will always be considered as an object of too great importance not to sacrifice every thing to it. Cape Breton protects the whole French trade of North America, and is of equal consequence in regard to their commerce in the West Indies. If they had no settlement in this part of North America, their vessels returning from St Domingo or Martinique, would no longer be safe on the great bank of Newfoundland, particularly in time of war; lastly, as it is situated at the entrance of the Gulf of St Lawrence, it absolutely commands the river of that name.

“ The entrance of the harbour of Louisburg is defended by a battery, level with the surface of the water. It is planted opposite the light-house, on the other side of the grande-tene, and consists of thirty-six pieces of cannon, all of them four-and-twenty pounders. The harbour is also defended by a cavalier, called by the name of Maurepas, which has twelve embrasures. The royal battery, situated at the distance of a quarter of a league from the town, is mounted with thirty pieces of cannon, twenty-eight of which are thirty-six pounders, and two are eighteen pounders. It commands the sea, the town, and the bottom of the bay. The port of Louisburg is at least a league in length, and upwards of a quarter of a league in its smallest breadth. There is very good holding-ground, and generally from six to ten fathoms water. They have a very safe and convenient place to careen their ships, where they may also be laid up





in winter, only taking proper precautions against the ice."

The island battery, not mentioned in the above description, commanding the harbour, mounted thirty guns, and some other batteries were also planted before the siege. The town was surrounded, with the exception of about two hundred yards of the sea of most difficult access, by a broad stone rampart, thirty feet high, and a wide ditch. An extensive marshy bog in rear, rendered the approach by land both difficult and dangerous.

The population of Louisburg at this time, exclusive of the troops, was about 5000. The administration was lodged in a governor and supreme council. There was also a bailiwick, or court of law, and a court of admiralty. It had an hospital for invalid soldiers and sailors, "which was served by six brothers of the charitable fraternity, of whose conduct, as well as that of the Recollet friars, and other spiritual directors in Cape Breton, complaints were frequently made by the French inhabitants, and by the English of Nova Scotia, who charged them with the direction of the atrocities committed by the Indians." The nuns of Louisburg called themselves of the community of Quebec; their province was to superintend the education of young girls. There were two handsome churches in the town, one of which was within the citadel; and several other public buildings.

The British government, fearing that Louisburg might again fall into the power of the French, or-

dered the town and fortifications to be demolished, and it has ever since remained in ruins, notwithstanding its excellent harbour, and the extraordinary importance attached at the time to its conquest.

During the period that France held the colony, the inhabitants were chiefly engaged in the fisheries. In this trade were employed near 600 vessels, exclusive of boats, and between 27,000 and 28,000 seamen; and the French ministry considered this fishery a more valuable source of wealth and power to France than the possession of the mines of Mexico and Peru would be. The principal settlements at that time were within the Bras d'Or, at Port Dauphin (St Ann's), Spanish Bay (now Sydney), Port Toulouse (St Peter's), Arichat, Petit de Grat, and River Inhabitants.

Cape Breton, after its conquest, remained neglected by the British; thinking it unworthy of settlement, and only fearful that it might again be taken possession of by France. Twenty years had elapsed, and no progress had been made of any consequence towards colonizing it. A few fishermen, who planted themselves at some of the harbours, and whose existence was scarcely known, formed its only inhabitants. During this time, it was an appendage to the Government of Nova Scotia.

Soon after the peace which followed the American revolutionary war, Cape Breton was made a distinct government from Nova Scotia, and its administration vested in Lieutenant Governor Desbarres, and an executive council. Sydney was laid out and built for

the metropolis of the island; in which place the lieutenant-governor resided, the courts of law were held, and a garrison was stationed under the command of a captain or subaltern officer. With the exception of Governor Desbarres, who founded Sydney, the different rulers were said to consider it wiser policy to make their power more subservient to their own particular views, than to the improvement and settlement of the colony, which prevented its prosperity during their administration; and it has, subsequent to the appointment of Lieutenant-General Sir James Kempt, in 1820, to the government of Nova Scotia, been re-annexed, as a county sending two members to represent it in general assembly, to that province.

General Kempt, previous to his promotion to the chief command in America, directed much of his attention to the improvement of Cape Breton. Roads have been traced, or opened, to facilitate the intercourse between the settlements; the location of lands placed under regulations which give ready possession to new settlers; and all that could be effected by the provincial government, has been extended to this island. Its settlement by the English could scarcely be said to have commenced until after the American revolution, when several families of loyalists removed to Cape Breton. Emigration from the Highlands and islands of Scotland, which commenced in 1800, has continued from that period to add some hundreds annually to the population.

Cape Breton is still, however, much less improved,

and has a smaller population, in proportion to its superficies, with the exception of Newfoundland and Labrador, than any of the British North American colonies. When the mighty importance attached to it by France, the abundant fisheries on its coasts, its numerous harbours, and its producing plenty of wood for building vessels and boats, and also a soil capable of producing grain, vegetables, and excellent grazing, together with its coal mines, are taken into consideration, it appears difficult to account for this colony having been so long neglected, while the attention of government has been directed to the colonization of countries so distant as the Cape of Good Hope, and Van Dieman's Land, except by supposing that the advantages and resources of British America have been imperfectly understood, not only by government, but by individuals desirous to emigrate.

## CHAPTER II.

Description of Sydney and other Principal Settlements, &c. &c.

SYDNEY, which is considered the metropolis, or county town, of Cape Breton, was founded by Governor Desbarres in 1823. It is situated a few miles south of the entrance to Bras d'Or, on a point of land lying between a small river which branches to the south, and the larger continuation of Dartmouth river; and about two miles above the junction of the latter river with the west arm of Sydney, or Spanish Bay. It was, previously to the re-annexion of Cape Breton to Nova Scotia, the residence of the lieutenant-governors. Its situation is very beautiful, having a steep bank, with deep water on the west, from which the site of the town descends gently to the east. The surrounding scenery, presenting woods, water, cultivated land, and some other picturesque features, is interesting and pretty, but not romantic; the town is regularly planned, contains from sixty to seventy houses, rather handsomely built, with gardens attached, and a population of about five hundred.

The government buildings are the barracks, stores, and government-house, at the north end of the town.

There is a court-house, market, church, a Dissenting and Catholic chapel. The courts for the county and district are held at Sydney; causes are decided according to the laws of England, and the provincial statutes of Nova Scotia. A captain or subaltern officer, with a detachment of from thirty to forty soldiers, are stationed here for protecting the town.

The harbour of Sydney has a bar at its entrance, but there is sufficiently deep water over it for large ships, and there is abundant room and good anchorage at Dartmouth river on the west side of the town, and at the West Arm.

Few places have improved or prospered less than Sydney since it was first built, although it possesses many advantages. It is conveniently situated for the fisheries, and the adjacent lands are adapted for agriculture and grazing. Timber, suitable for building houses and fishing-craft, is abundant; and the coal mines in its immediate neighbourhood are another eminent advantage. It is probably not the most judiciously situated for the chief town in the colony; and in consequence of the island being now under the government of Nova Scotia, Arichat will continue to be, as it now is, the most flourishing settlement.

The coal trade has been the chief business carried on from Sydney; the mines, however, on the north side of the bay, and without the bar, are very inconvenient for shipping; and the mode of drawing them from the mines, and conveying them on shipboard, has hitherto been tedious and awkward. Proper

machinery will, no doubt, be immediately used, and some safe plan to protect the vessels from the sea, adopted by the "Albion Mining Company," who now possess the mines, and who have also opened a coal mine at Lingan Bay, some miles to the southward.

The inhabitants around Sydney Bay and rivers are Scotch emigrants, some Irish, disbanded soldiers, and families of American loyalists. At the West Arm there is a settlement of Acadian French.

The coast from Sydney to Louisburg presents abrupt cliffs, low beaches, bays, rivers, and a few islands. The principal places are, Lingan Bay, which is scarcely more than a boat harbour, but the lands are good, and settled principally by Irish; Glace Bay, which has also a few Irish inhabitants; and Cow Bay, at which there are a few families of loyalists.

Coal is very abundant along the whole of this coast; and a precipitous cliff, intersected by a thick stratum of that mineral, presents its transformation in many places into cinders, by a fire that continued burning for some years. This story has crept into some of our late geographical works, with the augmentation of the fire not having been extinguished since the English took Louisburg in 1745.

Mirè Bay and River intersect the island for about thirty miles. This bay has only a harbour for very small vessels. For a boat, or shore fishery, it is very convenient. The adjoining lands are not generally adapted for agriculture, but afford excellent

pasturage. An injudicious grant of 100,000 acres of land, has prevented the settlement of the country bordering on this beautiful river; and the population consists only of a few families of American loyalists.

Scatari Island, a point for which vessels bound from Britain to North America have usually shaped their course, lies a few miles south-east of Mirè Bay. It is triangular in shape; its sides about five miles long; and its soil barren, but well calculated for an extensive fishery. It is not inhabited, at least not permanently. Within Scataris Main à Dieu or Minadon Harbour, at which there is a settlement of industrious fishermen, who, after the cod fishery is over, employ themselves with their vessels in carrying coals from Sydney to Halifax, &c.

Louisburg has been, ever since its demolition, a place so truly insignificant, that it might be passed over by merely observing that its harbour is safe and spacious; and that it is most conveniently situated on the south side of the island for the fisheries, and a port of rendezvous for a naval squadron.

But it has assumed, and maintains, a classic position in history, that requires more than ordinary notice.

The harbour of Louisburg is in latitude  $45^{\circ} 54'$  N., and longitude  $59^{\circ} 52'$  W. Its entrance, a little more than a quarter of a mile in width, leads between some small rocky islets, and a bold point on the north-east side, on which stand the ruins of the French light-house, and the foundations of two bat-



teries. A delusive entrance presents itself from the sea between the islands and the western point on which Louisburg stood ; but a rocky ledge, covered with a few feet of water, extends across it, and renders the passage impracticable, while it also defends the harbour most completely against the heavy rolling sea of the Atlantic.

Within, a capacious basin, nearly three miles in length, and about a mile in width, with excellent holding ground, forms one of the best harbours in the world.

A few rivulets run into the harbour, which afford fresh water ; and a beach and some other parts are well adapted for the landing and drying of fish. The surrounding lands are bleak, rugged, and barren, and only a few slight traces remain of what was cultivated by the French. A few dwarfish firs, birches, shrubs, moss, and grass, appear growing among the rocks, and greater fertility is only met with some miles back in the country. In fact, Louisburg has no natural advantage but its fine harbour, its watering-places, and its convenient position for the rendezvous of a navy, and for the fisheries.

The ruins of Louisburg repose on a point of land projecting from the western coast ; against one side of which the roaring surges of the ocean roll and foam, while the other is laved by the calm waters of the harbour ; on both shores, the land, near the sea, is low, and rises gently to the site formerly occupied by the citadel. Stretching across this point, separating the area of Louisburg from a small pond and

morass that lie between it and the rocky hills, we discover the walls, sloping glacis, and ruined bastions.

These are, in most places, covered with a turf of grass and moss; and the wide broken gaps, which were blown open by gunpowder, remind us of the destruction of these regular and formidable works of defence. The remains of all the batteries, and the foundations of many of the public buildings, the stockades, and, in calm weather, the sunken ships of war, are still to be seen.

The strong and capacious magazines, in which were once deposited vast stores of military combustibles, are still nearly entire, but almost hidden by the accumulation of earth and turf. They afford, at the same time, warm and safe shelter for the flocks of sheep that now feed on the site of Louisburg, and whose tracks lead us to the entrance of these casements.

Between the site of a battery on the extreme point, and a pond in front of the ruins of Maurepas bastion, may be traced the burying-ground; in which repose the ashes of many a courageous and distinguished French officer, mingled with those of the brave troops and sailors who fell in defending Louisburg against two formidable sieges. Here also have been laid the remains of the priest, friar, and civilian, together with those of the pious nun, fashionable lady, and the humble wife of the fisherman.

On treading over the grounds of Louisburg, that mind must be indeed cold, and little to be envied, which does not feel the full force of the observations

of Doctor Johnson when surveying the ruins of Iona. We observe in Louisburg the desolation which destiny entailed on the splendid cities of the ancient world. All is silent, excepting the reverberation of the sea, as the waves roll in along the beach, or the bleating of the scattered sheep, as they gather towards their resting abodes, when the solitude of evening approaches.

A few huts, the habitations of poor unambitious fishermen, form only a melancholy contrast to the superb edifices, scientific fortifications, naval grandeur, military pomp, and commercial activity of which Louisburg was once the splendid theatre.

From Louisburg to St Peter's, the coast of Cape Breton is naked and rocky, and the soil only in a few places fit for cultivation, until we arrive at St Esprit, where the country assumes a more fertile appearance. Gabarus Bay, at which there are a few families of American loyalists, subsisting by fishing, and cultivating some small spots of ground, and three other small harbours, where a few fishermen reside, are the only settlements that intervene.

At St Esprit and Grand River, the inhabitants are Scottish emigrants. Settlements are also forming on the fertile lands around the lakes that discharge into Grand River. There is at Ardoise, between Cape Hinchinbrooke and St Peter's, a settlement of Acadian French, who follow the cod and herring fisheries.

St Peter's Bay, and the whole course of Lennox passage to the Gut of Canseau, exhibits broken indented shores, innumerable coves, harbours, and

islands. The population of these places consists chiefly of Acadian French, who follow the fisheries, and cultivate also small patches of land.

St Peter's Bay and settlement are situated to the east of Lemnox Passage. The French called this place Port Toulouse; and to it the Indians of Acadia and Cape Breton brought their furs to exchange for European commodities. The distance across the isthmus, between the head of this bay and the Bras d'Or Lake, is about 900 yards. It was surveyed, under the direction of government, by Mr Hall, a civil engineer, from whose report it appears that there would be little difficulty in opening a canal communication between all parts of the Bras d'Or and the Atlantic, through this neck of land.—The estimated expense is L.17,150.

Numberless advantages to Cape Breton would result from the completion of such an undertaking; and St Peter's would then become the focus of intercourse with all parts of the island.

People going and coming between different places within Bras d'Or, and Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, frequently haul their boats with horses or oxen across this portage; and the Indians carry their bark canoes over it on their heads.

At the head of Grand Anse harbour, which branches off from Lemnox Passage, there is a Scotch settlement, the inhabitants of which follow agricultural pursuits, and the lands are considered of good quality.

Rivière des Habitans, or, as we now call it, River

Inhabitants, along the banks of which there were extensively cultivated farms when Cape Breton was taken, falls into a bay of the same name at the northern end of Lennox Passage. The lands on each side of this river are fertile, and have been settled for many years. The interior lands are also excellent, and covered with luxuriant woods.

Arichat is situated on the south side of Madame Island, which is divided by Lennox Passage from Cape Breton. It lies near the south entrance of the Gut of Canseau, opposite Cranberry Island, on which there is a light-house. Its harbour is safely sheltered, and has a sufficient depth of water for the largest ships. The population of this place is increasing fast; the present number of inhabitants may be estimated at two thousand, consisting principally of Acadian French, who are engaged in the fisheries and coasting trade.

It is a port of entry under that of Halifax, and must be considered the most important and thriving place in Cape Breton. The town, or rather long village, with its chapels, court-house, dwelling-houses, stores, wharfs, and fishing-craft, has a pleasing, industrious, and trading appearance. The fishery is here conducted to an important extent; and several cargoes of dry cod and pickled fish are annually exported to Spain, Portugal, to the countries within the Mediterranean, to the West Indies, and to Halifax. The mercantile houses who support this fishery, are, with two or three exceptions, managed by people from Guernsey or Jersey.

The island of Madame is about sixteen miles long, and from six to eight broad. Its soil is thin and rocky, yet the inhabitants derive essential advantage from what it produces. There are several small harbours, besides Arichat, along its shores, which afford shelter and convenience to the fishing vessels. A road crosses this island from Arichat to Grand Digne, at which place there is a ferry, less than a mile over, to the mainland, from roads communicating with St Peter's, Bras d'Or, and River Inhabitants.

The Gut of Canseau, generally spelt Canso, and called by the French the Strait of Fronsac, is a narrow strait which detaches Cape Breton from the continent of America. The passage from the Atlantic to its southern entrance, leads, between Cape Canseau and Green Island, across Chedabucto Bay. Its length from Sandy Point to Cape Jack is about twenty-one miles, and its breadth about a mile. There are several coves and places within it, where ships may anchor with safety, and be sheltered from all winds: of these, Ship Harbour is the best.

The features of the scenery, on each side of this extraordinary strait, are unusually grand and mountainous, and stretch and rise to the utmost extent of romantic boldness. As it is considered the most convenient, as well as safest passage to and from the Gulf of St Lawrence, ships, brigs, and a variety of small vessels, under sail, mingle incessantly, during summer and autumn, with the wildness of its picturesque sublimity. The mountains are covered with trees to their summits; rocks jut out from the banks;

habitations are scattered near the shores on each side, where the lands have also been partially cleared and cultivated. At Ship Harbour, and near Plaster Paris Cove, are two or three fishing plantations, or depôts for salt, fishing-tackle, &c., and stores for receiving dry and pickled fish.

The tides in this strait are so irregular as to baffle all calculation; and, apparently governed by the winds, flow several days in one direction.

The Gut of Canseau possesses eminent advantages for a rallying point of communication with all parts of America. Vessels from Quebec, and all places within the Gulf of St Lawrence, pass frequently through this strait, on their passage to and from the West Indies, and to and from different parts of North and South America. Ships sailing from Europe for the lower ports in the Gulf, generally prefer the passage of Canseau; and through it many of the United States' vessels engaged in the fisheries, and those that now go for the coals of the Albion mines to Pictou, enter and return. A good carriage road might also, at the usual expense, be made from the Nova Scotia side of the Gut to Truro, at the head of the Bay of Fundy; from whence roads diverge to Halifax, Pictou, and New Brunswick, which may from the last place be continued to Canada. Lastly, the Gut of Canseau is of safe access, and may be approached generally without the apprehension of danger.

The coast of Cape Breton, from the Strait of Canseau to Port Hood, is as densely settled as any part of the island. The houses and farms of the inha-

bitants, are observed from the sea, ascending, in detached openings made in the forest, over each other, to the tops of the hills and mountains. The settlers that line the coast to Marguerite, or Salmon River, are, with the exception of a few families, the descendants of loyalists, all Scotch Highlanders, or rather islanders, of the poorer sort, who have secured the means of existence, but who seem indifferent about greater comfort or affluence.

Port Hood, or Justau-Corp Harbour, lies eighteen miles north of the Gut of Canseau, and is formed by an island, and a jutting point of land, which shelter it from all winds. This place is well situated for fishing; and the lands in its neighbourhood are tolerably good, particularly for pasturage.

The harbour is safe, capacious, and admits large ships. The inhabitants employ themselves in agricultural pursuits occasionally, by catching herring and cod; and dog-fish, which are very plentiful, for the oil of their livers. They also send several schooners annually with cattle to the Newfoundland market. Since the time that Cape Breton was divided into districts, the court for the western district has been held at this place. There is a tolerable road from Port Hood to a branch of the Bras d'Or, another along the coast to the Gut of Canseau, and a path, rather than a road, leads to Marguerite.

Mabau River, about six miles from Port Hood, has a harbour for shallops; and the lands abutting on this river are fertile, and settled by Scotch and American loyalists.



From Cape Mabau, which is an abrupt and mountainous headland, to Marguerite, the coast assumes the form of a bold mountainous amphitheatre, called by the inhabitants Broad Cove, into which several small streams run. This part of the country is rather populously settled ; and the lands, particularly the interval of Broad Cove, are considered fertile.

Marguerite River is settled, along its banks, by Acadian French, who might live most comfortably, by applying their labour solely to the cultivation of the beautiful fertile lands that extend along this fine stream, and to the raising of cattle ; but they cannot, it would seem, resist the infatuated propensity of the Acadians for fishing, and making coasting voyages with their shallops. Salmon are usually plentiful at Marguerite, and from this circumstance it is frequently called Salmon River.

Cheticamp Harbour is seventeen miles to the northward of Marguerite. The intermediate coast is settled by Acadians. This harbour admits schooners only ; and a fishing, carried on by Jersey merchants, has been for many years established in this place. The inhabitants are also Acadian French.

Along the iron-bound, precipitous, and dreadful coast which extends from Cheticamp to the North Cape, there are only six or eight families settled. This is a terrible shore to approach ; and as many vessels, in proportion to the number passing, have been wrecked along its precipitous cliffs, with the destruction, except in very few instances, of all on board, as on any coast in the world. The lands, however, at a little

distance from the sea, among the valleys, and along some streams, indicate great fertility.

Between Cape Lawrence and Cape North, there is a bay eight miles wide; and although it does not seem a mile in depth, from the sea, it is in reality about three miles deep.

Aspè Bay lies between Cape North and Cape Egmont, on the Atlantic coast. It has only a harbour for boats, but it has a remarkably fine beach;\* and the inhabitants, who are settled round the lagoons formed within the beach, employ themselves in the pursuits of farming and fishing. The soil of the lands, particularly at some distance back from the shores, is rich and fertile; but being under the influence of the bank fogs, the success of wheat crops is very uncertain. Near Cape Enfumè, at Nigonish, or Ingoniche, there is a settlement of fishermen.

Cape Enfumè (Smoky Cape) is the highest headland in Cape Breton. Its elevation is not known; and on passing it twice, I had not the means of ascertaining its altitude; but, from comparison, its summit appeared to me about 1800 feet above the level of the sea, and higher than any mountain that is seen from the sea in the British colonies.

Twenty miles to the southward lie St Anne's Bay

\* Mr Haliburton of Nova Scotia states, that "the sand" of this beach, "in some places, is found black, glittering, and weighty. It instantly arranges its particles in beautiful order upon the magnet, and appears to be iron, nearly pure. Coins, to a large amount, are thrown up from the ocean, the remains of some vessel with specie foundered here."

and Harbour, which are separated from the principal entrance to Bras d'Or, by the high peninsula of Cape Dauphin. This bay is ten miles deep, to the narrows, which lead to a safe and capacious harbour, eight miles in extreme length, and three in its most extreme breadth, but not more than one in some places. It has excellent anchorage, water sufficiently deep for the largest ships, and the high lands which surround the harbour and its narrow entrance, protect it from all winds. This place, formerly called Port Dauphin, was first chosen by France in preference to Louisburg; but in consequence of the latter opening immediately to the ocean, it was fixed upon, and the former abandoned. The beauty of St Anne's Harbour, branching into two principal arms, and several coves and creeks, and the bold, yet fertile features of its scenery, must be admired by all who visit the place. It remained, after the conquest of Cape Breton, long unsettled. A few families planted themselves on the south side, near the entrance, more than twenty years ago; and within the last twelve years, the lands abutting on the harbour and rivers have all been granted to Scotch emigrants, who have made greater improvements than any settlers on the island.

Bras d'Or (Golden Arm) inlet enters Cape Breton a few miles north of Sydney, and penetrates the island for about fifty miles. It branches, in its course, into numerous bays, rivers, and creeks, also lays open to maritime intercourse the most valuable lands in the colony. It has two entrances, termed Great and Little Bras d'Or. The former, leading between Cape

Dauphin and Boulardrie Island, is deep, and safely navigated by the largest ships. The latter, entering on the south side of the same island, is rendered impassable, except to small vessels, by a dangerous bar.

Boulardrie Island, called after a French nobleman of that name, is about twenty miles in length, and from one to two in breadth; and, lying longitudinally between these entrances, protracts them into straits of the same extent. That of Great Bras d'Or, or the main entrance, is faced on the north-west by high lands, presenting cliffs and rocks, chiefly of gypsum, which frown wildly over its waters. The passage of Little Bras d'Or, to the south-west, is, for the first seven miles from the Atlantic, narrow, crooked, and of barren aspect. It then widens to more than double the breadth of the other strait, until both meet at the western end of Boulardrie, where they unite with Petit Bras d'Or.

Boulardrie Island is rather populously inhabited by Scotch Highlanders and numbers of Irish fishermen, who were formerly employed at Newfoundland, and who now carry on a boat fishing near the great entrance.

From Petit Bras d'Or Lake, Bedeque Inlet parts off to the west, and passing through St Patrick's channel, branches into several creeks and coves, and then, contracting to a narrow strait, opens again into a capacious sheet of water, nearly twenty miles long, and from one to three broad, with scenery beautifully diversified by irregular coves, jutting points, and an undulated country. This branch still retains the Indian

name Whycomah. The inhabitants are principally Scotch islanders, settled along the shores, and not in the most thriving condition, although nothing but the proper application of their labour is necessary to secure them independence and comparative affluence. Several cargoes of timber have been exported from Whycomah.

The shores of Petit Bras d'Or are settled, but most populous on the south side, by emigrants from the Hebrides.

The narrow passage which connects Petit Bras d'Or and Le Bras d'Or, has been named the Strait of Barra, from the circumstance of the inhabitants settled in its vicinity, or their fathers, having emigrated from the island of Barra, one of the Hebrides.

Le Bras d'Or, or, as it is usually called, Great Bras d'Or Lake, opens suddenly to a great width, and afterwards branches into four large arms. It is about twenty miles in extreme length, and fifteen in breadth.

The east arm, or St Andrew's, bends off a few miles to the south-east of Barra Strait, and extends in a north-easterly direction about twenty miles, from Benakaady to Tweed Porge basin at its head. Its shores are indented with coves and creeks. On the north shore, at the harbour of Escasoni, which lies within a cluster of islands, there is a tract of land occupied by the Micmac Indians, some of whom are stationary, cultivate the ground, and possess some cattle. All the other lands fronting on this arm, are occupied by Scotch Highlanders. Opposite a headland, which forms the extremity of the south shore

of St Andrew's Bay, are the Red Islands, from which the south branch, or arm, formed into various channels by the islands it contains, extends about twelve miles, until arrested by the narrow isthmus which separates it from the waters of St Peter's Bay.

St George's Channel, or the west arm, lies a few miles farther west. It is about six miles broad, and fifteen miles deep from the inlets bearing the Indian name Malaga-waacht. This bay contains several islands; its shores are thinly settled, principally by Scotch islanders. The lands on the north side are high, and form a mountainous ridge, which separates this bay from the inlet of River Denys.

This last branch breaks off abruptly from the north shore of Barra Strait, and forms, first, a broad bay, then contracts, and winds through intricate passages among islands for some miles, and opens again into a basin, along which there are several inlets, and at its head receives the waters of a beautiful winding river. The inhabitants are principally emigrants from the Hebrides. Both the soil and timber of the lands fronting on this inlet are excellent.

The waters of the Bras d'Or are in many places forty fathoms, and in some places sixty fathoms deep, and afford many capacious safe harbours. It abounds with cod, which are caught at all seasons, (in the winter, through a hole cut in the ice,) besides various other kinds of fish.

The scenery of this vast inlet is in some places beautifully picturesque, and in some others, monotonous and uninteresting, but in many parts, of a

sublime character, which exhibits the sombre gloom of pine forests, the luxuriant verdure of broad valleys and wooded mountains, and the wild features of lofty promontories frowning in stubborn ruggedness over the waters of the rivers and inlets.

Innumerable, but generally very small lakes, and a multiplicity of streams of fresh water, are met with in the interior, but chiefly in the southern divisions of the island.

Marguerite, or Ainslie Lake, is the largest sheet of fresh water in Cape Breton. It is only, however, about twelve miles long, and from three to four in breadth. The lands surrounding it indicate fertility; and their cultivation by Scotch Highlanders has lately commenced. A stream runs from it, which forms Marguerite River.

The roads of Cape Breton are still few in number, and in bad condition. Roads lead from Sydney to Lingan, Cow Bay, Mirè River, Manadon, Louisburg, the Coal Mines, Boulardrie Ferry, Barra Strait, and St Peter's; from Great Bras d'Or, again, to St Ann's, Bedeque, and from thence to Marguerite. Arichat communicates by the ferry across Lennox Strait, and by roads, with St Peter's and Sydney, with the Bras d'Or, River Inhabitants, and the Gut of Canseau, from which there is a road along the Gulf coast as far as Cheticamp.

Broad Cove communicates with Lake Marguerite by a road; and roads lead between Port Hood and Whycomah and River Denys.

Most of these roads are little better than paths,

while some of them are scarcely more than blazed through, with fallen trees cut away; but a rapidly increasing population will soon provide the labour, and judicious measures will only be necessary to make good roads between all the settlements.

re gloom  
road val-  
tures of  
ggedness

kes, and  
met with  
divisions

c sheet of  
er, about  
breadth.  
and their  
ely com-  
ms Mar-

number,  
ydney to  
ouisburg,  
rait, and  
St Ann's,  
Arichat  
trait, and  
the Bras  
eau, from  
as far as

arguerite  
ood and

n paths,



## CHAPTER III.

Population—Characteristics and Pursuits of the Inhabitants—Agriculture, Trade, &c.

THE population of Cape Breton, estimated at from 25,000 to 30,000, consists of people from various countries, and those born on the island.

Scotch, from the Western Highlands and isles of Scotland, form the greater proportion of the inhabitants, and are found in settlements within the Bras d'Or, along the shores of the Gut of Canseau and the coast, to the harbour of Justua Corps, at Cape Mabou, and on the Atlantic shore at St Esprit. Several families, the descendants of American loyalists, are settled in different places, and form an industrious class of the inhabitants. Numbers of Irish, who, in the first instance, generally emigrated to Newfoundland, are scattered among the settlers; and a few English, Jerseymen, and Dutch, are mixed with the other inhabitants.

Acadian French are, next to the Scotch, the most numerous class; and their settlements are chiefly at Arichat, Petit de Grat, Ardoise, Little Bras d'Or, Marguerite, and Cheticamp. About 300 Micmac Indians wander through the woods and along the shores. They have six reservations of land in different parts

of the island, but they do not hold the same by any tenure but that of possession and sufferance. These tracts are at Escasoni, Chapel Island,\* River Denys, Wagama-takook, Whycocomah, within the Bras d'Or, and at Marguerite. One or more of these places are their rallying points, where they meet during summer, and where some families remain stationary. These possess some cattle, and cultivate a little Indian corn, and a few potatoes.

From the badness and want of roads, and the consequent difficulty of travelling, that intercourse which is so common in Canada, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island, between the inhabitants of one settlement and another, does not exist in Cape Breton; nor is there yet the same facility of having children instructed in the rudiments of education, while society is also in a more simple state than in any of the other colonies. There is scarcely a good school in the colony, if one or two at Sydney and Arichat be not exceptions. It is complained of by the inhabitants, that no provision is made by the colonial legislature for establishing good schools, although the present condition of the island warrants the same.

The inhabitants, especially the Acadians, and Scotch and Irish Catholics, adhere to the tenets of

\* On this island they have a chapel and burying-ground. They received a present of some red paint for the former, I believe from the provincial government; but the colour, which, in most cases, the Indians admire, did not please in this instance; their objection, as they expressed it in English, was, "Because certain make chapel look all same as one store;" warehouses in America being usually painted with red ochre and oil.

the faith which has descended to them from their forefathers, and have the service of their church performed in almost all the settlements, by priests educated in Canada. There can scarcely be said to be any stationary clergymen of other persuasions, except at Sydney ; and lately a Presbyterian pastor was fixed at St Ann's, among the orderly and industrious people settled there. Presbyterian, and, more commonly, Methodist preachers, go occasionally among the inhabitants, to preach and baptize.

The colony, being now, however, a component part of the province of Nova Scotia, begins already to feel the advantage of the connexion. It is probable the benefits of instruction may, in a few years, be received in every part of the island. Travelling by land through the country will also, in a short period, be rendered less difficult. As the country becomes more populously settled, the inhabitants will improve in their mode of husbandry, gradually change their habits of living, become more industrious, and feel a pride in having their houses neatly built, as well as comfortably furnished ; neither of which is at present generally the case, although it is well ascertained that nothing but industry and good management is required to enable them to obtain all the necessaries and conveniences of life.

The Scotch Highlanders and islanders, who form the majority of the population, are not mixed with settlers by whose example they might be stimulated to exertion, and from whom they might learn a better system of agriculture and domestic management.

Contented to exist as their progenitors did, they seem careless about living in a more comfortable, cleanly, and respectable style. It is, however, satisfactory and pleasing to know, that neither beggary, nor the want of necessary food and clothing, can be discovered on the island.\*

With few exceptions, the general characteristics of the people are honesty and hospitality; but many of the inhabitants about the Gut of Canseau, and a few in the vicinity of the North Cape, are considered as infamous characters as any who exist unpunished. These were probably the most worthless people in the countries from whence they came; and, living in this colony, until the last few years, almost without the limits of justice, their principles have not likely undergone a favourable change.

Agriculture, generally speaking, is in a most slovenly and barbarous condition. The inhabitants, it is true, within the Bras d'Or, and at a few places along the gulf shore, subsist principally by cultivating the soil, and rearing cattle and sheep; but wherever there are harbours for fishing or exporting timber, the farmers soon acquire the propensity, so common in America, of dabbling in pursuits unconnected with agriculture, such as fishing, hewing timber, building schooners, &c.

The Acadian French leave the cultivation of the soil, in a great measure, to the management of their wives, daughters, and younger sons. The quality of the soil in most places where they are settled, except at

\* Note B.

Marguerite and Cheticamp, justifies the pursuits of men who follow fishing, or employ themselves in carrying freights coastwise in their schooners and shallops. These vessels are built more for the purpose of sailing fast than for carrying large cargoes; they are slightly constructed, little iron being used for the fastenings, nor do they consider one-fourth part of the cordage necessary that is required in vessels of the same size rigged in England. They have only three sails, frequently but one cable, and nothing in the shape of spare rope or sails, in case of accidents; notwithstanding which, they are often out in heavy gales, in which they make, according to the sailors' phrase, "good weather of it;" and they are scarcely ever shipwrecked.

The fisheries have long formed the chief source from which the inhabitants have obtained the means of subsistence, as well as the most valuable branch of commercial importance. The Acadians are those chiefly employed; they fish in their shallops and boats. Herrings and mackerel, a portion of which they pickle, constitute a great share of their catch; but the quantity so cured is uncertain, a great part being taken away by the traders, and much carried to Halifax, a small portion of which is only considered to be entered at the custom-house at Cape Breton.

This trade could be carried on to any extent, if the merchants could meet the Americans and French on equal terms at foreign markets. The position of Cape Breton is equal to that of Newfoundland for the cod, and particularly for the herring and mackerel fish-

eries ; but the business at this place has never been conducted on the systematic plan, which long-established usage has made peculiar to the latter colony.

From fifteen to twenty cargoes of timber have been annually exported for some years, from Sydney, and from harbours within the Bras d'Or, to England. The ships that took out emigrants, brought back cargoes of timber. Some vessels have also been built on the island, but the present low value of shipping will arrest the further progress of this business. Plaster of Paris, or gypsum, was, for many years, exported from the Gut of Canseau to the United States of America; but the Americans are now supplied with that article from the Bay of Fundy. Live cattle, butter, cheese, potatoes, and oats, have become articles of export, for some time past, to Halifax and Newfoundland. Coal has also been an article of export to the neighbouring colonies for some years.

The vessels belonging to Cape Breton, about 150 in all, are principally shallops and schooners from 30 to 80 tons, and a few vessels that register from 100 to 200 tons. The shallops and schooners are chiefly the property of the Acadian French, who also own probably more than half the fishing boats. The number of the latter may be estimated at 600, exclusive of those used for the double purpose of fishing and passage boats, by the Highland Scotch.

If Louisburg had not been demolished, it is very probable that Cape Breton would at this time have been a populous and flourishing colony. To the leveling of that town and fortress may justly be attributed

the oblivion which has so long enveloped this valuable and important island.

To Great Britain, its possession is of the utmost consequence. The naval power of France, it is well known, began to decline from the time they were driven out of the North American fisheries by the conquest of Louisburg; and the Americans of the United States would consider Cape Breton a boon more valuable to them, as a nation, than any of our West India islands. Did they but once obtain it as a fishing station, and as a position to command the surrounding seas and coasts, their navy would, I fear, in a few years, have sufficient physical strength to cope with any power in Europe, not even excepting England. Let not the British nation, therefore, lose sight of this colony. It is capable of supporting from one to three hundred thousand. If it were once populously settled, the inhabitants would adhere steadily to certain regular pursuits. The farmers would follow agriculture alone, and the fishermen would, at the same time, find it advantageous to persevere in fishing, as the pursuit in which, by habit and experience, they had acquired the most perfect knowledge. Particular care should, however, be taken to render the inhabitants readily effective as a militia, to defend the colony in the event of its being attacked. The farmers would then be prepared to defend their own property, which is probably the cause for which a militia will most bravely fight. The fishermen may at all times, from the hazardous business they follow, be considered hardy and dauntless seamen.

## CHAPTER IV.

Description of St Paul's Island, and of the Isle of Sable.

THE extent and surface of St Paul's Island, or rather rock, for it is little more, would be undeserving of notice, were it not the passive sullen cause of probably more serious disasters than any spot of the same size on the face of the globe. It rises, black and steep, out of the principal entrance to the Gulf of St Lawrence, in a direct line between Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, and the north cape of Cape Breton, about ten miles distant from the latter. Its length is about a mile and a half, its breadth less than half a mile, and its height nearly 100 yards above the level of the sea, appearing with three hills. The water is very deep close to the rocks ; and it has a steep beechy cove on the north-west, where a boat may sometimes land, and also a cove on the north-east side. Some small spots of a mossy kind, between the rocks, retain water, which oozes again through the crevices of the rocks, and in some places forms small rivulets. As there is tolerable anchorage on both sides of the island, those who are acquainted frequently run under the lee of it for shelter. This was practised by the American privateers during the last war. The situation of this island is what renders it so danger-



ous. When fogs prevail in the spring, and tempestuous long dark nights in the fall, many fine ships that we know of, and many more that we never heard of, otherwise than by the remnants of their wrecks, have, with their crews, perished on this inhospitable rock. So frequent have shipwrecks been upon this island, that the fishermen of Cheticamp resort to it every spring for the purpose of collecting whatever may be found. The dangerous coast of Cape Breton, between Cape North and Cheticamp, having long been fatal to numberless ships and their crews, many leaving Quebec, and all parts within the gulf, in the fall, from the dread of striking the cliffs of that shore, and keeping too far off, have dashed against St Paul's. Eight or nine large ships, with their crews, have perished on it during the last six or seven years. A few years ago, a transport, with two hundred lives, perished. Many of the bodies, men, women, and children, floated ashore along the coast of Cape Breton.

Among the rocks in the water, and on the surface of the island, human bones are thickly scattered. Not less than fourteen large anchors have very lately been counted lying at the bottom of the sea. This number must be small in proportion to those imbedded in the sand, or otherwise hid from sight. A good light-house, provided with a great gun, to be used in thick weather, might have prevented most of these wrecks, and saved the lives of the crews and passengers.\*

\* There is scarcely a more melancholy catastrophe than that of the ship *Jessie*, which occurred in 1823. This vessel, with Mr

The legislature of Canada have this year agreed, in conjunction with the other colonies, to erect a lighthouse on this dread spot, which will, doubtless, be the cause of saving thousands of lives, besides a vast amount of property.

The Isle of Sable, long terrible, and often fatal to

Donald Mackay, the owner, and some other passengers, and the master and crew, twenty-six in number, left the harbour of Three Rivers, in Prince Edward Island; and as the ship was observed off the coast of Cape Breton, near Cheticamp, during a snow-storm on the 27th of December, it is probable she struck in the night on St Paul's Island.

In the month of May following, (no account having before been received of the vessel,) it was reported that some fishermen had discovered the wreck of a ship, and a number of bodies, on St Paul's Island. On this report, a schooner was dispatched thence from Charlotte Town, the people on board of which found the wreck of the *Jessie*, and the bodies of eleven men, who must have perished by the intense cold soon after landing; the remainder of the crew, it is likely, were either washed overboard by the surf, or lost in attempting to get up the cliff. The bodies of Mr Mackay and the master were carried to Charlotte Town; nothing could be more melancholy than their funerals, which were attended by the greatest concourse of people ever known in Charlotte Town to accompany the remains of any person to the mansions of the dead. I had for some years enjoyed the friendship of this gentleman. I was one of the last that parted with him on leaving the island; and six months afterwards I saw his body laid in the grave. When I say that few men have left the world more regretted by his acquaintance, that in his manners he was truly a gentleman, and that he possessed, in an eminent degree, all the kind and good qualities which gain the hearts and the esteem of men, no one who knew him will say that I exaggerate. He was born in Scotland, served his Majesty for some years, was taken on the coast of France, and detained ten years a prisoner in that country.

American navigators, lies about the usual track of vessels bound to and from Europe to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the United States. By late careful observations, its east end is in  $43^{\circ} 59'$  north latitude, and in  $59^{\circ} 42'$  west longitude; and the west point in  $43^{\circ} 57'$  latitude, and in  $60^{\circ} 17'$  longitude. It is little else than a collection of sand rising in hills, or, as the sailors term them, hummocks. One of these is about a hundred feet high, and said to be increasing in size. There is not a tree nor a shrub larger than a whortleberry-bush on the island. It produces a strong natural bent grass, and, in the hollows, abundance of cranberries. Its form is that of a crescent, the hollow of which is on the north side, and consequently the most dangerous. The north-east reef, or bar, is about a mile and a half wide, and extends twenty-eight miles, over the whole length of which the sea breaks in stormy weather. The north-west reef stretches out eight miles. Both have been dreadfully fatal to ships bound to and from North America. Although the majority of the crews have perished, yet this island has not been quite so destructive of human life as St Paul's. In 1801, the legislature of Nova Scotia, greatly to their honour, passed an act, empowering the governor to make provision for establishing some families on Sable Island, to afford relief to those who escaped from the wrecks, and to prevent plunder. Two years ago, the British government, on the representation of Sir James Kempt, added L.400 a-year to the amount annually granted by Nova Scotia, to support this most humane esta-

ishment. During the late war, the American government issued an order, forbidding their armed vessels to intercept or injure vessels bound to or from Sable Island. Since 1802, forty-two ships have been wrecked on it; probably some others were lost on the reefs without being heard of: the number lost previously must have been very great.

The Honourable Michael Wallace of Halifax, who has occasionally, with great satisfaction, administered the government of Nova Scotia, has, since the formation of the establishment at Sable Island, gratuitously directed its management. The superintendent, Edward Hodgson, who has been on the island since 1804, was appointed by Mr Wallace; and, with his family, consisting of four sons and a daughter, and four or five servants, form the members of the establishment. The business of the superintendent is to use his utmost exertion to save the lives and property of those who may be wrecked. A vessel visits the island periodically with provisions, and to bring off those who may be cast on its shores. The goods and materials saved from wrecks are carried to Halifax, and sold for the benefit of all concerned, retaining the usual salvage. There have been no less than three hundred people on the island at one time, and the stock of provisions kept at the depot, has always proved sufficient. After a storm, the superintendent sends his people to traverse the shores in every direction; and in the event of vessels being carried ashore by the currents, or running on in thick weather, a party travels round

the island weekly. It has no harbour; but a large lagoon, eighteen miles long, and more than half a mile wide, is formed by a sandy ridge thrown up by the sea. It has been named Lake Wallace. A storm some years ago broke through the sandy ridge, and formed an inlet, which for some time afforded a harbour for small coasters; but a subsequent storm closed it up again, and shut in two small American fishing vessels. There is at present only a mere brook running from it into the sea. About the middle of the north side of the lake, stands the house of the superintendent, and the stores for provisions, &c., and goods and materials saved from wrecks. On the high hill adjoining, there is a signal-staff made out of the spritsail yard of the French frigate, *L'Africane*, wrecked in 1822, from which signals are made to vessels in distress. At each end of the lake there is a small house, in which are deposited directions to find the depot, and the means of kindling a fire. Nothing is planted on the island except a few cabbages, which, cultivated with much care, have arrived at maturity. The climate, however, is not so severe as that of Nova Scotia.

One great cause of shipwreck is the current running to the south-west, between the coast of America and the Gulf Stream, which frequently carries vessels much further west than their reckoning. There is always a vast quantity of drift timber ashore on the island.

The horrors of a storm on this island are described as truly terrible. The whole island trembles and

vibrates, as the mighty ocean strikes and breaks along its whole length. The sand is whirled and swept round the hills, the bars shift, and the island seems prepared to separate, and retreat from before the fury of the winds, and the thunders of the Atlantic.

It appears, however, that although some have considered that the island is decreasing, it in reality gains in one place what it loses in another. The site of the residence of the first superintendent is now three miles out in the sea, and covered with two fathoms water. The storms frequently expose to view human skeletons, and pieces of wrecks that have been buried many years.

Notwithstanding the unstable and barren nature of this ridge of sandy downs, for it is nothing more, it was thought worthy of settlement by the French before they attempted to plant any part of the continent of America. The Marquis de la Roche landed forty malefactors on it, in 1598, to establish a colony. He then proceeded to the coast of Nova Scotia, but effecting nothing, and, being unable to deliver the wretches left on Sable Island, he returned to France, where he is said to have died soon after of a broken heart.

These people would have perished for want of food, had not a number of sheep escaped from a vessel that was wrecked soon after; and Henry IV. sent a vessel to take them off, seven years afterwards, when he was so moved with their haggard appearance, dressed rudely in skins, that he not only pardoned them, but gave each fifty crowns to begin the world with.

The Portuguese sent some cattle to the place, at a very early period, for the relief of those who escaped from wrecks, which increased fast; but they are said to have been all killed by worthless avaricious men, for their hides and tallow. It was again stocked with cattle more than once, which were also destroyed; and, in consequence, horses were sent there, the race of which are still in considerable numbers (about 300) on the island. The young ones are shot for provisions when required; but as they are remarkably wild, it is exceedingly difficult to approach within gun-shot of them. The manes of the old ones reach frequently to their knees. Rabbits were also sent to the island, which have multiplied astonishingly fast. Aquatic birds in great numbers frequent the island, and hatch their young on it. Seals of the species *Phoca-ursina*, resort to the island, principally about the north-east bar, for the purpose of bringing forth their young. They are very large, and are frequently killed by the servants of the superintendent.

## NOTES TO BOOK V.

---

Note A, page 376.

Of all our treaties with foreign nations, there is none so creditable to English negotiation as the treaty of Utrecht. This celebrated treaty was managed and concluded by the more celebrated Lord Bolingbroke; and, with whatever blemishes either justice or malice may have shaded his character, never did any minister secure more effectually the interests and honour of his country, or at so little cost.

The treaty of 1763, which secured Cape Breton, St John's Island, and Canada, to England, was also glorious, in respect to the territories it added to the British empire; but these acquisitions were previously secured by the power of our naval and military forces.

How different will both everlastingly appear in history to the treaty of Paris, (1814,) when our ministers might have dictated any stipulation they pleased, without violating British honour, or international justice! But let us ask how the ratification of that treaty was managed? The observation made to me by a distinguished American statesman and philosopher, whom I met in Canada, may perhaps supply an answer. We were conversing on the relations of Great Britain with Europe and America, and particularly on the arrangements agreed to by the treaty of Paris. "Sir," said he, "a treaty is an agreement between two or more nations, with various stipulations, provisoes, and considerations. It is, in fact, a bargain, in which something is, or has been given, and something has been, or is received in return. Now, sir, let me ask you, What has your country received as an equivalent for what she has spent for, or given to foreign states? What did you receive from France for the blood and treasure you wasted on her account? Why did you not at least retain her West India islands, and the Isle of Bour-



bon? and why did you give them a naval and fishing station worth more than them all, St Pierre, and Miquelon, and the best part of the coast of Newfoundland? For what equivalent did you give Java to Holland; your ministers could not be ignorant of its immense value, at least not if they could endure to listen to the able and satisfactory representations of Sir Stamford Raffles, when they agreed to so impolitic a concession? What did you get from Spain? What from Portugal, for the expense of defending them? Could you not have held Cuba, Madeira, and the Western Islands, as pledges, until they redeemed a reasonable portion of the debt due by them to your country? But your ministers seemed to have forgotten all in the delirium of victory, in the giddy fever created by royal attentions, and they negotiated, not as if the British army occupied Paris, but as if the legions of France held possession of London. In an evil hour you lost every thing by a treaty which your victories and treasures placed within your grasp. But the genius of Bolingbroke and Chatham had forsaken, and Canning had not yet acquired influence in your negotiations."

Note B, p. 409.

THE majority of the inhabitants of Cape Breton, particularly in the Bras d'Or settlements, being from the Outer Hebrides, we still discover their habits, manners, and customs, much the same as we find them at the present day among the people of Lewis, Uist, and Barra; and the necessary experience of all these islanders in managing boats, is a great advantage to them on arriving in Cape Breton, where, until they raise crops, they can always secure at least as good a living as they previously enjoyed, by the means of fishing.

## BOOK VI.

## CHAPTER I.

Remarks on Intercolonial and Transatlantic Steam Navigation.

THE mutual advantages which one country derives from another, increase in value and magnitude according to the increased facility of mutual intercourse and transportation. This fact is so well established by experience, as to become an evident truism ; and, that all important places between which an intercourse by steam navigation is established, derive, in consequence, vast mutual benefits, is also a fact equally evident.

When a communication is opened with a country, that will enable us to visit it in a certain given period of time, the intercourse is increased in the same ratio as the certainty of arriving at, or returning from, that country more speedily, is greater than by any previous mode of conveyance.

In the same ratio, according to this rule, does the interchanging of the commodities of different countries increase ; consequently, the prosperity of the

inhabitants is advanced, by affording them more plentiful resources, and the political value of such countries equally augmented by increasing general industry and commerce. For, when the means of receiving intelligence from, and visiting, distant countries, are rendered certain and speedy, mutual transactions and adventurous undertakings are entered into with much greater faith and spirit, than when the intercourse depends on the uncertain length of voyages subject to the direction of winds and currents, and to the duration or frequency of calms.

These considerations apply most forcibly to the amazingly vast advantages that would inevitably attend the establishment of a *line* of Transatlantic steam-packets,—not only as respects his Majesty's empire in North America, but also as regards the United Kingdom, and particularly as bearing on the great movements of emigration.

If we are safe in forming conclusions according to the experience of the last fifteen years, we are also safe in saying, that steam is the power which will supplant all others in the magnitude and rapidity of its operations. Although we may not be quite so sanguine as Mr M'Taggart about making a voyage by steam from Birmingham, Manchester, and Liverpool, (with a cargo of cutlery, printed cottons, and crockery,) across the Atlantic, and then up the rivers and lakes of the St Lawrence, and over the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific and China—an undertaking far from being impossible—yet steam is the mighty giant that Great Britain can send forth to bring her

possessions in America and the West Indies within half the distance, morally speaking, that they now are to Europe. It is this giant that may enable England to grasp more effectually the vast resources of her maritime colonies,—and those of the Canadas,—and, west of the great lakes, those of the regions of Athabasca and Assinboins.\*

Since the establishment of steam navigation along the coasts of Great Britain, and between England and the continent, and particularly between England, Scotland and Ireland, the consequent advantages are too well known, and too justly appreciated, to be questioned.

If we visit the United States, we find all their coasts and rivers navigated by innumerable steam-vessels. There are more than 300 navigating the Mississippi and the Ohio. The magnificence of the steam-vessels on the Hudson is not surpassed, if equalled, in Europe; they are, in fact, splendid floating movable hotels. A few years ago, small sloops, *bateaux*, and canoes, were the only vessels that navigated the St Lawrence between Quebec and Montreal, and British manufactures were usually sold from twenty to forty per cent higher at the latter than at the former place. At present there are eight or ten powerful steam-vessels, equal in beauty, swiftness, and magnitude, and superior, in accommodations for passengers, to our steam-ships in these kingdoms, plying between Quebec and Montreal, and commodities are, in consequence, now purchased at equal prices at both places. It is not long since the

\* Note AA.

ferry from Montreal to La Prairie, the usual route to the United States, was crossed in a wooden canoe. Passengers, horses, and carriages, are at present carried over in spacious and beautiful steam-boats. The Ottawa, and the lakes of Canada, are also navigated by steam-vessels. A steam-ship, of about 1200\* tons, belonging to the St Lawrence Steam Navigation Company, is nearly ready to navigate the seas between Halifax and Quebec, touching at the points marked in the general map. There are two steam-boats belonging to the General Mining Company at Pictou; there is another employed at Halifax; and three at St John's, New Brunswick,—one of which goes daily between that city and Fredericton, another crosses to Annapolis, from which stage-coaches run to Halifax, and a third plies between St John's, St Andrew's, and the United States. All this has been done in a few years; and as certainly as the population of our colonies will increase, so will also the number of vessels propelled by steam power.

A company was formed in London, under an act of Parliament, in 1825, for the purpose of navigating the Atlantic with steam-packets. In 1826, a great number of the shareholders of that year either withdrew or sold out. The fine steam-ship they purchased was also sold, and bought by the Dutch government, who employed it successfully between Holland and Curaçoa.

The American and Colonial Steam Navigation Company then obtained an amended act, when they published a prospectus. The following extracts from

\* This splendid ship was launched at Quebec in April last (1831.)

it will exhibit their plan, and the state in which the company then stood:—

“ The directors of the American and Colonial Steam Navigation Company, having now arranged matters with those subscribers who signified their intention of withdrawing, and paid all the claims, beg leave to lay before the persisting part of the company the prospects which enable them to propose an extension of their stock, and the resumption of the original objects for which they associated.

“ Having obtained, by their two acts of Parliament, the right of purchasing vessels, and registering under the British flag, in the name of the directors, and limiting the responsibility to the extent of the subscription—rights which no other association of this kind have obtained, and which, but for the important national benefits expected from it, would not have been granted to this company, and having also the right of proceeding as soon as funds for the purchase of one ship are obtained, instead of waiting for the subscription of three-fourths of the capital, and without the obligation of a heavy contingent fund, by the want of which powers the operations of the original company were paralysed—the directors consider that, without losing any of the advantages which have been universally admitted to attend the undertaking by all persons acquainted with the subject, the company are now placed in a much more favourable situation than before; and though much expense has occurred ere this has been obtained, it

l route  
a canoe.  
ent car-  
s. The  
vigated  
1200\*  
Naviga-  
he seas  
e points  
steam-  
pany at  
x; and  
f which  
another  
hes run  
ohn's, St  
as been  
e popu-  
also the  
an act of  
ting the  
at num-  
ithdrew  
sed was  
ent, who  
Curaçoa.  
vigation  
en they  
cts from  
st (1831.)

has not been altogether loss, and a portion of it may be fairly considered as having given value in return.

“ By the amended act of Parliament, the capital of the company is limited to 12,000 shares of L.50 each ; each of the old shares being reckoned for two.

“ But the company are allowed to proceed, as soon as a payment has been made into the hands of the bankers to the extent of	-	-	L.20,000
“ And as in this sum, credit is given for the whole payment that has been made on the old shares, of which 750 still continue, having paid L.10 each,			7,500
“ The sum actually wanted to permit the company to resume operation, is	-	-	12,500
“ The stock and funds of the company, at present, including the expense of obtaining their acts of Parliament, as certified by the auditor's statement,			4,715
“ By which it would appear that the value of each of the new shares is about L.3, 3s.			

“ It is proposed to raise a subscription for 4500 shares, and to call for a deposit of L.3, 3s., which will more than complete the preliminary fund before mentioned.

“ The stock of the company will then be held in 6000 shares, being only one half of the number to which the extent of the capital is limited.

“ The objects of the company have been explained at large, in a former prospectus ; but to strangers it may be proper briefly to state, that the intention is to establish a line of packets, propelled by steam, from the south-west of Ireland to the north-east of Nova Scotia, and thus to connect Europe and America, at the nearest points of approximation.

“ These points are in the direct line between the great ports of Liverpool and New York, and from them passengers will have a choice either of continued steam navigation, or of proceeding by the mails, &c., on the shortest lines, to their ultimate destination.

“ The information obtained by the directors, as well from America as in Europe, tends uniformly to confirm the practicability of the undertaking. An eminent engine-maker has even offered to construct the engines, and ask no payment until the voyage shall have been successfully performed.

“ As the space of ocean to be crossed will be reduced to the smallest possible distance, the vessels less burdened with fuel than if they departed from any other point, immediately clear of the coast, and able to use sails whenever the wind suits, there can be no competition with them either in speed or safety. There is no doubt of the saving of time. The ordinary passage will be at least one-third less than at present, and in unfavourable winds, the difference will be still greater.

“ The effect of this acceleration to the intercourse between the two continents, cannot easily be conjectured; but it is evident that it will greatly extend the number of passengers. These now amount to about 7000 in the year, at Liverpool alone; and should an increase of one-third of that number only fall into the line of the steam navigation, the income at similar rates of passage, deducting the victualling, will be about L.60,000 per annum. This would be nearly



100 out, and as many home, per month, which could be conveyed with facility by two vessels, exclusive of freight on goods, deck or steerage passengers, &c.

“Of the latter class, about 20,000 emigrate annually to America ; and, from the superior speed and certainty, there can be no doubt of many of them preferring the steam navigation, even at an increased rate, as it will be made up to them in the saving of provisions, and earlier occupation when abroad ; say that one-third of these adopt the steam line at L.5 per head, we have an addition of L.33,000 per annum.

“The two vessels above mentioned, would each consume about 360 tons of coals per trip, which could be laid in at Valentia and Nova Scotia, at L.1 per ton, or even less. The wages, and other charges on the voyage would be about an equal sum, making per voyage, L.1440, and per annum, L.17,280 ; so that one-fifth of the passengers abovementioned would be sufficient to cover the current expenses, independent of letters, goods, and government employment.

“If more vessels are laid on, to insure the regularity of the monthly departure, which may hereafter be found necessary, the expense for coals, and working the engine, will not thereby be increased in the above calculation ; and the additional charge for the crew, would be L.100 per month, or L.1200 per annum.”

Nothing further has been since effected, and all the exertions of the intelligent and spirited directors have hitherto been unsuccessful ; yet nothing but

the general ignorance which prevails in these kingdoms respecting British America and the seas of the Atlantic, could have retarded the progress of a company, incorporated with such privileges, and with such reasonable prospects of success.

As to the dangers of the Atlantic, they are far from being so formidable as people generally imagine. It has been my fate to have crossed that ocean several times, at all seasons of the year, and sometimes during the most tempestuous weather; and I feel perfectly safe in saying that the sea, in the Irish or English channel, or in the Gulf and River of St Lawrence, or even in Lake Ontario, is much more dangerous for steam-ships to navigate during stormy weather, than that of the main ocean.

In December 1825, I left the Gulf of St Lawrence on board of a merchant ship; the weather was so tempestuous that the topsails were close-reefed half the passage; and in fifteen days we were safely at anchor in the Cove of Cork. I left Cork in January for Liverpool, in a steam-ship, commanded by an experienced officer, who was for some time on board of one of our ships of war on Lake Ontario. We were in the Channel during a very heavy gale, and a more abrupt difficult sea for a ship to plough through, I never witnessed. The long high swell of the Atlantic, which I had just crossed in such bad weather, was nothing to it; yet the steam-ship worked over it with amazing ease. The commander agreed with me in considering it much more dangerous than that of the ocean; and that the sea on

Lake Ontario, or on the St Lawrence, was also more difficult for steam-vessels than that of the Atlantic.

The commander of one of the steam-packets that ply between Dublin and Liverpool, has crossed the Atlantic more than thirty times. I have gone over with him several times to Dublin ; and twice, during the winter of 1826, he declared to me that he never witnessed worse weather, nor such an abrupt dangerous sea on the Atlantic, as we then experienced. I believe most naval officers will bear me out in these observations. Masters of merchant ships, few of whom know much either of the arts or sciences, cherish a strong prejudice against steam-vessels ; yet they readily admit that the sea rises more dangerously, during tempestuous weather, in the Irish and English Channels, in the German Ocean, and in the Gulf and River of St Lawrence, than it does in the main ocean. Those seas are, however, all safely navigated with steam-ships ; and why not cross the Atlantic also by the power of steam ?

It was the intention of the company to establish an intercolonial, as well as a Transatlantic, steam-navigation. It now remains only for them to do the latter. The colonies have already commenced the former ; and if the latter be much longer neglected in England, it will assuredly be undertaken in America.

The legislatures of all the North American colonies voted certain sums to encourage intercolonial steam navigation. The House of Assembly of Lower Canada voted L.3000 to persons or companies, who

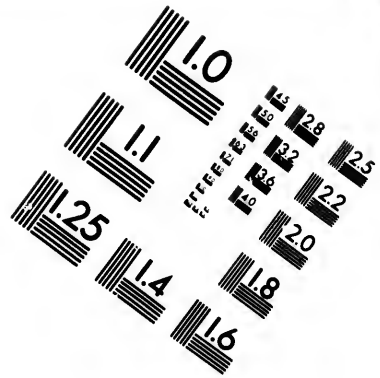
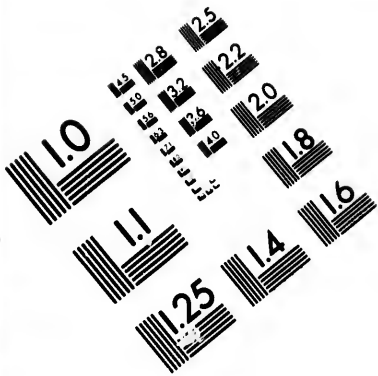
would cause a steam-vessel to be regularly navigated between the ports in the St Lawrence and Halifax for four years. The House of Assembly of Nova Scotia voted L.1500 to encourage the same object. The Assembly of New Brunswick voted L.200 the first year, and L.100 each, for two succeeding years, provided that the steam-packets should touch at Miramichi; and the Legislature of Prince Edward Island voted also a sum on similar conditions.

There is good reason to believe, that if the Transatlantic Steam Company were only once to commence effective operations, the colonial legislatures would grant sums in aid of an undertaking which promises such great advantages and benefits. If the postmaster-general were applied to, it is also reasonable to suppose that he would direct contracts to be made for the company's vessels to carry the mails, in preference to their being conveyed by the dangerous uncomfortable packets that sail at present between Falmouth and Halifax.

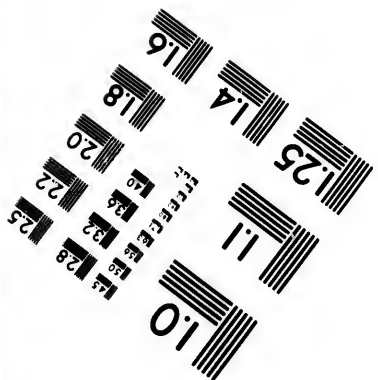
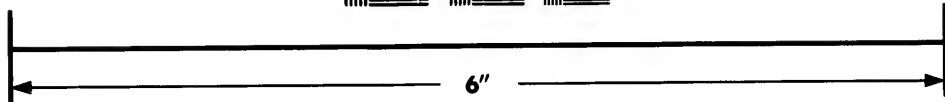
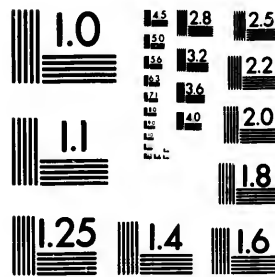
The excellent coal which abounds in Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, is not only admirably adapted for the furnaces of steam-engines, but it affords an advantage of which the United States are not possessed. This coal has lately been carried, for the use of steam-vessels, to New York and some other places. The following extracts from a report, published at New York, will show how much that article, which the nearest points of our colonies afford, is appreciated by the Americans.

“ Since the introduction of steam-boats, pine-wood





**IMAGE EVALUATION  
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic  
Sciences  
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET  
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580  
(716) 872-4503

1.8 2.0 2.2 2.5  
3.6 3.2 2.8  
3.6 3.2 2.8  
3.6 3.2 2.8

1.0 1.1 1.2  
1.5 1.6 1.8

has rapidly disappeared from the shores of our navigable streams, and the scarcity of this article has necessarily enhanced its value. All who have reflected upon the subject, have long since been satisfied that the time is not far distant when coal must be substituted for wood ; and the question has been asked, what coal can be produced which will ignite sufficiently easy, to produce steam as fast as required? Repeated experiments have been made with the Anthracite coal, but without success. Within the last month, the Sydney coal from Nova Scotia has attracted the attention of the navigators of our steam-boats, and the result of their investigations is such as cannot fail to give satisfaction to all who wish to see navigation by steam prosecuted at the present reasonable rates.

“ The first experiments were made in the small steam-boat used by the Dry Dock Company, in towing vessels to their railway. We were of the number who witnessed the result of this experiment, and were astonished to find that, without any alteration in the furnace which is used for wood, a fire was kindled of this coal with a common lamp, which, in about half an hour, enabled the boat to get under way, and then supplied as much steam as could be used. It was believed by all, even the most sanguine, that, with an ordinary wood furnace, the draught would not be sufficient to generate steam as fast as required, and their astonishment and gratification at the result may be easily imagined.

“ In consequence of the first attempt, the agent of



the Mining Company in this city proposed to Captain Bunker, of the Benjamin Franklin, to take in a supply of coal, and use it, instead of wood, on his trip to Providence and back. He did so, and became so satisfied, not only of its practical usefulness, but of its superiority over wood, that he endeavoured at once to have his furnace altered, for the purpose of using it to more advantage.

“ The facility with which this coal ignites, and its consequent capabilities of producing steam, having been fairly tested, the next question is, What are the advantages to be gained by introducing it into general use? We answer, first, the great saving in room occupied by the fuel; second, by the saving in the cost of fuel; third, by the saving in the weight of fuel; fourth, by the saving in labour in handling the fuel and feeding the furnace; and fifth, by the absence of sparks and cinders, by which the clothes of passengers are destroyed, and the awnings of our boats set on fire.

“ We give the following as the result of the different experiments which have been made:—

“ One chaldron of Sydney coal measures 44 cubic feet.

“ One cord of pine-wood measures 128 cubic feet.

“ One chaldron of coal will jet as much water into steam in the same space of time, as three cords of pine-wood. Supposing the Benjamin Franklin to require 45 cords of wood per trip to and from Providence, the space thus occupied by wood is 5760 cubic feet. Fifteen chaldrons of Sydney coal will

produce the same quantity of steam in the same period of time, and occupy but 660 cubic feet, or about one-ninth of the space required for the wood.

“ The wholesale price of Sydney coal, New York measure, is, per chaldron, 9 dollars.

“ The wholesale price of 3 cords of wood, at 4 dollars, is 12 dollars.

“ This will show a saving in the cost of fuel in favour of coal, of  $33\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, or of 55 dollars on every trip to Providence.

“ One chaldron of Sydney coal, New York measure, weighs 1 ton, 2 cwt. and 1 qr.

“ One cord of pine-wood weighs 1 ton, 2 cwt. and 3 qrs.

“ The weight of the Franklin's wood, therefore, is 51 tons, 5 cwt. If she used coal, her fuel would weigh 16 tons, 13 cwt. and 3 qrs.

“ The coal being less bulky, will require a less number of persons to handle it, and the saving in this respect, added to the safety of awnings and the clothes of passengers from sparks, will be far from inconsiderable.”

It was the original intention of the company, that the main line of steam-vessels should run only between Valentia, on the coast of Ireland, and Cape Canseau, in Nova Scotia. On examining the matter, however, more fully, it will be found that neither of those places are the proper points of intercourse. Cape Canseau is a rocky island; the country within it is broken up with islets, rocks, and water, for many miles; and it has no communication, for a

great distance, with the continent of America, except by water. Valentia is an excellent harbour, and a very proper and necessary place for steam-vessels to touch at, as their last point of departure from Europe. But whenever Transatlantic steam navigation is established, the vessels employed must start from places of much greater importance, otherwise neither advantage nor convenience can be expected.

Liverpool has not only become the great outlet for passengers, and whatever is sent to America, but it is of all others that which has become the great *focus* of steam power. This will appear by referring to the general map. It will, therefore, be found necessary that the steam-ships should first start from Liverpool, touching at Cork, if desirable, and finally from Valentia; from thence, across the Atlantic to St John's, Newfoundland, (during summer,) and then direct to Halifax, as the most important place in America, and one of the finest harbours in the world. From Halifax harbour, which is open at all seasons, and which is another great *focus* of intercourse, there are roads leading to all parts of the continent of America, and daily communication by water. The importance of touching at St John's, Newfoundland, is very great. It is only a few miles out of the way, and it is the only colony to which a mail is not regularly sent, although the chief business of the island requires the earliest information from other countries. It may also be found convenient and profitable to touch at Sydney, Cape Breton, which, also, is only a few miles out of the direct

course, and where, close to the water's edge, are the coal mines of the General Mining Company.

During the winter season, it may be found convenient for the steam-ships to stop at the Western Islands. All these courses and distances will, however, appear more distinctly by reference to the general map.

e, are the  
7.  
ound con-  
Western  
will, how-  
ce to the

## CHAPTER II.

### PRACTICAL REMARKS ON EMIGRATION.

In America, Industry secures independent Circumstances—Prospects of Emigrants generally sanguine, and seldom realized—Necessary Considerations before emigrating—Causes of Emigration—Love of Adventure—Poverty—Discontent—Early Marriages and Pauperism in Ireland—Emigration at the Public Expenses—Respective Advantages of the several Colonies—Classification of Persons to whom America affords Inducements to emigrate—Necessary Articles required by New Settlers—Precautions as to engaging Passages—"White Slave Trade"—Disease and consequent Calamity on Board of Passenger Ships—Irish Emigration to Brazil—Directions to Emigrants after landing—Various Means of Employment pointed out—Plans to raise Passage Money—General Condition of the Inhabitants of British America—Prospects which Industrious Settlers may realize, &c.—Notes.

IN America, as well in the United States as in the British possessions, notwithstanding all the difficulties with which an emigrant has to contend, it is a well-established fact, supported by the opinion of all who have observed the conduct, and marked the progress of new settlers, from the first planting of North America until the present time, that all those who have settled on wilderness lands, if their habits have been industrious, frugal, and persevering, have, with few exceptions, and in general only when ill health interfered, succeeded in rising from a state of

wretched poverty, to the attainment of considerable property in land and cattle, and all that is necessary to render rural life happy.\*

It frequently happens, however, that emigrants are disappointed in realizing the prospects they cherished when they left their native country. Lured by unprincipled speculators into the belief, that all they can possibly wish for is to be obtained with little difficulty on the shores and amidst the forests of North America, they embark with sanguine *el dorada* expectations. No sooner, however, do they tread the lands of the Western World, than the delusion vanishes, and they discover that neither food, clothing, nor any article whatever, is to be had without money, or some exchangeable value; that they must, for at least two or three years, endure many privations; and that success must depend altogether on persevering industry and judicious management.

It is, therefore, a matter of the first importance, for a man living in the United Kingdom, to consider, before he determines on expatriation, whether he can, by industry and integrity, obtain a tolerably comfortable livelihood in the country of his nativity; whether, in order to secure to his family the certain means of subsistence, he can willingly part with his friends, and leave scenes that must have been dear to his heart from childhood; and whether, in order to attain to independence, he can reconcile himself to suffer the inconveniency of a sea voyage, and the fatigue of

\* Note A.

removing with his family from the port where he disembarks in America, to the spot of ground in the forest on which he may fix for the theatre of his future operations ; whether he can reconcile himself for two or three years to endure many privations to which he had hitherto been unaccustomed, and to the hard labour of levelling and burning the forest, and raising crops from a soil with natural obstructions which require much industry to remove. If, after making up his mind to all these considerations, he resolves on emigrating, he will not be disappointed in realizing in America any reasonable prospect he may have entertained in Europe. These difficulties are, indeed, such as would often stagger the resolution of most emigrants, if they had not before them, in every part of America, examples of men who must have encountered and overcome equally, if not more disheartening hardships, before they attained a state of comfortable affluence.

The majority of those who emigrate to America, are driven abroad by the goadings of poverty ; another class is formed of adventurous men, who go to seek fortunes in other countries, with the hope of again returning to their own ; a third class is composed of men of genius, whose schemes have been frustrated, or whose hopes have been blighted at home ; and a fourth class includes individuals who are not only discontented with their condition in the land of their forefathers, but displeased also with all public measures : these men are not, probably, compelled to emigrate from necessity, but from a spirit

of dissatisfaction natural to them. Of this last unfortunate description, I have discovered numbers in all the provinces. They at first fix on a farm in one place, and as they do not find that their ardent expectations are realized in a year or two, they attribute their bad fortune to the ill-fated spot they have chosen, which they leave for another where no better success attends them. In this manner, roaming about from place to place, the chances inevitably are, that they wear out their constitutions, and waste their labour to no good purpose.

Immediately after the last war, a crisis in the affairs of men necessarily occurred. The peace threw thousands either altogether, or in a great measure, out of employment. The articles which labour produced, were many of them not further required; and the demand for, and the price of the remainder, were reduced by the death of the war monopoly, and the great reduction in the naval and military departments. Agriculture and commerce continued for some time to languish, while the spirits of the farmers began to droop, and those of the manufacturers to ferment. In the minds of some men, evils, under the impression of misfortunes, produced discontent; with others, the transition from their former artificial affluence, to a condition which made them feel their real position, broke out into invectives against the measures of government, and into a declared indifference to their country.

The labouring classes, when out of employment, generally find relief if they emigrate to America: and



there are others whose spirits have been soured by misfortunes, either brought upon them by their own imprudence, or by accidental circumstances, who blame their country, and, with an avowal of hatred to it, expatriate themselves. It is assuredly fit, and perhaps necessary, that such men should go abroad. Fresh activity may renew in them the energy of youth; and while they spend the remainder of their days in other countries, experience fortunately never fails to convince them, that it is impossible for them to forget, or not to love their own.

It is vain and inconsistent to expect, that the government of any nation can relieve effectually the miseries of many hundreds of thousands of paupers, who have been principally born in poverty, and reared in the abodes of hunger, improvidence, and ignorance. The most that we can hope is, that their sufferings may be ameliorated. It requires the gradual operation of an age at least, to change the habits, and to direct to steady purposes, the energies of a vast population.

Many circumstances have combined to produce the present alarming extent of pauperism; the remote causes are not within my province to enquire into; but in Ireland, which we may consider the very empire of mendicity, superabundant population is certainly the immediate cause of beggary. That the Irish peasantry are improvident, cannot be denied. This, again, arises from ignorance and want of education, which reconcile them to exist in a state scarcely superior to that in which the brute tribes live. Therefore, in

the absence of reflection, and the attendant disregard of future consequences, as to the means of supporting a family, at about the same age that the young men of England and Scotland are leaving school, and their parents anxiously considering what occupation they are to follow, or what trade they are to learn by an apprenticeship of five or seven years, the Irish peasantry link into premature marriages, and thereby multiply the endless evils of poverty.

In countries like America, where labour is dear, and the population scanty in proportion to the vast extent of land, early marriages are not by any means attended with the same evils as in Ireland, where the population is superabundant, in as much as there is not sufficient employment for the inhabitants. A great proportion of the pauperism that exists in Great Britain, is caused by the seemingly endless influx of Irish beggars. Were there no mendicants but those born within the parishes of England and Scotland, our feelings would not be harrowed by the famished, half-naked, unfortunate beings that assail us in every town, village, and along every road in both countries.\*

\* We may every day, at the pier-heads of Liverpool, at Glasgow, and other places, witness the landing of hundreds of ragged, squalid objects, (men, women, and children,) from Ireland. These people come over under the pretence of looking for employment, and proceed begging on their way through the country. Before leaving Ireland, they are told it is physically impossible that they can be so miserable in England or in Scotland, as in their own country; that they can beg from one place to another; that if they are eventually sent back by the parishes, they will be provided for; and that they can, in spite of all the vigilance of overseers and police

The removal of a great portion of the redundant population of the United Kingdom to our colonies, which has for some time engaged the attention of the government, may be considered the best temporary expedient to relieve the mother countries from the burden of pauperism. That those who are sent to the colonies will be removed from the pressure of poverty, I have no doubt; and the consequent effect which this measure may have on the United Kingdom, will doubtless depend on the extent to which emigration may be effected. It appears, however, that some other measure, of at least mighty importance, should be pursued at the same time, with respect to Ireland. Infusing, by means of education, such useful knowledge into the minds of the peasantry, as will gradually introduce habits of thinking and of orderly industry, is a measure assuredly of primary necessity; providing, as far as possible, employment for the labouring classes within the kingdom, is also an object of paramount consideration.

Another measure of great magnitude, although the policy will be by many denounced, but which would, nevertheless, be of eminent benefit to the country, comprehends—the removal, as speedily as may be

officers, return again to England. An Irish pauper, from having either learned the benefit of living on the industry of England by his own experience, or by acquiring previously the rudiments of ingenious begging, is wonderfully eloquent and *au fait*, in the way of amusing select vestries or police officers, while giving an account of himself.

consistent with humanity, of the mud cabins ; the introduction of poor-rates ; the destruction of the whole system of sub-letting ; and, consequently, changing Ireland from a potatoe to a great bread country.

In carrying into effect a grand scheme of emigration, for the purpose of disburdening the United Kingdom of a poverty-smitten people, it becomes necessary to consider the probable consequence of introducing a great mass of human existence of such a description to our colonies.

Our North American possessions will require for many years a vast accession of settlers ; but, at the same time, it must be remembered that the men whose labour and energy are wanted, with the present inhabitants, to cultivate and raise those great countries to the mighty importance of which they are susceptible, should, generally speaking, possess correct principles and industrious habits as well as strong physical qualities.\*

Apprehensions of distress, and many other evils, being introduced with large bodies of poor emigrants, are very generally entertained in the colonies ; and unless adequate means be provided to carry these

\* It is notorious, that while the number of criminal offences have greatly increased during late years in America, few instances of guilt can be traced to the old settlers. A life of continued poverty is usually so lamentably at variance with virtue, that we must ascribe the more frequent occurrence of crime in our colonies to the previous indigence of many of the emigrants.

people to the place of location, and to support them for a reasonable time afterwards, it would certainly be unjust to inundate the colonies with a pauper population. In the report of the emigration committee, this subject, as well as most others connected with the question before them, has been fully considered.\*

Should emigration be conducted at the public expense, it is recommended to provide the emigrant with a year or eighteen months' provisions, axes, and a few other implements. From my own enquiries, and all that I have observed respecting the settlers in each of our American colonies, I am of opinion, that if each family received an axe, two hoes, an auger, a saw, a plane, a cow, seed, and provisions for one year, it is fully as much as government should grant. It is doubtful, if more assistance were given, but that it would lead to abuse; and with such aid, the man who does not become independent of others for the means of subsistence, deserves (according to an observation made to me by an affluent and worthy old farmer, who settled forty years ago in America not worth a shilling) "to be hanged as a public defaulter." That emigrants sent to the colonies, and located and provided for at the expense of the public, should be bound, after a reasonable period, to repay the money advanced on their account, is probably no more than mere justice; and, as such, should be

\* See Colonel Cockburn's Report and Appendix, printed by order of the House of Commons, 1828.

received and acknowledged by them. But this stipulation, although I formerly thought otherwise, would be highly impolitic. That an industrious settler would be able at the expiration of five, or, at the most, six years, particularly if received in agricultural produce, to repay the money expended on his account by government, I certainly admit ; but would not the obligation to pay such money be a sort of premium to disregard their allegiance ? for pauper emigrants would not, it is believed, be inclined to repay what they received from the public funds ; but would rather consider such a debt in the same light that they do parish relief in England. The vexation of collecting the money expended in removing emigrants, would also produce discontent, and probably many evil consequences.

As the order and peace of society is indispensably connected with the prosperity of all communities, local regulations, to be strictly adhered to, would be necessary in establishing new settlements ; and from the general character of pauper emigrants, and the nature of the country, it would be proper to have them enrolled and trained as a regular militia.\*

\* Several leading men in the colonies have remarked to me, that as the Irish emigrants, (as is well known,) after landing in America, rather than proceed at once to the cultivation of a farm, prefer lingering behind, and clinging to the towns and old settlements for employment, and, not unfrequently, after they settle on a wood farm, straggle away, it cannot be too strongly impressed on those who may have the direction of settling them in America, to send as many as possible of them at once to the remote districts. This,

Whether emigration on the plan formerly recommended by the committee of the House of Commons, or as lately proposed in Parliament, be ever carried into effect or not, voluntary emigration, at the expense of the emigrants themselves, will still continue to go on in the usual way ; and as the majority of those who leave the United Kingdom for America, will have been brought up to occupations not only different from each other, but unlike those which they will probably follow afterwards, it will be of great consequence to prepare themselves in the best possible manner for the new life they are about to commence.

With respect to the advantages which our North American possessions present, and the prospects they afford to new settlers, it may be observed that the upper or inland, and the maritime colonies, have each their respective advantages. Canada, however, will likely continue to be the country that will absorb the greatest number of emigrants. But from all I have been able to learn, and from the opinions of the most thinking men of practical experience and local knowledge, I conclude, that from 2 to 500,000 settlers might be sent at little more than half the expense, and with equal if not greater advantage to the emigrants, to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton, and the district of Gaspè. The lower colonies are never subject to

however, could only be effected, if emigration at the public expense be carried into operation.

agues, nor lake fevers, while the climate of Upper Canada generates both.

The proximity of these countries to plentiful fisheries is of great benefit to new settlers, who are enabled to procure at an easy rate, or with little trouble, what may constitute, for some time, one of the principal articles of food. Herring, cod, salmon, mackerel, and many other varieties of fish, abound in the rivers and along the coasts.

In Upper Canada, it is true, the lands are equally fertile, and, in some respects, superior to those of the lower provinces ; but the distance to the unoccupied districts, with the consequent expense of carriage and fatigue of travelling, are much greater ; while the inland parts, at the same time, want the benefit of fisheries, and the immediate markets for the productions of the soil, which the maritime colonies possess.

The last inconvenient objection will, however, in a great measure, soon disappear, as the canals now cutting to avoid the cataracts and rapids, and the roads which are gradually extending to the remote settlements, will facilitate the carriage of luggage and goods ; and the produce of the soil will also, in consequence, find a readier market.

The emigrant who directs his course to Upper Canada, a country which has for some years afforded an asylum for some thousands of poor settlers, need not apprehend the want of fertile land, nor, after two or three years, the necessaries and many of the conveniencies of life. Yet notwithstanding the vast tracts of unoccupied land, he will, in order to secure



a desirable farm, have to proceed a great distance into the back country, apart from society, and without the conveniences to be found only in a populous neighbourhood. He must not, however, be discouraged if he suffers much more, from the time he lands at Quebec or Montreal, until he plants himself and family in the woods, than he experienced in removing to America from the land of his forefathers. Every succeeding year will open more cheering prospects to him; the emigrants who arrive after him will settle beyond him in the wilderness, and he will soon observe houses, villages, and corn-fields, occupying the place of gloomy and boundless forests.\*

It has, unfortunately, been the fate of the majority of those who have emigrated to Canada, to encounter severe hardships after landing. It must, at the same time, be mentioned, in justice to the government of the province, and to the gentlemen of Quebec and Montreal, that the emigrants have not only received kind and liberal assistance to enable them to proceed to the upper province, but that the greatest care has been taken of the sick poor among them at the hospitals.

The districts of land still unoccupied in Lower Canada will accommodate an immense population. On the lands through which the river Saguenay and its streams flow, Scotch Highlanders, from the upper parts of Perth, and the inland parts of Argyle, Inverness, Ross, Caithness, and Sutherlandshire, might

\* Note B.

be located to great individual advantage, and with importance to the political value of Canada. Such people are eminently qualified to colonize this district ; and I almost concur in opinion with the Quebec gentleman who says, in a letter to Colonel Cockburn, " that it " (the basin of Saguenay) " is the *arx et domicilium imperii* of North America, and should be settled with people of military habits." No man can more readily assume steady military habits, if necessary, than those I recommend to this country. Another tract, lying between the rear of the Canadian settlements on the south side of the St Lawrence and the province of New Brunswick, is capable of supporting many thousands. This tract should be settled either by the Canadians or Scotch Highlanders, for the purpose of forming a barrier of *distinct people*, near the frontiers of the United States.

There are other tracts in Lower Canada worthy of much attention. That lying north of the St Lawrence, in the rear of the seigniories, is particularly adapted for Scotch Highlanders,—that is, if this tract be not reserved for the increasing Canadian-French population. Another excellent tract, pointed out by Lord Dalhousie, for Lowland Scotch, lies on the Ottawa, below Hull.

As respects New Brunswick—as the soil is, at a short distance from the sea-coast, equal to that of Canada, it is, at the same time, accessible at little more than half the expense ; but, bordering on the United States, great care should be observed in sending to it only emigrants of correct, industrious, and,

if possible, at the same time of military habits. The capabilities of this valuable, extensive, but little known province, will be observed where the colony is described in the second volume of this work.

In Nova Scotia, although there are not now remaining extensive tracts of good lands ungranted, yet farmers of frugal and industrious habits, and with some means, are sure to succeed; and such is the state of society in, and improved condition of, this province, that a man does not feel that he is very far removed from all that he has formerly been accustomed to.

Cape Breton, with its eminent advantages for the fisheries, and for grazing, and also, in most parts, for agriculture, is admirably adapted for families from the Highlands and Islands of Scotland, from the Isle of Man, or from Wales. Last year, about 2000 emigrants arrived in this island from the Hebrides, in a state of wretched poverty, and would have suffered great miseries, had not several of their relations or acquaintances previously settled in the colony.

In Prince Edward Island, families from the inland counties of England, and from the agricultural shires of Scotland, to the number of 10 or 20,000 individuals, would find farms to suit them, on terms fully as liberal as in any of the other colonies where lands are equally well situated; and in this colony, also, the state of society, and local advantages, are superior. This island has long been considered the most beautiful of our American colonies. It is thriving

rapidly in agricultural improvement ; and, for its extent, will become a productive grain country.

The Island of Newfoundland—the lands of which are so imperfectly known in the United Kingdom, and which, like those of Nova Scotia formerly, seem still, according to the generally received opinion, condemned, as if doomed by nature to everlasting barrenness—affords, notwithstanding, situations for an additional population of ten to twelve thousand families. It must, at the same time, be considered, that settlers adapted for Newfoundland, should be men brought up along a sea-coast. Families from the Shetland and Orkney Islands, the Hebrides, the Isle of Man, the shores of Wales, Cornwall, and the west and south of Ireland, would succeed best.\*

As to the classes to which British America offers inducements to emigrate, much will depend upon individual character ; but it may, however, be observed, that in consequence of the high price of labour, gentlemen farmers do not generally succeed, and the condition of new countries does not admit of extensive establishments. The settlers who thrive soonest, are men of steady habits, and accustomed to labour.

Practical farmers, possessing from L.200 to L.600, may purchase, in any of the colonies, farms with from twenty to thirty acres cleared, which may be cultivated agreeably to the system of husbandry practised in the United Kingdom. The embarrassed circumstances of many of the old settlers, brought

\* Note C.

on by improvidence, or by having engaged in the timber business, will compel them to sell their farms, and commence again on woodlands.

Joiners, stone-masons, saddlers, shoemakers, tailors, blacksmiths, cart, mill, and wheelwrights, and (in the seaports) coopers, may always find employment. Brewers may succeed ; but in a few years there will be more encouragement for them. Butchers generally do well. For spinners, weavers, or those engaged in manufactures, there is not the smallest encouragement.

Active labouring men and women may always secure employment, kind treatment, and good wages.

To gentlemen educated for the professions of law, divinity, or physic, British America offers no flattering prospects. There are already too many lawyers, as they are admitted as attorneys and barristers on serving an apprenticeship of four or five years in the colonies. There are, of the Established Church, notwithstanding the astounding statement made some time ago by Archdeacon Strachan, to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, fully more clergymen, in proportion to the members of the church, than in England. The members of the Kirk of Scotland, as soon as a sufficient number to support a clergyman settle within a reasonable distance of each other, generally send for a minister to Scotland. Anti-burghers, Baptists, and Methodists, have preachers in every settlement where they have members, or can gain hearers. The Roman Catholic Church is respectably established—its clergy well supported ; and no class interferes less with other persuasions than

they do, or are more peaceable, or better members of society.

Medical gentlemen generally secure a decent livelihood, but, with few exceptions, seldom make money. *The climate of British America is too salubrious for doctors to make fortunes.* Schoolmasters who emigrate, if they have not entered into engagements as to salary before leaving home, will, nine out of ten, have to cultivate the soil for a subsistence, and they generally make indifferent farmers. Young men of education, clerks in mercantile houses, or shopmen, need not expect the least encouragement, unless previously engaged by the merchants or shopkeepers in America. Many young men, however, of persevering minds and industrious habits, have baffled every obstacle, and finally succeeded in establishing themselves in trade. Many of the richest merchants in the colonies were of this description.

Farmers or labourers going to America should carry out with them, if their means will admit, as much clothing, bedding, and linen as may be necessary for four or five years, some leather, one or two sets of light cart harness, two or three spades or shovels, scythes, sickles, hoes, plough traces, the iron work of a plough and harrow, of the common kind used in Scotland ; the cast machinery for a corn fan, cooking utensils, a few door hinges, and a small assortment of nails. Furniture, or any other kind of wooden work, will only incommode them, as what may be necessary can easily be procured at moderate rates in America.

When an emigrant has fully prepared himself in other respects, the object of greatest importance to himself and his family, is the manner in which he is to cross the seas to America.

It has frequently been the fate of passengers, particularly of those who have, at all periods of emigration, embarked at ports in Ireland, and in the Western Highlands and Islands of Scotland, to have undergone miseries of the most distressing and loathsome character.

Men of broken fortunes, or unprincipled adventurers, were generally the persons who have been engaged in the traffic long known by the emphatic cognomen of the "white slave trade," of transporting emigrants to America. They travelled over the country among the labouring classes, allured them by flattering, and commonly false accounts of the New World, to decide on emigrating, and to pay half of the passage money in advance. A ship of the worst class, ill found with materials, and most uncomfortably accommodated, was chartered to proceed to a certain port, where the passengers embarked: crowded closely in the hold, the provisions and water indifferent, and often unwholesome and scanty, inhaling the foul air generated by filth and dirt, typhus fever was almost inevitably produced, and, as is too well known, many of the passengers usually became its victims.

An act of Parliament at last subjected the emigrant ships to very proper restrictions as to the number of passengers, and to very necessary regulations as to

the quantity and quality of water and provisions. This necessary and just law was complained of by those interested as grievous ; and “ the white slave traders,” who did not scruple to break through its stipulations, were often ingenious enough to evade its penalties.

When the restrictions contained in this act were afterwards removed, no language can describe the consequent *disease, misery, and squalid wretchedness* imported, principally from Ireland, into the colonies.

In 1827, the inhabitants of Halifax, in Nova Scotia, who, in the most humane and liberal manner, provided for the relief of the sick emigrants, were doomed to share in the calamity thus introduced ; and, while some hundreds of the passengers died in the hospitals, many of the healthy inhabitants of the town caught the infection, and were carried off by it.\*

During the summer of the same year, several vessels arrived at St John's, Newfoundland, from Ireland, on board of which men, women, and children, exceeding double the legal number, were crammed. Filth and confined air soon produced disease, and the effects were dreadful. One vessel, under 120 tons, had, previously to leaving Ireland with 110 passengers, loaded within three feet of the deck with salt. The weather during the passage was such, that, for

\* By an act of the legislature of Nova Scotia, masters of vessels are obliged to give bonds in the amount of L.10 for each passenger, that they will not become, for one year, chargeable to the parish, by reason of poverty, childhood, or age. The legislatures of all the other colonies have since passed similar acts.



two weeks, the hatches were not opened ; and, at this time, two-thirds of the passengers were afflicted with typhus and dysentery.

On entering the harbour of St John's, the condition of this vessel was probably as appalling as that of any slave ship that ever left the coast of Guinea. The very salt was impregnated or covered over to the depth of one to three feet with loathsome filth. The dead, the dying, and the sick, presented a scene too shocking for description. Some died before the vessel arrived, others on entering the harbour ; forty men and ten women were carried to the hospital, and twenty died in all.

By the act\* of the last session of the Imperial Parliament, for regulating the carrying of passengers, the number of them is limited to three for every four tons that a ship registers, and the quantity and quality of provisions are also regulated ; but, nevertheless, it appears that some greedy speculators have, since then, lured emigrants away from Ireland, without conforming to the legal stipulations ; and it will require the greatest vigilance to bring men trained to this traffic to answer for their conduct. The colonial governments are, I understand, in future to guard against the landing of passengers who may arrive in a sickly condition.†

In arranging for passages to America, it will be

\* Note D.

† Irish emigrants have been unaccountably doomed to suffer more than most others. It is well known, that about 2000 Irish were inveigled to Brazil, by the offer of free passages and lands, by an

necessary for the emigrant, in order to guard against imposition, to make his enquiries for vessels through men of established good character, and who may have some knowledge of the owners of ships taking passengers; the ship, if possible, of a size that admits about six feet height between the decks, and not an old vessel.\*

Much expense and inconvenience will be saved by embarking in a ship bound to a port nearest to the emigrant's point of destination.

The establishment of steam-boats between the most convenient ports in the United Kingdom and agent of the Brazilian government. These poor deluded men, on landing in South America, discovered that the intention of Don Pedro was to make soldiers of them; and, on refusing to become such, every tenth man was imprisoned. After enduring great misery, either the British ambassador or the British consul, (I am not certain which,) insisted on their being conveyed to Ireland, or to some British colony. Vessels were accordingly chartered for the purpose; the brig Highlander carried from Rio de Janeiro to St John's N. B. 171 men, 31 women, and 14 children, who were landed in a state of wretched poverty. These people were liberally relieved by the provincial government, and also through the benevolence of the inhabitants. Another vessel from the same place arrived at Halifax, with about an equal number in a similar miserable condition, many of whom were sent to the poor-house, or otherwise assisted. Much as the condition of paupers, arriving under such circumstances, is to be deplored, were it not from feelings of great benevolence for the suffering individuals, the people of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick might be said to go almost too far in relieving men duped by Don Pedro. A Colonel Cotteril was, I believe, the agent of the Brazilian government in this business.

\* Rates of passage depend much on circumstances, the place of destination, and the class in which the ship stands.

America, would facilitate not only the intercourse with the New World, but also shorten the voyage, and diminish the sufferings of emigrants.

On landing in America, after the necessary information is obtained respecting vacant lands, either at the offices of the commissioners of crown lands, or the emigrant societies, as little time as possible should be spent in the towns or elsewhere, before the settler fixes on the land he is about to occupy. Much of his success may depend on the spot he selects; but, at the same time, he can almost, in any of the unoccupied tracts, fix on the best land he can obtain without losing much time, which very seldom answers any very desirable or useful purpose.\*

There are various ways in which men may always employ themselves after they land in America. The heads of families cannot do better than devote all the time they possibly can to the clearing and preparing their new farms for cultivation. It is often, however, necessary for them to work for provisions or other assistance among the old settlers; but prudent men never do so after the first year, except compelled by necessity.

Women, and children above two years of age, can find ready employment, particularly during spring and autumn. Young unmarried labouring men ought to save at least half their wages. Food, except in the towns and at public works, is usually provided for labourers by their employers.

\* Note E.

Children, whose parents are unable to support them, may be provided for by binding them until they become of age, as apprentices to farmers, with whom they generally are brought up as one of the family ; and a cow, a sheep, and some seed, are usually given to them when they leave, to begin with on a farm. In this manner, orphans are generally taken care of. It rarely happens that a man who has a family finds it necessary to bind any of his children to others ; and he who has the most numerous offspring is considered to have the best opportunity of prospering, in a country where land is abundant, and in which the price of labour is high.

A common plan with those who own cleared farms that they do not occupy, is, to let these farms on the halves ; that is, to stock the farm with horses, horned cattle, sheep, and hogs, provide half the necessary seed, and then give possession to a practical farmer, who will cultivate it and find the labour. After harvest, the produce, even to that of the dairy, is equally divided between the proprietor and the farmer. Many farmers who dislike commencing at once in the woods, have, by industry and frugality, supported their families very comfortably in this manner for two or three years, besides accumulating sufficient stock and seed to commence on a new farm. Farmers from the inland counties of England, and from Dumfriesshire and Perthshire, have succeeded best in this way.\*

\* The prosperity of a man who cultivates land on the shares, as well as the benefit which arises to the proprietor, depends (as suc-

To those who are anxious to emigrate, but who have not the means, it is a matter of difficulty to advise how to proceed; various plans are often adopted. Unmarried men and women who were unable to pay their passages, have frequently bound themselves for two or three years to those who paid for carrying them to America.

Letters from those who have been settled some years in America, to their friends in the mother countries, have long been a powerful cause of emigration. Money, also, is frequently sent by settlers in America, to enable their friends to follow, and by these means more have been induced to emigrate than by all others.

The following very prudent plan has long prevailed in Scotland, and, having been generally attended with success, can scarcely be recommended too much.

When a family, or a few families, determine on emigrating, some of the sons or relations that are

cess in every other branch of industry does) on his own industry and character. A worthy friend of mine, Ewen Cameron, Esq., of Prince Edward Island, owns a remarkably fine farm, within a few miles of Charlotte Town. He let it on the shares for three years, to a John Kennedy, from Perthshire, a plain, honest, industrious farmer; at the expiration of this period, Mr Cameron was in every respect pleased with Kennedy, and quite satisfied as to the produce of his farm. Kennedy, with his stock, removed to a wood farm, which, in 1828, when last in America, I passed in front of, and I could not help admiring how much land he had reclaimed from the forest, and under excellent tillage. Mr Cameron told me that since Kennedy left, his farm, under the management of the man who succeeded him, produced him nothing.

grown up, are sent forward to prepare for the reception of the families who are to follow afterwards. It often occurs that the young men thus sent to America have, for two or three years, to earn money, which they remit to pay the passages of their friends.

Young Irishmen, also, who have at different times found their way to America, have not unfrequently, by working for three or four years in the towns, or among the settlements, or by employing themselves in the fisheries, accumulated considerable sums of money, which have been forwarded to Ireland, in order to bring after them their parents, brothers, or sisters, and often young women to whom they were previously affianced or attached. This I know to be a very common trait in the character of the Irish peasantry, and no circumstance can illustrate a more powerful force of affectionate attachment.

The leading fault of Irish emigrants is their apparent indifference about fixing at once on the permanent and certain employment which the cultivation of the soil alone can secure to them. Transient labour among the old settlers seems more congenial to them than working on a wood farm on their own account. Exceptions, however, there are to this general observation ; and in comparing the condition of the Irish settlers in America with that of the peasantry in Ireland, I may say, without the least fear of being incorrect, that I have beheld more apparent wretchedness, and, I would infer, real misery, in one day's travelling in Ireland, than I have witnessed during several years' residence in, and while travel-

ling through the principal parts of, the British empire in North America.

In remarking generally on the condition of the inhabitants of our American colonies, as respects their means, none, except those engaged immediately or indirectly in commerce, have accumulated fortunes. The majority of the whole population possess considerable property in land and cattle; among the remainder, many are poor; but beggars are scarcely ever seen, unless it be in the towns, where some accidental calamity or natural infirmity brings occasionally a destitute individual to solicit charity. Many of the Irish emigrants are frequently observed begging, for a short time after landing.

The old settlers are not always discovered to be the most opulent, notwithstanding the advantages they have had of selecting the best lands. It is truly lamentable to observe the condition of some of those who have long occupied the finest farms, and whose poverty is the visible consequence of unsteadiness, extravagance, and often a silly species of pride that attaches contempt to rural industry. In each of the colonies I know many farmers of this character, who, before the month of May each year, have to purchase grain and potatoes from their more provident neighbours.

It is, however, most satisfactory to know, that, in every instance, the early settler who has confined his labour to agriculture, and who has managed the fruits of his toil with frugality and judgment, is

found to be respectably opulent, to have brought up his family in a creditable manner, and happy with his sons and daughters, commonly married and settled around him. In a contrary view, we find that those who only considered farming as a secondary employment, and engaged in other pursuits according as their fancy directed, have had poverty an ever-present attendant, with their families scattered in different places, subjected to a precarious subsistence, and often leading an irregular and indolent life.

As an example of a body of some hundreds of emigrants thriving by steady industry, I know of none who have succeeded better than those sent by the late Earl of Selkirk, in 1802, from the Highlands and Isles of Scotland to Prince Edward Island, where his lordship first began his colonizing experiments, by settling them along the sea-coast, on lands which he purchased in one of the finest districts of that colony. It would have been happy for those he sent to Red River, if they had been equally fortunate; and however good and honest his lordship's intentions were, and I believe them to have been so, he was undoubtedly imprudent in his measures and plans, in respect to the Red River settlement.\*

Many instances might also be pointed out in Upper Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Cape Breton, of the prosperity of emigrants who had to encounter all the hardships attached to a wilderness country, without money, or any support but what

\* Note F.



depended on their industry, to carry them through their difficulties.

Among other advantages connected with emigration to British America, the constitution of our colonies being a transcript of that of England, will be agreeable to most settlers. By the laws of England all criminal matters are judged; and, with the exception of Lower Canada, where civil causes are tried according to the *coutume de Paris*, or old French laws, all matters that involve property are decided agreeably to the English laws, and those passed by the provincial legislatures.

There are scarcely any taxes, and very few public burdens. Duties on articles of luxury are trifling, and on necessary articles there are rarely any; consequently, all that is required for supporting a family may be purchased at low rates, fine clothing excepted.\*

I have particularly to advise new settlers against running in debt to the shopkeepers; doing so has prevented many hard labouring men from prospering. The low price of spirituous liquors is also a great bane to the success of emigrants; and the facility with which rum can be procured, is the most prolific source of domestic misery and personal depravity that exists in America.

Wherever a settlement is formed, and some progress is made in the clearing and cultivation of the soil, it begins gradually to develop the usual features

\* Note G.

of an American village. First, a saw-mill, a grist-mill, and a blacksmith's shop appear ; then a school-house, and a place of worship ; and, in a little time, the village doctor, and pedlar with his wares, introduce themselves.

Few habitations can be more rude than those of the first settlers, which are built of logs, and covered with bark or boards, but many in the United Kingdom are far less comfortable. The most that an emigrant can do the first year, is to erect his habitation, and cut down the trees on as much ground as will be sufficient to plant ten or twelve bushels of potatoes, and to sow three or four bushels of grain. If his means will allow him to carry to the land he commences on, as much provisions as will support himself and family until he raises a crop, he will find it an object of the greatest importance, as it will enable him to overcome the difficulties of his situation, without leaving his farm to labour for others.

Much valuable time is wasted in working among the old settlers for provisions ; and if the emigrant should even succeed in getting articles of food on credit, it will long be a drawback on his industry.

In the course of five years, an industrious man may expect, and should have, twelve acres under cultivation, one horse, two or three cows, a few sheep and pigs, and sufficient food for himself and family. In ten years, the same man, with perseverance and frugality, ought to have from twenty-five to thirty acres under improvement, to possess a pair

of horses, a waggon or cart, a sledge and cabriole, five or six cows, a yoke of oxen, sheep, hogs, poultry, &c., and a comfortable house, a good barn, and plenty of food for himself and family. This is no extravagant calculation. I could name hundreds who began in a state of abject poverty, who, in the same period, accumulated, by steady industry, fully as much as I have stated.

On the other hand, I have witnessed the condition of many others, who were settled from five to fifty years in America, who scarcely possessed any of the necessaries of life ; but the cause I invariably traced to their improvident character and indolent habits.

## NOTES TO BOOK VI.

## NOTE AA, page 425.

THE practicability of a most advantageous intercourse across the continent of America, from Canada, was long since demonstrated by that very adventurous traveller, Sir Alexander M'Kenzie.

Mr M'Taggart, who was an engineer employed at the Redian Canal, observes, in his very instructive, although very quaintly written book, "but the grand Canadian Canal is not the Redian Canal, nor the Welland Canal. These are only sections of it, which are to be met with on the grand line between Quebec and the noble summit level of Lake Superior. This famous canal will be finished in a few years, as far as the summit level. Steam-boats may go up from Quebec to Lake Superior ere three years from this time; from thence, with little trouble, they will pass through the *Notch* of the Rocky Mountains, and be locked down the Columbia to the Pacific Ocean. The route, however, will be better to be kept off the American frontier, which is Columbia, and to go down Cook's River, or the large Salmon River at Nootka Sound. The town of Nootka is likely yet to be as large as London, and ought to be laid out on an extensive plan, as the trade between it and the Oriental World may become wonderfully great in a short time. Then, when the steam-packet line is established between Quebec and London, as it soon will be, we may come and go between China and Britain in about two months. The names of the stages will be London, Cove of Cork, the Azores, Newfoundland, Quebec, Montreal, Kingston, Port Dalhousie, Maitland, Erie, Huron, Superior, Rocky Mountains, Athabasea, Nootka, and Canton. Can this be called a foolish prophecy, or an idle dream? By no means, it is perfectly practicable. The magnitude of the whole may probably be too much for the minds of the generality

of mankind to grasp ; but what signifies that ? Were the work absolutely finished, millions would not believe it ! Pagans consider the sun in a different light from astronomers. The eyes of both are dazzled by his beams, while his real nature is unknown—as far beyond the understanding of man as he is in miles from the earth, and probably further.”

## NOTE A, page 440.

THE best method of illustrating the prosperity of settlers in America, is by stating instances of individual success. Among the settlers in New Brunswick, I had some conversation with an old Highlander, from Sutherlandshire, one of the soldiers of the 42d regiment, who were disbanded in America after the revolutionary war. This man had settled on the banks of the Nashwaack, and had scarcely ever since been absent from his farm, except occasionally with his overplus corn or potatoes to Frederickton. He retained his native language with as much purity as if he had never removed from the vale in which he was born, by which I immediately discovered where he came from ; the tone and accent of the Gaelic varying as much in one shire, or in one of the isles of Scotland, from the others, as the pronunciation of the inhabitants of the several counties in England does. When I addressed this good old man in his native language, his very soul seemed to feel all the rapture of early enthusiasm ; and I can never forget the bright warmth of his countenance, and the ardour of his language, when enquiring about the state of the Highlands, and the condition of his countrymen. He said, he used for the first few years to receive now and then letters from his friends, but that his relatives gradually dropped off, some by death, others by removal to distant countries ; and that for the last twenty years he had no direct intelligence from Sutherland. Never could his country, however, cease to be dear to him. “ Never,” said he, “ will we forget the tales, the songs, and the music we heard in the Highlands ; we recite or sing them during the winter evenings, and our children will ever remember them, and, I hope, transmit them to their offspring.” He said that although Government did much for them (his neighbours and

himself) in the way of rations, &c., they nevertheless suffered very great hardships for the first few years, after settling where they now live. "There were some idlers and faint-hearted people," he said, "among us, who left the settlement, but all those who have remained have prospered. I am myself as comfortable as I can be. All my family are married; some of them live with me; others have farms of their own. I have very little to do but enjoy myself among my children and my grandchildren; and although the best years of my manhood were spent fighting for my king, and the greatest part of my life, since that period, has been spent toiling for the support of my family, and for whatever I now possess, yet I have great reason," he continued, "to be thankful and grateful to God, in whom I trust for a peaceful and calm retreat, through my declining years, to another world." This is nearly a translation of what he said, but destitute of the force of expression so peculiar to the language in which he spoke,—that of nature.

About twenty years ago, a family from Ardnamurchan, among many other emigrants from Argyleshire, settled on a point of land on the north side of Prince Edward Island. This spot possessed not the advantages of marsh, or running streams, which are considered of such indispensable importance by all indolent farmers; but its soil was fertile, and covered with immense trees of birch, beech, and firs; and McMillan and his family were thrifty, and not afraid of hard work. They are at this day, therefore, as opulent and respectable as any farmers in the colony; the sons and daughters are married, and comfortably settled on their several farms, which they have purchased, and on which they have built good houses, barns, &c. The second son, who occupies the farm they first commenced on, and with whom his parents live, has built a handsome house, a large barn, different new outhouses, and has also his lands in a high state of cultivation. His cart, or sledge, appears once a-week, or oftener, in the market of Charlotte Town, with flour, grain, or other produce; while some old settlers, who have been forty years in the colony, and living on excellent farms, with plenty of marsh and fertile uplands, often come, with a bag under their arm, to buy wheat of Mr McMillan, before the month of May.

Among the settlers on the townships belonging to Sir James

Montgomery and his brother, I have frequently had the opportunity of observing the industrious progress of an old man of the name of Sinclair. He was upwards of sixty years when I saw him beginning in the woods. His family consisted of his wife, and two grown-up daughters; one of the latter usually spent three-fourths of the year at service; their means were limited, and they were obliged to live very frugally; but their industry overcame every difficulty. Recollecting the place thickly covered with trees in 1820, I was charmed with its pretty improvements when I rode past it four or five years afterwards; and never did I observe more forcibly the effects of well-applied industry.

A little farther on, near Sinclair's farm, a settler, who was formerly a tenant on Major-General Stewart's estate, Garth, in Perthshire, and who went to America, recommended by this brave officer to Sir James Montgomery's agent, has also made most extensive improvements. In the same settlement, a man of the name of Cairns, whom I observed the first year, with a rope over his shoulder, actually dragging after him the harrow which covered the seed, and who had at one time been in good circumstances in Dumfriesshire, but who arrived penniless in America, told me, that after surmounting the difficulties of the first two years, he had lived better, and that he considered himself much more independent, than he ever did in Scotland. Mr Dockendorff, one of the most respectable farmers in Prince Edward Island, with whom I have had frequent conversation respecting the condition of the inhabitants of the colonies, removed to it about forty years ago from the United States. He was then unmarried, and commenced clearing the farm which he now occupies, which was at that time covered altogether with trees that indicate a fertile soil. It is now one of the finest farms in North America.

His house is large, handsome, and comfortable; his barn, stable, &c., are commodious and well planned; his farming implements are ever in the best order; his horses, cattle, sheep, &c., always in excellent condition. He married, soon after he settled, a thrifty and worthy woman; and his family, whom he has brought up in a manner highly creditable, are extolled for regularity of character, and habits of thrift. He has often observed to me, that all the poverty in the colony, and generally in North America, was nothing more nor

less than the inevitable consequence of indolence, imprudence, and the absence of frugality. The poverty of such persons never surprised him. Every thing about this most worthy man, bespoke happiness and comfort; plenty, but not useless waste, always appeared at his table. Respected in the colony, a member of its legislature, and dear to his own family and friends, he more than once told me that he had nothing in this world to wish for that would increase his happiness; and that he thought no man could be more comfortable than he was. His strong mind, and good common sense, enabled him thus wisely to appreciate his condition; and if there be an independent and happy man on earth, one circumstanced like my friend Mr Dockendorff must be so.

NOTE B, page 451.

INCORPORATED associations, such as the Canada Company, are the best calculated to bring the capabilities of vast tracts of wilderness lands into operation, as well as to obviate a great portion of the difficulties which new settlers, depending solely on individual exertion, must encounter. There is much praise due to the Canada Company for the facilities which they have afforded to emigrants. The settlers on their lands have, in consequence, experienced much less misery than if they had commenced unprotected and unprovided for on wilderness lands, and they have also avoided the delay, vexation, and inconvenience, which attend the obtaining of lands from the Government.

NOTE C, page 454.

WE find in different parts of America, settlements nearly of distinct people. The gregarious propensity of men speaking the same language, and of similar habits, and also the ties of kindred, cause this circumstance. Those who first emigrate from home, describe, in writing to their friends, the country they settle in; and I have, all over America, discovered that the resident inhabitants of one place knew scarcely any thing of other parts, even of those in their vicinity.



Wherever a few families from any particular parish or shire went, others usually followed. Thus various parts of the Carolinas attracted swarms of emigrants from the Outer Hebrides, (Lewis, Uist, and Barra,) Sutherland, Argyleshire, and Ross-shire; Inverness-shire sent settlers to Georgia, to Nova Scotia, to Prince Edward Island, and to Cape Breton; Glengary, and some other places in Upper Canada, were first settled by people from Lochaber, Glengary, and Keppoch, in Scotland, who first emigrated to the southern colonies, but were afterwards forced away by the disturbances which attended the American revolution.

This was the visible course of emigration for some time after its commencement; and though in a more general way, and its distinct movements less observable, the same feelings still direct those who leave their mother land. More than 50,000 left the United Kingdom, for various parts of America, during the year 1830. About 30,000 of this number went to British America; the rest to the United States.

## NOTE D, page 459.

THE following extract from the late Passengers' act, may be useful to emigrants:—

“ 1. No ship to carry more than three persons for every four tons of its burden; and to have five feet and a half between platform and deck; two children under fourteen, or three under seven, or one child under one year, and the mother, to be computed as one passenger.

“ 2. Ship to be provided with fifty gallons pure water, and at least fifty pounds oatmeal, biscuit, &c., for each passenger.

“ 3. Ships having the full number of passengers, to carry no stores between decks; may occupy with stores between decks three cubic feet for each passenger less than the full number.

“ 4. Shipmasters to deliver a list of passengers to the customs at port of sailing, and furnish a similar list at port of landing.

“ 5. Shipmasters landing passengers anywhere else than agreed upon, liable to a penalty of L.20, to be recovered before any two justices of the peace

“ 6. Shipmasters not having the above quantity of water and bread, to be guilty of misdemeanour.

“ 7. Shipmasters to enter into bond for observance of the act.

“ 8. Act not to apply to Post Office ships, or to extend to Bahama Islands, or West Indies.”

NOTE E, page 461.

LANDS, in all the colonies, which remained unoccupied and held by the Crown, were, until lately, granted to emigrants, on paying certain fees of office to the governors, surveyor-general, &c., amounting to about L.12 on one hundred acres, and increasing to about L.15 for five hundred acres.

Such lands are now sold in lots, under the direction of the commissioner of Crown lands. These tracts are advertised in the colonial papers; and plans of them may be seen in the proper offices, at the seats of government in each colony. Although the lands sold in this way may not cost the emigrant more than the former fees of office, yet the system is considered, by most of those with whom I have conversed on the subject, very objectionable. Captain Hurd, surveyor-general of New Brunswick, now of Upper Canada, pointed out to me, in a very distinct manner, the inconvenience to emigrants of the present mode of settling the Crown lands.

There is more delay, and not so much liberty, in selecting any of the ungranted lands. As it is, however, the emigrant must make his application as early as possible, and he will at once be told how soon, and when, he can get lands; which will not likely be attended with much greater delay than may be necessary for him to acquire the requisite information about the local advantages of the lands pointed out to him. When he receives the proper titles to settle on the spot fixed upon, it will be well for him to set at once about clearing away so many of the trees as may be necessary, on the ground where he is to build a habitation for lodging his family. The nearest settlers usually assist in these operations.

Should it be too late in the season for the emigrant to plant any thing for himself the summer he arrives, which is generally the

case, he commonly labours for provisions, or other necessaries, among the old inhabitants.

A new settler, to be enabled to settle at once on his farm, and not to be afterwards obliged to work for others, in order to get provisions for his family, should have from fifty to eighty pounds in cash; this sum would include the probable purchase-money of the land, and the cost of necessary supplies. He should carry with him to his new farm, if his family consists of five persons,

Fifty bushels potatoes,	-	-	L.2	10	0
Two barrels flour,	-	-	3	10	0
One barrel rye, Indian, or oatmeal,	-	-	1	6	0
One barrel mackerel, and one barrel herrings,	-	-	2	0	0
Half barrel beef,	-	-	1	15	0
Five gallons molasses,	-	-	0	12	6
Three gallons rum,	-	-	0	12	0
Three pounds of tea,	-	-	0	15	0
Twelve pounds sugar,	-	-	0	8	0
One milch cow,	-	-	5	0	0
Two axes, four hoes, one saw, one or two planes, one adze, twenty or thirty pounds nails, two pots, one kettle, some tea-mugs, gridiron, fry- ing-pan, and some earthenware,	-	-	10	0	0
			<hr/>		
			L.28	8	6

He should, besides this, have as much money as will purchase seed.

The majority of settlers, however, have nothing but their industry to begin with; and, although they certainly suffer greater hardships, generally succeed as well as those who have a little means.

The old inhabitants would willingly allow an emigrant to settle on any part of their woodlands for six or eight years, in consideration of the improvements he should make. This, however, would be a most imprudent plan for the new settler. In Prince Edward Island, leases can still be had of good woodlands from the present proprietors, for nine hundred and ninety-nine years, at from one shilling to two shillings per acre annual-rent; and I believe these terms to be as favourable as any now to be had in America, especially when we consider the superior advantages of this colony. Woodlands can

also be purchased there for from L.50 to L.120 per hundred acres. In a few years, however, the lands in that island cannot be obtained on such favourable terms, as the population is increasing fast.

The mode in which lands are obtained from the Canada Land Company, may be seen by the following copy of a notice, published by Mr Galt, then agent for the Canada Company:—

“ To Emigrants arriving from the United Kingdom.

“ Notice is hereby given, that the Canada Company having completed their arrangements for the settlement of that extensive tract of country which lies between the districts of Gore and London, and the shores of Lake Huron, a road is being opened from the township of Wilmot to the mouth of the Red River, hereafter to be called the Maitland.

“ This road is in continuation of one leading through Waterloo from Guelph; and government is now opening another from Dundas to Guelph, by which route the journey from the head of Lake Ontario to Lake Huron may be performed in four or five days.

“ At the mouth of the Maitland, a town, to be called Goderich, will be founded in the course of the summer, as soon as the necessary surveys can be completed.

“ Along the road, from Wilmot to Goderich, the land, which is all of the best quality, will be sold in lots of one hundred acres each, for which, at the option of the purchasers, payment, at the rate of seven shillings and sixpence per acre, will be taken in cash, provisions, or labour on the roads, from the first two hundred heads of families who offer themselves as settlers; and supplies of provisions, and medical assistance, will be provided by the Company.

“ Saw and grist mills are building near the proposed site of Goderich.

“ Emigrants, or other persons desirous to embrace this advantageous opportunity of locating themselves, will please apply to the agents of the Company, in the following form, by whom they will be furnished with tickets, addressed to the Company's Office, at Guelph, where the application will be registered, according to the date of the presentation of the tickets.

(Signed)

“ JOHN GALT,

“ Canada Company's Office,

“ Superintendent.”

“ Guelph, May 28, 1828.”

“ No. To the Canada Company.

“ I am desirous of locating myself under the Company, in their Huron tract, by purchasing — acres, one hundred to be immediately abutting on the line of road leading from the township of Wilmot to the mouth of the River Maitland, and I will pay for the same as follows :—

“ (Here state whether in cash, and how ; or in provisions and teaming, or in labour.)

“ My family consists of                      persons ; my eldest child is                      years of age, and my youngest                      . I am a native of                      in                      ; by trade a                      . In my religion I am                      , and I am known to                      residing at                      .

“ N. B.—The applications are to be delivered in person, open, to the agents, viz :—

“ At Quebec,	John Davidson, Esq.
“ At Montreal,	Messrs Hart, Logan, and Co.
“ At New York,	J. C. Buchanan, Esq.
“ At Geneva, State of New York,	A. M. Nab, Esq.

“ Pultney Land Office.

“ Or, within the province of Upper Canada, to John Galt, Esq. superintendent for the Canada Company, York or Guelph.”

In alluding to the prosperity of new settlements, I might point out many in Upper Canada, among which I do not know of any more deserving of notice than that of Perth, forty-two miles north of the St Lawrence, on the banks of the Tay ; and those in the townships contiguous to it, the sites of which were in 1815 occupied by a gloomy forest of immense trees. The flourishing village of Perth, with many improving settlements, corn-fields, and meadows, now offer a more cheering and enlivening scene, and afford to man the articles that are necessary to support him in a comfortable manner.

On the River St John, the Cardigan settlement of Welsh emigrants is in a very prosperous condition ; and the settlement of New Bandon, on the shores of the Bay de Chaleur, consisting of Irish families, associating together by a kind of mutual compact, has flourished as rapidly as any that I know of.

In Nova Scotia, the Scotch settlements on the East River of

Pictou, and even those among the hilly districts of the country, have made rapid strides towards independence; and the Highlanders, also, who have settled within the Bras d'Or Lake, and along the sea-coasts of Cape Breton, are, at least those who have been located for three or four years, in tolerable circumstances, although they have not so much ambition to become comfortable as the English or Lowland Scotch.

In 1818, several families from Yorkshire arrived at Prince Edward Island, where they did not, on leaving England, intend to remain; but being delighted with the appearance of the colony, they applied to the agent of Sir James Montgomery, to give them leases of one hundred acres to some, and of two hundred acres of woodland to others, fronting on the road leading from Charlotte Town to Stanhope. The terms were, the first two years free, the third year at sixpence, the fourth at ninepence, and afterwards, for nine hundred and ninety-nine years, to continue at the annual rent of one shilling sterling per acre. A cow was also given by the proprietor to each of the settlers, to be paid for when their circumstances admitted. These people went to work with such determination, and economized their time and means with such prudence, that, in 1826, when I had occasion to go among them, they had each from fifteen to twenty acres of land cleared, and under excellent cultivation, one or two horses, four or five horned cattle, a few sheep, some pigs and poultry. They were allowed to name their settlement Little York, and I was delighted to observe the order in which they kept their agricultural implements, and the neatness and cleanliness of every thing about them reminded me of England.

The plan adopted by my friend Mr Cormack, when he planted the settlement of New Glasgow, which the following extract from a letter from him to me explains, has been successful:—

“ To secure a foundation to that settlement, [New Glasgow,] I encouraged and guarded the first settlers, until they had marked out and possessed the grounds, according to the notions with which they had left their native soil; and to secure its existence and prosperity afterwards, I supplied their wants so far as to enable them to labour on the land without working for others, and, by this measure, to make them feel attached to it as their own. Afterwards, I advanced

necessaries to them, not exceeding, altogether, the value of their improvements.

“*Edinburgh, 14th Feb. 1829.*”

NOTE F. page 466.

IN 1811, the late Earl of Selkirk obtained a grant of an extensive tract from the Hudson Bay Company, on the banks of the Red River, which is considered to be within the territory bestowed on that company by their charter from Charles the Second.

Long previous to, and at, the conquest of Canada, the French had posts established in this tract of country, and as far west as the River Saskatchewan; and the North-West Company, who succeeded the French, not only occupied these posts, but established others far beyond them.

The Hudson Bay Company at last claimed the territory through which the Red River flows, as its waters fell into the Hudson. The North-West Company rested their claim on their long possession of the country, as successors to the French, and on their discoveries, as well as on the good-will of the Indian tribes. Which had the best right, let lawyers determine; but in 1812, Lord Selkirk, with, I believe, the most upright intentions, sent Mr Miles MacDonal, formerly a captain in the Queen's Rangers, to the forks of the Red River, in 57° north latitude, and 97° west longitude, and about fifty miles from Lake Winipic, for the purpose of erecting houses, &c., before the arrival of emigrants.

In the following year, about one hundred settlers arrived; and the settlement was named Kildonan, being the name of the parish in Sutherland from whence they came. Eighty to ninety followed them next year. His lordship sent light fieldpieces, guns, ammunition, and various stores, up with the first settlers.

The breaking up of this settlement, the brutality of the *Bois brûlés*, (half-breeds,) the massacre of Governor Semple, and of a great number of those with him, have already been fully before the public.

Lord Selkirk went himself afterwards to Red River, with part of De Meuron's and De Watteville's German regiments. He there

acted as a magistrate ; but he was soon after most unjustly arrested. On returning from Red River, the great fatigue, and the privations he endured, no doubt accelerated his death, which happened soon after in France. He was certainly imprudent in attempting to plant and establish an inland colony at so great a distance from a settled country ; and particularly until the respective claims of the Hudson Bay and North-West Companies were adjusted ; yet his measures were great, and founded on what he considered honourable principles. He on all occasions provided for the comforts of those he sent to his settlements ; and the disastrous fate of Kildonan was altogether occasioned by the rivalry of two trading associations now united.

The lands on the banks of the Red River are not covered with trees. The rivers abound with fish ; the plains with buffaloes ; the neighbouring forests with elk, deer, and various kinds of game.

Note G. page 467.

Computed prices of various articles, and the wages of labour in the British American colonies.

A horse, from L.10 to L.25 ; some of the finest horses as high as L.40.

A foal, six months old, L.5 to L.7.

A cow, from L.4 to L.6.

A pair of good oxen, the four quarters of each of which should weigh 700 lb. to 800 lb., L.16 to L.20.

A milch cow and calf, in the spring, L.5 to L.7.

A calf of six months old, about L.1.

A good wether sheep, 16s. to 20s.

Scarcely any fixed price for pigs, as it depends on the breed and age ; but the value may be considered one-third less than in England.

Turkeys, 2s. to 5s.

Geese (fat and stubble-fed), 2s. to 2s. 6d.

Fowls are very cheap.

Beef, fresh, 2½d. to 4½d. per lb.

Pork, fresh, 2½d. to 4½d. per lb.



A barrel of spring herrings, 12s.

A barrel of fall ditto, very fat, 15s. to 17s. 6d.

A barrel of mackerel, very rich, and considered in a family equal to a barrel of pork, 15s. to 22s.

Cod-fish, per cwt. 12s. to 15s.

A barrel of salmon, 40s. to 50s.

Fresh cod-fish, weighing about 15 lb., 6d. each.

Lobsters and oysters are abundant, and may be had cheap along the sea-coast and bays. A vast variety of fish, such as halibut, haddock, trout, shad, bass, eels, &c., are abundant, but are generally caught by the inhabitants for their own use, and not often put up for sale.

Flour, 2d. to 3d. per lb.

In Upper Canada, where far from market, wheat 2s. to 3s. 6d.

In the Lower Provinces, wheat 4s. 6d. to 5s. 6d.

Barley, 2s. 6d. to 3s. 6d. per bushel.

Oats, 1s. 3d. to 1s. 9d.

Indian corn or maize, 3s. 6d. to 4s. 6d.

Indian meal, 12s. to 16s. per cwt.

Hay, 30s. to 70s. per ton of 20 cwt.

Potatoes, 1s. to 1s. 6d. per bushel.

Turnips, 1s. to 1s. 6d. per bushel.

Butter, 8d. to 1s. per pound.

Rum, 3s. to 3s. 6d. per gallon.

Brandy, 9s. to 11s. ditto.

Gin, 5s. to 7s. per ditto.

Tea (good), 4s. to 6s. per lb.

Sugar (Muscovado), 5d. to 8d. per pound.

These prices are in Halifax currency, which is one-ninth less in value than British; and the rate of exchange generally reduces the value one-tenth more.

British manufactures cost the consumer from fifty to seventy-five per cent more than in England.

A day-labourer may, in the towns, where, however, he cannot depend on steady employment, get from three to four shillings per day, finding his own lodgings and provisions. A labourer among the farmers in the country may always get L.18 to L.24 a-year, and his board and lodgings found him.

Ship-carpenters' wages were exorbitant four or five years ago, having L.6 to L.8 per month, and provisions, lodgings, and grog given them besides.

In Quebec, St John's, and a few other places, provisions were not included; but the difference of wages was made equivalent; scarcely any of these men, however, had sufficient prudence to save their earnings, and are now much less employed.

Joiners, who find their own provisions, receive from 6s. to 7s. per day. Blacksmiths, stone-masons, shoemakers, and tailors, are usually paid so much for what they do, and the price of their labour is generally very high.

Wages of labour, and the prices of articles, vary in America as they do in England; the foregoing, however, may be considered as the general rates.

END OF VOLUME FIRST.

---

EDINBURGH:  
PRINTED BY BALLANTYNE AND COMPANY,  
PAUL'S WALK, CANONGATE.

ars ago,  
nd grog

ns were  
ivalent ;  
to save

7s. per  
re usu-  
labour is

erica as  
dered as

