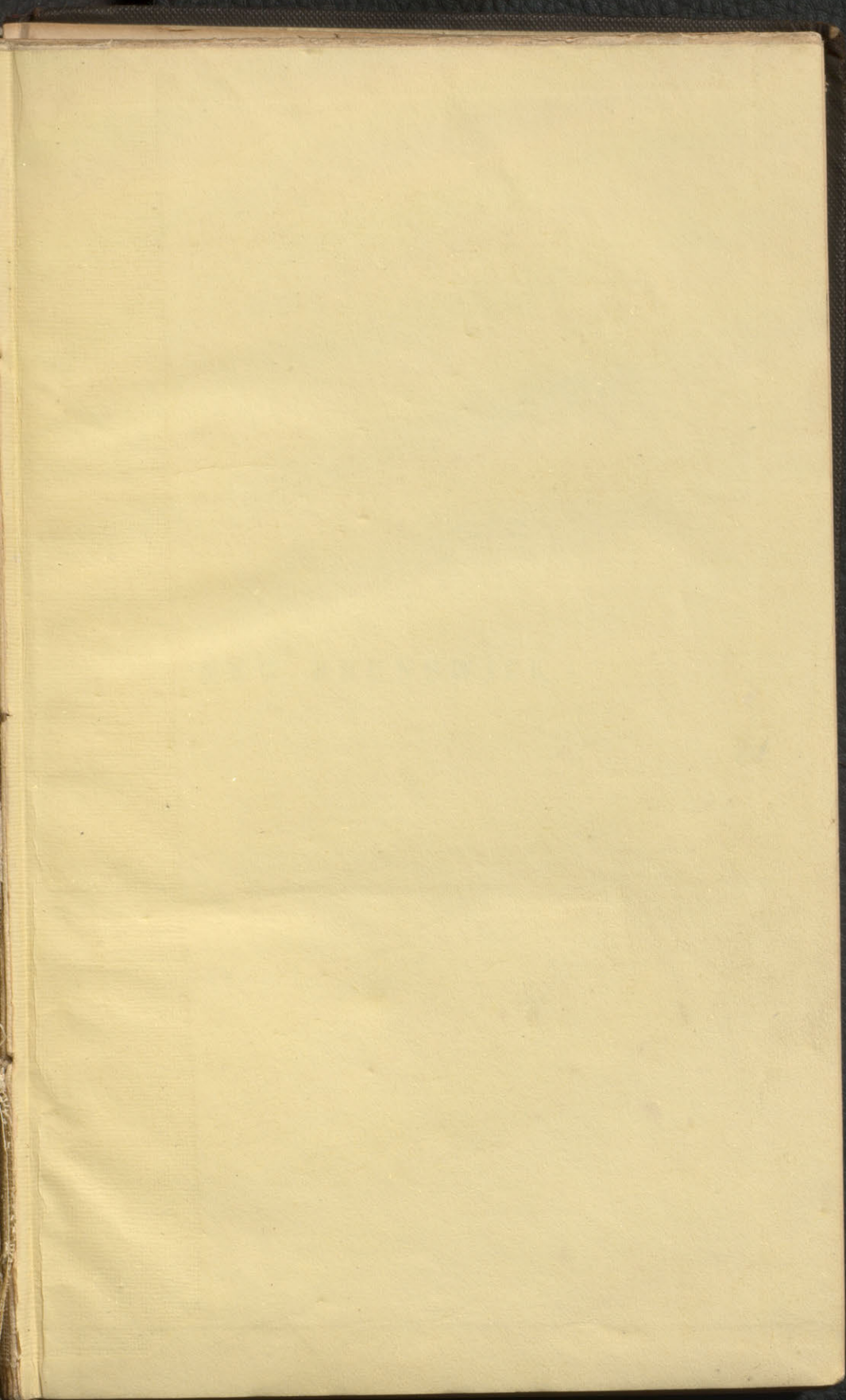


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NEW BRUNSWICK.

NEW BRUNSWICK;

WITH

Notes for Emigrants.

COMPREHENDING THE EARLY HISTORY, AN ACCOUNT OF THE INDIANS, SETTLEMENT, TOPOGRAPHY, STATISTICS, COMMERCE, TIMBER, MANUFACTURES, AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES, GEOLOGY, NATURAL HISTORY, SOCIAL AND POLITICAL STATE, IMMIGRANTS, AND CONTEMPLATED RAILWAYS OF THAT PROVINCE.



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LONDON: SIMMONDS & WARD,

6, BARGE YARD, BUCKLESBURY.

1847.

NEW BUNSWICK

Notes for Emigrants

CONSTITUTION OF THE EMIGRANTS' ASSOCIATION, AND THE
MANNER OF THE ASSOCIATION'S CONDUCT, FROM THE
FIRST YEAR OF ITS EXISTENCE, TO THE PRESENT
TIME. WITH A LIST OF THE MEMBERS, AND A
DESCRIPTION OF THE STATE OF THE ASSOCIATION.

LONDON:

PRINTED BY H. I. STEVENS, PHILPOT LANE, FENCHURCH STREET.

THE LONDON AND WESTMINSTER

LONDON: RICHMOND & WILKINSON

P R E F A C E .

THE Author of the Work now submitted to the public was employed by the Government of New Brunswick five years in making a Geological Survey of that Province. During that period, he had the most favourable opportunities of making himself acquainted with the climate, topography and resources of the country, and also with the habits and industry of its inhabitants. His Geological Reports, published by the Provincial Legislature, were necessarily devoted to science, and to the description of the mineral wealth of the Province: the present Work embraces all the information acquired during the performance of the above public service, and will be found to contain, with a brief history, a full description of the Colony.

No previous Work of the kind has ever appeared. New Brunswick formed a part of ancient Acadia, or Nova Scotia, until 1784, when it was made a separate Province; and in the general Histories of North America, it has not been noticed in a degree equal to its present importance and value as a part of Her Majesty's Colonial Possessions.

With but a very imperfect knowledge of the country, some writers have pronounced its climate to be rather unfavourable to the health of Europeans, its seasons too cold for vegetation, and its atmosphere involved in dense fogs. To correct these and similar errors is an object of much importance, and to lay

before the British Public, for whom this Work is chiefly designed, a correct account of the Province, the resources of which offer a wide field for Emigration, and the advantageous employment of British capital cannot fail to be useful to the country itself, and to the Empire of which it forms a part.

The value and resources of the British North American Colonies are still imperfectly known: their vast extent, the variety of climate, and the almost unexplored forests, will constantly yield some new and valuable objects of enterprise to which the energies of the redundant population and dormant wealth of the Mother-country may be applied, and thereby increase individual happiness and national prosperity.

Many of the errors that have been committed in negotiations with Foreign States, and in establishing a system of Colonial policy, have arisen from an imperfect knowledge of the Provinces. To extend sound information of all the Colonies is very desirable, and more especially is it so for New Brunswick, of which comparatively little is known on the opposite side of the Atlantic.

Notwithstanding the inhabitants of Great Britain have expended sums almost beyond computation in public improvements both at home and abroad, such is the elevated state of the nation, that she still abounds in wealth, and new sources of riches and prosperity are yearly unfolding themselves to her subjects. Accumulations of money have been to many the origin of uneasiness, and to discover how they may be safely employed has called forth the exercise of much ability and ingenuity. There can be no doubt that the Colonies offer the best and most productive field for the application of the inactive capital of the Parent-country, and also for her overflowing population.

Happily, the value of the British North American Colonies to the Empire is becoming more and more apparent; nor can they be too highly estimated for affording strength and security to the nation, an outlet for her stagnant population and manu-

factures, or for supplying the elements of industry to millions of her subjects. With such views, the Author has been deeply impressed with the importance and responsibility of his task, which he has endeavoured to accomplish without bias or partiality.

The topographical and other descriptions have been derived from personal observation; and the remarks in reference to Emigration are from the same source, and from experience in forming new Settlements. The materials for the early history of New Brunswick have been principally taken from Hackluyt, L'Escarbot, Charlevoi, the History of Massachusetts, and Haliburton's History of Nova Scotia. The accounts of the first settlements of the English in the Province were involved in much obscurity; the chapter on that subject was compiled from public documents, authentic narratives, and old manuscripts, a number of which were very kindly supplied by JAMES WHITE, Esq., Sheriff of St. John. The works of Mr. M'Gregor, Mr. Murray, and others, with the writings of Mr. Cooney and the Author of the Notitia of New Brunswick, have also been consulted.

The tables that refer to the industry, commerce, and resources of the Province have been drawn from works of established authority, and the Journals of the Legislature; and much pains have been taken to render them correct.

The Author has to acknowledge very gratefully the obligations he owes to the Hon. JOHN S. SAUNDERS, Provincial Secretary, and to the Hon. THOMAS BAILEY, Surveyor-General: to the latter he is indebted for valuable information in reference to the quantity of Crown land contained in each county, and the regulations adopted for its disposal. His acknowledgments are likewise due to H. BOWYER SMITH, Esq., Collector of H. M. Customs at John, and to BEVERLY ROBINSON, Esq., Provincial Treasurer, for their assistance in completing the tables of the trade and revenues of New Brunswick. An account of the pre-

vailing diseases of St. John was supplied by Dr. LIVINGSTONE of that place: to him and other Gentlemen in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the Author presents his sincere thanks for the interest they have taken in this Work.

To exhibit the geography of the Province advantageously, a Map has been prepared that embraces Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, and part of Canada, and which also shows the line between New Brunswick and the United States as established by the late Treaty of Lord Ashburton. The scenery of the Province, and several subjects, are illustrated by very correct drawings, for which the Author expresses his best thanks to J. E. WOOLFORD, Esq., of Fredericton.

Comprehensive Notes for Emigrants have been introduced in the body and at the close of the Work, and such details have been given as will direct them in their settlement in the Province. In the topographical descriptions, pains have been taken to convey correct representations in regard to the nature of the climate, soil, fisheries, timber, minerals, sites for manufactures, and other physical resources.

Neither Railways nor any other extensive public works have ever been introduced into New Brunswick, although the period has arrived when her population, trade, and industry call for increased facilities of overland transportation. Remarks on the contemplated Railway between Halifax and Quebec, and others, have been offered, and the Author's views respecting the several Lines proposed are the result of actual observation of the country they are intended to intersect.

From the nature of the Work, the Chapters on the Geology and Natural History of the Province are necessarily brief. The former is condensed from the Author's more voluminous Reports, and both are intended to be practically useful, rather than to appear as scientific descriptions.

In 1783, the population of all the British Colonies in North America was only 193,000; in 1836, it was 1,651,500; by care-

ful estimation, it is now 2,208,500. Their capital has been estimated at £75,000,000, and the public revenue at £1,250,000. The shipping tonnage exceeds 2,000,000 tons, which is manned by 150,000 seamen and fishermen. The amount of consumption of British manufactured goods is nearly £7,000,000 sterling per annum. Excepting the most northern parts of this vast territory, which supply fish, timber, and furs, the climate, soil, and resources of the country are equal to those of Great Britain, and the Fisheries are the richest in the world.

Now that the Atlantic is freely navigated by steam, to unite these Colonies by a line of Railway along the whole British frontier is an object of the highest national importance. Such a work would form a common bond of union between each of the Provinces and the Mother-country, and, in any emergency, supply ample means of defence against invasion. The loyalty and attachment of these Colonies to the Parent State is firmly established, and, by a wise system of national policy, it may be long maintained. If to this are added free communications and general improvements, England will be as firmly established on this side of the Atlantic as on the other, and no event under the influence of human agency can ever relax her foothold upon the Great Continent.

Cornwallis, Nova Scotia,
October, 1846.

the country, it is now \$1,000,000. The capital has been
 reduced to \$750,000 and the population to 21,500,000.
 The shipping tonnage exceeds 2,000,000 tons, which is nearly
 100,000 tons more than the United States. The amount of consumption
 of British manufactured goods is nearly \$1,000,000,000 every year.
 In fact, the most northern part of this vast empire
 is now exporting the most northern part of the United States
 and the United States are the market for the goods of Great Britain.

It is not only the most northern part of the United States
 that is now exporting the most northern part of the United States
 but the United States are the market for the goods of Great Britain.
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NEW BRUNSWICK.

NOTICE.

A MAP of the Province was intended to have been given with the Work, but, owing to an accident to the Plate while in the hands of the Engraver, it could not be got ready in time, and it was thought impolitic to delay the publication to have a new Map engraved.

At a period when the nations of Europe had greatly enriched themselves by their industry and commerce, and the ambition of their sovereigns could scarcely be gratified except by encroachments made upon the dominions of each other, the discovery of America was to them the discovery of a New World, and England, France, and Spain began to vie with each other in taking possession of and colonising the newly-found continent.

The discovery of land in the Northern Hemisphere seemed like a new creation. The animals and plants, the climates, the oceans, seas, rivers, and lakes, were found to be different from those of civilised Europe. The heavens displayed new wonders to the astronomer, and

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NEW BRUNSWICK.

CHAPTER I.

REMARKS ON BRITISH AMERICA.

BRITISH AMERICA comprises a part of the vast continent situated between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The discovery of a number of the West India Islands was made by Columbus in 1492; but the great continent itself was unknown to Europeans until 1497, when it was visited by Cabot, a British navigator, while seeking a Western passage to India. Although Columbus was the first to discover land upon the coast of America, the name of the continent was given by Americus Vespucius, who succeeded the first Western navigator, and, by his address, obtained an honour which was justly due to his predecessor.

At a period when the nations of Europe had greatly enriched themselves by their industry and commerce, and the ambition of their sovereigns could scarcely be gratified except by encroachments made upon the dominions of each other, the discovery of America was to them the discovery of a New World, and England, France, and Spain began to vie with each other in taking possession of and colonising the newly-found continent.

The discovery of land in the Northern Hemisphere seemed like a new creation. The animals and plants, the climates, the oceans, seas, rivers, and lakes, were found to be different from those of civilised Europe. The heavens displayed new wonders to the astronomer, and

all nature presented itself under forms with which the early voyagers were unacquainted. Gold and silver had been brought from the mountains; while the size and strength of the timber, the fertility of the soil, and the abundance of fish in the waters, filled the minds of the first adventurers with wonder and delight.

The whole of the immense continent, wherever it was explored, was found to be occupied by numerous tribes of human beings, who were also unlike the inhabitants of Europe. The title of these tribes to the soil had never been disputed; but they were now to be driven back, step by step, until their names and places of abode should nowhere be known. The treachery, injustice, and cruelty with which these simple aborigines were treated by the early Colonists, forms some of the darkest pages in the history of the world; and although their final release of the lands of their forefathers, and their almost utter annihilation, are among those momentous events permitted by Providence for the extension of human industry and happiness, and for the worship of the true God, it is the bounden duty of every civilised nation to lessen their pains, and to bring into peace and contentment the remnants of the tribes they have dispossessed of their unalienable rights, and to whom, in return, they have conveyed the poison of disease and the evils of intemperance.

The spirit of colonisation had prevailed nearly three centuries, in which period there were numerous conflicts between England and France for territory, which each power claimed as its own. In the same time, British and other European emigrants and their descendants had established themselves along an extensive line of the Atlantic coast, until they gained a power that refused to be restrained by the laws and usages of their forefathers. Revolt from the European Governments commenced. The British Colonists took up arms against the mother-country, and won their independence. Their example has since been imitated by the inhabitants of South America, where the struggles to throw off the control of foreign sovereignty have scarcely terminated. The Revolutionary War in the British Colonies reflects but little credit upon the British Parliament or the Colonists in America; it has, nevertheless, rendered that part of the continent which still belongs to Great Britain more secure than it would have been if

such a revolution had not taken place; for the great number of loyalists that removed from the revolted States to Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, have been succeeded by a population that is firmly attached to the Crown and laws of the Empire.

British America includes all that part of the Northern Continent which was not given up by treaty to the Republic of the United States at the close of the Revolutionary War, and also all the territory discovered and occupied by British subjects since that period. This region embraces more than one-third of the entire continent. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, and extends westward to the 141st degree of longitude, where it meets the territory of Russia, as settled by treaty in 1825. Its northern limits approach nearly the 70th parallel of latitude, and all the islands in the Arctic Sea belong to England by right of discovery. The Atlantic Ocean forms its eastern limits, from the Straits of Fury and Hecla, in latitude 70° North, to the mouth of the St. Croix, in latitude $45^{\circ} 5'$ North. The islands along the coast also belong to Great Britain. The southern boundary of this immense territory runs along an irregular line from the St. Croix to the St. Regis on the St. Lawrence, sixty miles above Montreal. From thence the river and the great chain of Canadian lakes separate the British from the American Possessions. From the head of Lake Superior, the line runs to the north-western angle of the Lake of the Woods, in latitude $49^{\circ} 20''$ North, and thence across the continent to the Rocky Mountains, beyond which it has not been certainly determined. The British Possessions in North America are therefore situated between the parallels of $41^{\circ} 47''$ and 78° North latitude, and between the 52nd and 141st of West longitude, and include an area of 4,000,000 square miles. They embrace the Provinces of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, the regions of Hudson's Bay and Labrador, and the Islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, and Anticosti.*

The claims of Great Britain to certain parts of this region have recently been disputed by the American Government. The contention

* "An Historical and Descriptive Account of British America," by Hugh Murray, 3 vols. 16mo, Edinburgh 1839, vol. i. pp. 18, 19.

that existed with reference to a tract of wilderness country situated between New Brunswick and the State of Maine, and which was likely to result in a war between the two nations, was settled by treaty, through the mediation of Lord Ashburton, at Washington, on the 9th of August, 1842. This subject will again be adverted to in another chapter.

The claims of the Americans to a part of the Oregon Territory, situated west of the Rocky Mountains, still remain unsettled; and the longer they continue unadjusted, the greater will be the difficulties in establishing a boundary between the two nations. An example of this kind has been afforded in the delay of fixing the line between the State of Maine and the British Provinces, by which the Americans have gained a large tract of excellent land upon a comparatively recent claim.

The climates of the northern parts of British America are too severe for agriculture, and vast tracts are buried beneath perpetual snows. These northern regions are nevertheless valuable for the furs they produce, and the excellent fisheries along their coasts. In the southern districts of this great territory, the climates are mild and the soil fertile. Almost the entire surface of the earth is still covered with dense forests, which often reach to the tops of the mountains, and exhibit all their primeval features, except where fires have swept over the surface; and even there, the soil is soon replenished with a new growth of forest trees.

Along the coasts, rivers, and lakes, the hand of industry has cleared the timber from large tracts of the virgin soil; and there are wide savannahs, prairies, and bogs, which produce chiefly the grasses, ferns, and sphagneous plants, that supply food for herds of elk, reindeer, and other wild animals still thriving unmolested in their native deserts. But these tracts are very limited in comparison with the immense districts still covered with wood of gigantic growth. On this wide area civilisation advances but slowly, and century after century will pass away before it will reach the limits of the productive soil.

The light bark-canoe of the Indian is the only vessel that navigates many a noble stream; and, even in the Province of New Brunswick, steamboats of considerable burden may ply upon rivers, the shores of which have never been granted by the Government, but still display

the wild and unchanged scenery of a country where the sounds of a European language are never heard, nor the soil disturbed by the labour of man.

Although the mountains of North America are much inferior in altitude to those of the South, there is no part of the world where nature presents more sublime and beautiful scenery. The mighty St. Lawrence, with a chain of inland seas—the St. John, that nearly crosses the peninsula between the Bay of Fundy and Quebec, and other rivers of the inhabited parts of British America, whether considered as channels of navigation or as objects of beauty, always call forth the admiration of strangers, and the scenery along their banks is peculiarly rich and imposing. The Canadian lakes are the largest and deepest in the world. Lake Superior is 360 miles in length, 140 miles at its greatest breadth, and 1500 miles in circumference; and it has been estimated by Capt. Bayfield, that its surface is 627 feet above the level of the Atlantic Ocean. The smallest lakes of the great chain are capable of affording space for the movements of large fleets; and, like the ocean, they are tossed into lofty waves, that never cease to roll upon their fertile borders.

Then there is the great Cataract of Niagara, where the surplus waters of the great inland basins are poured over a stupendous precipice, producing a fall that far surpasses any other on the face of the globe. Next in magnitude is the great fall of the St. John. The Falls of Montmorenci, near Quebec, and those of the Nepisiquit, in New Brunswick, although inferior in magnitude, are sublime and beautiful objects. The tides of the Bay of Fundy, which at one place rise no less than 78 feet, are also remarkable. The Grand Banks of Newfoundland, which have evidently been produced by the gulf-stream that runs along the Atlantic coast, and affords the most extensive fishery ever known, may also be reckoned among the wonders of the New World.

The accounts given by the native savages and early voyagers of the numerous and valuable productions of the country, and its great natural curiosities, were well calculated to infuse a spirit of enterprise in the European nations, who all seemed eager to reap the advantages offered by the discovery of a new continent. But the ambition of these powers

soon precipitated them into wars, which greatly retarded the settlement of the new Colonies in America, and nearly exterminated the native inhabitants of the great continent. The Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were recently united, and they now form a country whose productions and population exceed those of the maritime districts. They have long been the resort of emigrants from Great Britain, while the climate, soil, and resources of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have been overlooked. The numerous valuable fisheries along the coast and in the bays have also been neglected, and left unprotected from foreign aggression.

British America offers perfect relief to the overflowing population of the mother-country, whose manufacturing districts and most productive counties have become so overloaded with the humbler classes, that the least disturbance in the state of trade produces the greatest degree of misery and crime. To remove this monstrous burden from the cultivated to the uncultivated parts of the British Empire, is a work of great national importance, and one that calls loudly for universal benevolence.

The history of the aboriginal inhabitants of North America is involved in great obscurity. From tradition, relics, &c., some have supposed that the continent was originally peopled from the north-east; but it is far more probable that it was first occupied by emigrants from Asia, from which America is only separated by the Straits of Bering. The relics of the North American Indians consist chiefly of axes, knives, arrow-heads, and pots made of stone. These are frequently found in their graves—it being the custom of many tribes to bury with the deceased the implements they had used in their lifetime.

A far more interesting class of relics is seen in the *tumuli*, forts, walls, mounds, hearths, &c., found in North America. It is evident that the people who erected these works were far more civilised, and better acquainted with the arts, than any of the present Indian tribes. Those ancient works are found scattered over the great plains between the southern shore of Lake Erie and the Gulf of Mexico, and along the banks of the great rivers, which in ancient times appear to have had towns and cities along their borders. Many of these mounds and fortifications are now covered with a lofty growth of timber, and more

than a thousand years are supposed to have elapsed since they were erected.

Dried human bodies, resembling mummies, have also been found in the caves of Kentucky; and it is by no means improbable, that they were contemporaneous with the works of art found in the Western States. Similar relics are also discovered in Texas, New Mexico, and South America; but it appears that the northern parts of the great continent were inhabited at a later date, for in them these relics of civilisation entirely disappear, and nothing is found that throws any light upon the history of America, except a few rude implements of the savages.

The present work is intended to give an account of the Province of New Brunswick, from its first settlement up to the present time, and to make its resources better known. The Colony is one of great importance, with regard both to its intrinsic value and the steadfast loyalty of its inhabitants; and to place it in its true light before the British public, will be the chief object of the following pages.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF NEW BRUNSWICK AS FORMING A PART OF ANCIENT ACADIA.

THE Province of New Brunswick did not exist as a Colony previous to the American Revolution. The French had always considered it a part of New France, or Acadia, and therefore its history is comprehended in that of Nova Scotia until 1784, when it was formed into a separate Government.

The histories of all new countries, or such as are inhabited by an uncivilised people, must necessarily be very limited, and, from the lack of written records, they can never extend beyond the tradition of the aborigines. From the continued perils and hardships the first settlers in the North American Provinces were compelled to endure, little pains were bestowed by them on the preservation of records which would have been highly useful and interesting to succeeding generations. That part of American history which is filled by an account of New Brunswick is comparatively small; nevertheless, the following facts, collected from a variety of sources, will doubtless be of some interest.

During the reign of Henry VII., John Cabot, a Venetian navigator, believed in the possibility of finding a western passage to India, and the discoveries previously made by Columbus had excited a spirit of enterprise favourable to an inquiry of so much importance to the Eastern World. Accordingly, on the 5th of March, 1496, His Majesty granted a commission to Cabot and his sons Sebastian, Lewis, and Sacnuis, with full authority under English colours to take possession of all the countries they might discover unknown to Christians.

Two caravels and five ships were fitted out by the Western navigator and his friends. These vessels were supplied with articles of traffic

by the merchants of London and Bristol. With this little fleet and three hundred men, Cabot and his son Sebastian sailed from Bristol early in May 1497. While pursuing a western course in the hope of reaching the China Seas without being arrested in their progress, on the 24th of June they were surprised by the appearance of land.

The land thus first discovered was evidently a part of Labrador, which they called *Prima Vista*. Galvanus* says that the land first discovered by Cabot was in latitude 45°; and as they coasted to the northward, they must have gone into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, in pursuit of the supposed Northern passage. During this part of their voyage, they discovered an island where they first became acquainted with the savages of America. This island they called St. John (now Prince Edward's Island), whence they carried away ten of the natives to England.† They then sailed northward to latitude 67° 30"; but being disappointed in not finding the passage he was in quest of, Cabot altered his course, and steered to the south along the coast, to the land now called Florida.

From these discoveries, and the actual settlement of two Englishmen by the name of Gilbert on the western side of the Bay of Fundy (now New Brunswick), in 1607, the English claimed America by right of discovery and possession. The discovery of the Western Continent was thus made five years before Columbus had extended his observations beyond the islands of the Gulf of Mexico. In consequence of the failing of his provisions, and a mutiny that broke out among his seamen, Cabot was compelled to return to England, where it appears the success of the voyage was not such as afforded any stimulus to other adventurers.

The French were the next to visit the new continent. In 1518, Baron

* It was formerly supposed that Newfoundland was the first-discovered coast on the continent of America; but it appears from the relative positions of the different places named by historians, that the land in question was Labrador, and that the land opposite was Newfoundland, named St. John, and not Prince Edward's Island, as some have believed. The white bears found at Labrador by the *voyageurs* decide in favour of that place, as they do not exist on the islands farther south.

† Haliburton's History of Nova Scotia, vol. i. page iv.

de Lery, a Frenchman, landed cattle at Isle du Sable, and made an attempt to open a settlement at Canseau; but in this object he was unsuccessful. In 1525, Varrazzand, a Frenchman, and Gomez, a Spaniard, coasted the shores from Newfoundland to Florida, and landed in Nova Scotia; but they made no attempt to settle the country.

In 1534, Jacques Cartier landed at Bay Chaleurs, and took possession of the country in the name of the King of France. It is probable that he and his people were the first Europeans who landed in that part of Acadia now called New Brunswick. Cartier fortified Cape Breton in 1541.

It was not until 1579 that any attempt was made by the English to extend the discoveries of Cabot, or to establish a Colony in the Western World. In the above year, Queen Elizabeth granted to Sir Humphrey Gilbert a patent for discovering, occupying, and settling "such remote heathen and barbarous countries as were not actually possessed by any Christian people." Sir Humphrey lost one of his ships in a storm immediately after she had put to sea, and after returning home his circumstances were so much reduced that he was compelled to sell his estate. On the 11th of June, 1583, he sailed again from Plymouth with five ships and 250 men; and on the 11th of July he arrived at Newfoundland, of which he took formal possession in behalf of the Crown of England. His commission was read at St. John's before a number of merchants who had gone there to trade, and the masters of thirty-six vessels of different nations. Obedience was promised by the people, and a pillar was erected bearing an engraving of the Queen's arms. Public worship was introduced according to the mode of the Established Church of England. A tax was levied on all the ships, and treasonable words were to be punished by the loss of ears and the confiscation of the property of the offender.*

Sir Humphrey sailed from Newfoundland on the 20th of August, with three ships—the Delight, the Golden Hind, and the Squirrel. The Delight was wrecked on the Isle of Sable; and the Squirrel, which he commanded in person, foundered in a violent storm, and every soul on board perished. The unfortunate vessel was spoken at the time of

* Haliburton, vol. i. page 7.

her peril. Sir Humphrey was seen sitting with a book in his hand, and he was heard to call out to his companions, "We are as near heaven by sea as by land." During the night, the signal lights of his ship suddenly disappeared, and he, with his whole crew, was buried in the ocean.* Sir Humphrey Gilbert was a man of more than ordinary strength and stature. His appearance at once commanded esteem and veneration. He was celebrated for his genius and learning, courage and patriotism, and Queen Elizabeth had honoured him by peculiar marks of royal favour. With him perished Stephen Permanius, a learned Hungarian whose friendship for the Admiral had induced him to undertake the voyage.

Sir John Gilbert, the brother of Sir Humphrey, to whose title he succeeded, was the next to attempt the opening of a settlement on the North American Continent. In 1607, by the aid of Sir John Popham, he fitted out a fleet, and arrived in safety at the mouth of the Sagadahock, or Kenebec river, and spent a winter on a small island which contained only about eight acres. At this place the nobleman died, and his company, having suffered great distress, returned to England in the following year.

In the mean time, the French were jealous spectators of the attempt made by the English to colonise the New World, and Cartier, Roberval, and other Frenchmen visited Canada, thereby giving France a claim to the territory of the St. Lawrence. By the labours of these persons, a lucrative trade was opened with the natives, and the fisheries along the coast had attracted numbers of adventurers from the different nations of Europe.

Under the protection of Henry IV. the Marquis de la Roche sailed from France in 1598 with a number of convicts, whom he landed on the almost barren Isle of Sable, in the hope of making a settlement. He then proceeded to Nova Scotia; but having met with several disasters, he returned to France, leaving the miserable convicts on the island, where there was neither fresh water, fuel, nor a soil capable of producing anything but thorns and thistles. After these unfortunate people had been upon the island seven years, they were taken off by

* Hackluyt, vol. iii. p. 155-158.

Chetodel, who had been a pilot to De la Roche. Only twelve of the number landed were found alive: these were pardoned of their offences, and each survivor received fifty crowns from the King. They also recovered heavy damages from Chetodel, who had taken from them all the skins of black foxes and other furs they had secured during their exile.

The early attempts to establish Colonies upon these shores were unsuccessful, and even calamitous; yet the value of the fur-trade, the nature of the soil, and the hope that always prevails of finding riches in unexplored regions, excited the Huguenots and other European merchants with the spirit of foreign enterprise. Previous to the year 1609, a mariner named Schavalet is stated to have performed no less than forty voyages to Canseau. In 1578, the number of fishing vessels upon the coast was 330; of these 100 were Spanish, 30 Biscayans, 150 French, and 50 English. The latter had command of the harbours.* Valuable furs were purchased from the savages for mere trinkets, and the teeth of the sea-horse brought high prices in the European markets. The interesting accounts given by those who had visited the country, had also much influence over the minds of the adventurers. The seas were represented as being alive with fish, the forests with black foxes and other animals with rich furs, and the rocks with gold, silver, and precious stones. All these circumstances combined, produced a spirit of rivalry among the European Powers, and to create undue emulation and strife among their subjects.

During the reign of Henry IV., a gentleman named De Monts, under very favourable auspices, made another attempt at colonisation. He received from his Sovereign almost unlimited powers and privileges, and every encouragement to pursue his arduous undertaking. De Monts had accompanied Chauvin up the St. Lawrence, and had made himself acquainted with a part of the Atlantic coast. His commission embraced all the territory from the 40th to the 46th degree North latitude, or from Hudson's Bay to Virginia; and he had a monopoly of the fur-trade over that vast tract of country, which was then called New France. The Colony was to be established at the expense of

* Hackluyt, vol. iii. p. 132.

individuals, who cheerfully devoted their money to the popular enterprise.

De Monts was a Protestant, and obtained permission for the free exercise of his religion in the country, on the condition of providing for Roman Catholic Missionaries for the conversion of natives. Four vessels were well equipped; of these two were put under his immediate command—the other two were to be employed in protecting and extending his trade. Accompanied by Champlain (an experienced pilot, and afterwards the founder of Quebec), Potrincourt, and a number of respectable volunteers, De Monts sailed from Havre de Grace, and on the 16th of May, 1604, arrived at Rosignol (now Liverpool), on the south side of Acadia. At this place he found one Rosignol, whose name the harbour had received, trading with the Indians without a licence. He immediately seized the vessel and goods of his countryman, and by them enabled himself to carry on the expedition, which otherwise would have failed.* He then sailed westerly about four leagues, to a harbour now called Port Mouton, where he disembarked and erected camps, or *wigwams*, for the accommodation of his companions and seamen. At this place they remained some time, amusing themselves by hunting and fishing, being in daily expectation of receiving supplies from one of the vessels. But Morel, the captain, had not discovered his instructions, which were fixed to a cross at Canseau, and he had been delayed in capturing four French vessels, which he found carrying on a contraband trade. The missing vessel was at last found by a party of the natives, despatched to Canseau for the purpose, and the winter supplies, under the care of Pontgrave, were finally received.

From thence De Monts sailed along the peninsula to the westward and northward, and anchored in the Bay of St. Mary. While he was surveying the shores of the bay, he discovered a vein of iron ore, and, as it is stated, a mineral containing silver. The vein of iron ore may still be seen; but as no silver ore of any kind has ever been found by the inhabitants since, it is probable that the mineralogist of De Monts was mistaken, or deceived by the shining appearance of the specular

* A large lake between Liverpool and Annapolis still bears the name of Rosignol.

iron still found on Digby Neck. At a certain landing-place in the bay, the whole party were much dismayed from the absence of one Daubre, a highly-respectable clergyman, who on one of his excursions had lost his sword, and, while he was searching for it, lost himself. After every endeavour had been made to find the absent priest, but to no avail, he was unavoidably left on the solitary shore. He sustained himself sixteen days on berries and roots, and, at the end of that period, was accidentally discovered from a boat employed in fishing. He was much emaciated, and almost unable to speak, and in this state was carried to his companions, who greatly rejoiced at his providential deliverance.

In the mean time, De Monts and his party had sailed into a spacious bay, which they called La Baye Française, but since known under the appellation of the Bay of Fundy. They also discovered the narrow channel called Digby Gut. After passing through this channel, they were delighted with the beautiful basin into which it opened, it being surrounded with fine scenery, and hills that poured down streams of fresh water into the level lands of the shore. Potrincourt was so much pleased with the extremity of the basin, and the river flowing into it, that he chose the land at their junction for his residence, and, having obtained a grant of it from De Monts, called it Port Royal.* The next place visited was a high cape on the north side of La Baye Française. At this place they found native copper, which, from being supposed to contain gold, gave the name of Cape d'Or to that place. At Parrsboro' and Cape Blowmedon, they found various crystals and amethysts, some of which were afterwards presented to the King and Queen. Having altered their course and steered along the northern shore, they found a great river, called by the natives Ouangondy; but from having discovered it on the 24th of June, the day of the festival of St. John the Baptist, they named it St. John.

In hopes of finding a short communication between La Baye Française and the Bay Chaleurs and Tadousac,† they sailed up the stream, until the water became too shallow for their vessels. Its grandeur and

* Since called Annapolis, in honour of Queen Anne.

† Haliburton, vol. i. p. 16. Tadousac, situated below Quebec, was the first French settlement made on the St. Lawrence.

beauty—its fish and fowl—its wild grapes and rich meadows, were all objects of admiration. The noble river swept slowly and majestically on its course, through groves of lofty elms and maples; and the shores, although often frequented by the native savages, were buried beneath thick forests, of which large tracts remain uncleared even to the present day. It has not been ascertained whether De Monts and his companions were the first Europeans who ascended the St. John; it is nevertheless very certain that they were its first navigators in vessels of any considerable burthen.

Having examined this river probably as far as the site where Fredericton now stands, they followed the shores of the bay until they found an island in the middle of a river, which had been previously explored by Champlain. From a peculiar configuration of the river and its tributary streams, which suggested the idea of a cross, the island was called St. Croix, and a fort was erected to defend the adventurers from the assaults of the natives, in whose friendship they could have little confidence.

The island of St. Croix* is situated at the mouth of a river of the same name, which now forms a part of the boundary between New Brunswick and the State of Maine, and within a mile and a half of the present town of St. Andrew's. It was about a mile and a quarter in circumference, and quite low and level. Its southern side was defended by a few pieces of cannon, and upon its opposite side a fort was erected to command the river. The fort contained the dwelling of De Monts, above which waved the royal standard of France. There was also a magazine and a chapel. The roof of the latter was supported by living trees. Near the magazine were the dwellings of D'Orville Champlain, Champdore, and other gentlemen, with a long covered gallery for exercise and amusement in bad weather. The land between the fort and

* There has been some dispute in regard to the river which De Monts called St. Croix. L'Escarbot, in the *Histoire de la Nouvelle France*, says, "Quittans la Rivière St. Jean, ils vinrent suivant la côte à vingt lieues de là en une grande rivière (qui est proprement mer), où ils se campèrent en une petite isle au milieu d'icelle." The mouth of the St. Croix, now so called, is twenty leagues from St. John, and the whole description given by L'Escarbot agrees with the present features of the country.

battery was laid out in gardens, which, notwithstanding the lateness of the season, were planted and decorated.*

As this fort only consisted of a low breastwork, and a ditch opened in loose soil, it has entirely disappeared, and not a fragment of the wooden buildings now remains. Old French bricks, cannon-balls, and other relics have been found on the island at the place where the fort was erected.

Potrin-court having chosen Port Royal for his residence, embarked on board one of the vessels, and returned to France. It was soon discovered by the French that the site of their encampment was most unfavourable. The island afforded scarcely any fuel, and no fresh water; and as their grain had been planted too late in the season to ripen, on the approach of winter they were compelled to live on salted meat. The scurvy soon made its appearance, and of seventy-six persons, thirty-six died during the winter, and those who survived were reduced to a state of great distress. From these circumstances, De Monts determined to seek a more favourable climate for making a settlement. Accordingly, as soon as the ice had disappeared in the spring, he visited Penobscot, Kenebec, Casco, Saco, and Malabarre, now called Cape Cod. The aborigines of St. Croix were very friendly, and much pleased with the society of their visitors; but the Indians of Cape Cod were found to be hostile, and far too numerous to be withstood by the small force of De Monts: he therefore returned to Port Royal. At this period, the whole country, including New Brunswick and the chief part of the State of Maine, was called Acadia. On the approach of autumn, De Monts set sail for France, leaving Pontgrave, Champlain, and Champdore in charge of the infant Colony. In the succeeding season, his people raised grain and vegetables; and an abundant supply of venison was obtained by hunting, or purchase from savages. They also endeavoured to establish themselves farther south; but, from the strength and hostility of the Indians, they were unsuccessful.

De Monts and Potrin-court, after their return to France, were active in making preparations for another voyage, and raising a reinforcement for the little Colony at Port Royal. They sailed from Honfleur on the

* Haliburton, vol. i. p. 18.

13th of May, 1606, in a vessel of 150 tons burthen, and, after a long passage, arrived at Canseau. They also visited Port Mouton; but on their arrival at Port Royal on the 27th of July, they lamented to find that Pontgrave had departed from the place twelve days before. He had been instructed by De Monts to explore the coast southward of Cape Cod, but was twice compelled to return by contrary winds, and in making a third attempt his vessel was wrecked. After building two small vessels, which he loaded with his provisions and merchandise, he sailed, leaving two of his men in charge of the goods he was unable to remove.

After the return of De Monts and Potrin-court, the settlement at Port Royal soon began to revive, and L'Escarbot, a respectable lawyer, devoted his energies to the introduction of agriculture and the importation of domestic animals; but De Monts was still very desirous to establish himself farther to the south, where the climate was milder. On the 28th of August he again returned to France, in company with Pontgrave and Potrin-court; Champlain and Champdore again made a voyage to Cape Cod, where they were compelled to land in order to repair the rudder of their vessel. Two guns were discharged at the natives, who had stolen a hatchet. This circumstance gave the savages an excuse for declaring war, and accordingly on the following morning a shower of arrows was thrown among the French, two of whom were killed and several wounded. The dead were buried at the foot of a cross, and during the performance of the burial service, the natives, who had fled into the woods, were dancing and yelling according to their barbarous customs. No sooner had Potrin-court and his men embarked, than they rushed out of the forest, tore down the cross, disinterred the bodies, stripped them of their grave-clothes, and carried them off in triumph. The French commander was afterwards driven by adverse winds into the same harbour, where he caught seven of the savages, and put them to death.*

There can be little doubt that it was from acts of violence committed by the first voyagers to America upon the natives, that they were induced

* Haliburton, vol. i. page 24.

to cherish that spirit of retaliation which was so horribly manifested afterwards upon whole villages of European settlers, when neither sex nor age was spared from the brutal violence of the tomahawk and scalping-knife. Alas! too often was the untutored Indian shot down, for acts which, according to his own laws and customs, were scarcely punishable. Any retaliation made upon a single member of any tribe called forth revenge; but had those who first landed upon the shores of America been governed by principles of equity, and practised forbearance, the red men of the forest would have been their friends, and spared the lives of thousands slain to gratify a passion implanted in their bosoms by the barbarous treatment their brethren had received at the hands of the early visitors to the great continent.

Being again defeated in establishing a settlement to the southward, Potrincourt returned to Port Royal, where he was received by a procession which accompanied him to his house with much formality. The whole company spent the ensuing winter in great festivity. A water-mill was erected to grind their corn, and they had been successful in fishing and hunting. Several hogsheads of pickled alewives were sent to France, with other productions of the country. But the French Colonists soon began to experience much uneasiness from the encampment of 400 Indians near their little fortress. The Acadian tribes were at last discovered to be at war with the Armouchequois, or Cape Cod Indians; and the little army, under the command of Mambertou, a celebrated Sachem, departed to join their friends of the Ouangondy, or River St. John, whence they proceeded in their canoes to meet their enemies. In this expedition they were successful, and Indian songs commemorative of the battle fought have been transmitted down to the present generation.

The French, after waiting with much anxiety for the return of De Monts, were at last informed, by a vessel from Canseau, that their leader was in extreme difficulty in France. Complaints had been made that, under the exclusive privileges held by him, he prevented vessels employed in fishing from obtaining necessary supplies, and his monopoly of the fur-trade had given dissatisfaction. The Government, being very desirous to encourage the fishery, and willing to yield to the entreaties of the merchants, cancelled the grant of De Monts, giving him the

paltry sum of 6,000 livres to reimburse him for 100,000 livres expended in founding the Colony. To obtain that small sum, he was authorised to levy a tax upon the peltries of the fur-traders, which, Champlain said, "was like giving him the sea to drink." Although there is reason to believe that he had abused the powers entrusted to him, and had been cruel to his countrymen, yet his abrupt and sudden deprivation was ungenerous and unjust.

Potrin-court lamented over the misfortunes of his friend, and resolved to maintain the settlement of Port Royal, where he had a desire to spend the remainder of his days with his family. After gathering the first fruits of his harvest, and different kinds of ores from the rocks, he sailed on the 11th of August for France. Specimens of the grain and other productions of Acadia were given to the King, who expressed his gratification at the present. Potrin-court succeeded in obtaining a grant of Port Royal, upon condition that he would support ten Jesuits for the purpose of introducing Christianity among the savages. But, although he was a Roman Catholic, he greatly disliked the Jesuits, and endeavoured to get rid of two priests who had volunteered their services for Acadia. Fearing that they would meddle with his affairs, it is said that he informed them, "they must leave him to rule the people on earth, and merely guide them to heaven." After their arrival at Port Royal, the priests sent back bitter complaints of their treatment, and sought redress. From their statements, Madame de Gourcherville, in the spring of 1613, despatched a vessel, with a number of emigrants, from Honfleur to La Have, where two priests took possession of the harbour, and set up the arms of the pious lady. The vessel then proceeded to Port Royal, and the captain, M. Sausaye, removed the reverend fathers from Potrin-court's settlement to Mount Desert, where, with a few of the Colonists, they erected a cross, celebrated mass, and named the place St. Saviour. While this settlement was in progress, they were attacked by Captain Argall, an Englishman, in a vessel of 14 guns, bound to Virginia. After a spirited contest, in which one of the priests was killed, the French surrendered, and most of them were carried to James' Town. Argall pretended that they were pirates, and accordingly the Governor determined to hang them; but finding that the matter had assumed a more serious aspect than he had

anticipated, the Captain acknowledged the facts, from which it appeared that the prisoners were French subjects. As the two nations were at peace, it might have been expected that the Governor at least would have given Argall a severe reprimand; but, so far was he from being displeased, that he immediately ordered the Captain to attack other French settlements. That officer soon appeared at Port Royal, and captured the place almost without resistance. Some of the inhabitants fled into the woods, others were carried away prisoners, and the whole of the fortifications were thrown down. No complaint was made of these aggressions by France, which was satisfied when the prisoners were restored. At this period the Colonies were considered of no value, and, therefore, they became the prey of almost every armament that crossed the Atlantic. Acadia is said to have been the favourite Colony of Henry IV., but it does not appear that he supported it with any degree of energy; nor was England, nor any other European Power, active in maintaining her rights, or resenting injuries inflicted upon the early Colonists.

In 1621, Sir William Alexander obtained a free grant from James I. of all the country extending from the St. Croix to the St. Lawrence. In his patent this territory is, for the first time, called Nova Scotia, which included New Brunswick and the islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence as far as Newfoundland. Sir William appears to have possessed a variety of talent, and was styled by the King a philosophical poet. Among his poetical works, was one called the "Aurora," a long complaint on his unsuccessful addresses to a young lady. He obtained knighthood in 1613, and was appointed one of the Gentlemen Ushers to Prince Charles. In 1626, the King appointed him Secretary of State for Scotland. He was also created a Peer of that kingdom in 1630, under the title of Viscount Stirling; and on the 14th of June, 1633, he was made Earl of Stirling. With the grant of Nova Scotia he also received extraordinary powers, being made Lieutenant-General, Justice-General, High Lord of Admiralty, with power to create titles of honour, appoint bishops, and all other officers. The only reservation made to the Crown in the patent, was a tenth part of the royal mines of gold and silver, and five per cent. on the imports and exports after the first seven years.

In 1625, Charles I., by a *novodamus*, renewed this patent,* to which in 1628 he added another, granting the whole course of the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of California. This grant included Canada and the chief part of the United States. An Order of Baronets was created, "each of whom were to hold jurisdiction over a tract extending three miles along the coast, and ten towards the interior, and to receive in full property 16,000 acres of land. In return, each was bound to fit out six men for the Colony, or to pay 2,000 marks. By an extraordinary regulation, they were allowed to take seisin, or legal possession, not on the spot, but on the Castle Hill of Edinburgh, Nova Scotia being included in the county of that name."†

The honours, powers, and territories granted to Sir William, called forth much ridicule from his witty contemporaries, who derided his attempt to rise from a poet to a king, and, like Alexander, to rule over a world unknown. There is no account of his ever having visited his extensive territory in America in person; but in 1622, he fitted out a vessel, with a body of settlers, destined for Nova Scotia. From numerous delays, the vessel was unable to proceed beyond Newfoundland during that season. In the ensuing spring, they coasted along the shores; but finding their principal harbours already occupied by the French, who were not disposed to give up their possessions peaceably, they returned to England, where they gave the most favourable reports respecting the continent they had visited. War soon broke out with France, and Sir William, in 1627, despatched a small squadron under his eldest son, accompanied by Kertk, a French refugee, known as Sir David Kirk. The forts at Port Royal, St. Croix, and Pentagoet, were soon captured. At the former place, young Alexander erected a new fortress, and took up his residence as Governor of the country.‡

During their voyage they captured eighteen French transports, with 135 pieces of cannon, and other valuable stores, destined for the fortifi-

* Narrative of Oppressive Proceedings against the Earl of Stirling, by Himself, 4to. Edinburgh 1836, p. 53—75.

† Case of the Honourable Baronets of Scotland and Nova Scotia, pp. 10—27.

‡ Deucher, Alexander, (Genealogist,) Memorial from the Stirling Papers, —Murray.

ocations at Quebec and Port Royal. In one of the captured transports was Claude de la Tour, a gentleman of fortune and enterprise, who held a large tract of land upon the St. John, under a grant from the French Crown. Being brought to England, La Tour was introduced to Sir William; and in order to secure his lands, he agreed to establish upon them a party of Scotch emigrants. Having entered into this new engagement, he repaired to Cape Sable,* where there was a fort held by his son. He employed every kind of entreaty and threat, to induce young La Tour to co-operate with him in his arrangements with the English; but all was in vain, and his son indignantly refused to take any part in an act which he considered treasonable. An engagement took place between the parties: the son repulsed the father with considerable loss; and the latter, being ashamed to return to England, was permitted to reside at the Cape; but his son would not allow him to enter the fort. Claude de la Tour returned afterwards to England; and Lord Stirling, it is said, promised to confirm to him Cape Sable, and a considerable extent of the adjoining coast.†

It has been represented by some writers, that this was a cession of the whole of Nova Scotia, excepting only Port Royal: such an opinion, however, is exceedingly erroneous. The indenture, dated 30th of April, 1636, was in the possession of Mr. Deucher; but the transaction was never completed,‡ as will appear from the fact, that La Tour never took any possession of the district referred to, but brought out a party of Scotch emigrants to the west side of the basin near Port Royal (Granville), where he built a fort, the remains of which are still called the Old Scotch Fort.§ At this place thirty of the emigrants died during the winter.

In 1629, Kirk took possession of Cape Breton, and conquered Canada. Britain now held, by possession and conquest, all this part of America; yet no importance appears to have been attached to these Colonies at this period, and by the Treaty of St. Germain's, Charles I.

* The harbour where the fort stood is now called Port la Tour, where the remains of the fortification may still be seen.

† Historical Account of British America, by Hugh Murray, F.R.S.E., vol. i. p. 125; Haliburton, vol. i. pp. 43, 44.

‡ Deucher, Alexander.

§ Haliburton, vol. i. p. 45.

resigned his right to New France to Louis XIII., and the country was soon taken possession of by the French, who poured into it great numbers of emigrants. Home, who was in command of Nova Scotia at the time of this impolitic measure, received orders to demolish his fort, to remove British inhabitants, and abandon the country. To meet the expenses he had incurred, Lord Stirling received a grant from the Government of £10,000. It was, nevertheless, acknowledged that his patent was still in force. It has been stated by some, that the King considered that he had only given up certain places, and still possessed a right to occupy parts of the country.*

Having obtained possession of Acadia, the French Court sent out Razillai, Commander-in-Chief, having granted to him the Bay and River of St. Croix. On his arrival at La Have, he was so much charmed with the situation, that, with the permission of La Tour, he took up his residence there, and built a fort.

Claude de la Tour had obtained a grant of a large tract of country bordering on the St. John. Charles Etienne de la Tour, his eldest and surviving son, had a portion confirmed to him of Isle of Sable, La Have, Port Royal, and Minas, with large tracts of the adjoining lands, and also the country bordering on the St. John, granted to his father in 1627. Monsieur Denys held all the remaining parts of the Province, from Canseau to Gaspé Bay, on the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Notwithstanding the Treaty of St. Germain's, the English having opened extensive settlements between Florida and Kenebec, were

* Case of the Baronets of Nova Scotia, pp. 28, 32, 34; Murray, vol. i. pp. 125, 126. At the present time, strong claims, founded on the above grants and transactions, are before the Government. (See some articles on the subject in "Simmonds's Colonial Magazine," vol. iv. p. 1, and vol. viii. p. 129.) It had been supposed that the titles of the House of Stirling had become extinct; but his descendants have appeared, and are now seeking the consideration of those rights they have derived from their celebrated ancestor. If the heirs of Lord Stirling and the Baronets of Nova Scotia should be permitted to carry out the objects of the original patent, which was the actual settlement of wild lands in America, they would yet find abundant scope for all their energies, as there are still immense tracts of excellent land remaining in a wilderness state.

gradually increasing in wealth and population ; whereby they effectually prevented the French from extending their operations beyond the latter river, which was then considered the western boundary of Acadia. Razillai captured Pemaquid, and carried the goods belonging to the English Colonists at Plymouth to La Have. Soon afterwards he died, and the government of the country was assumed by Daubré de Charnissé, who was subsequently appointed Governor by a Royal Commission. Claude de la Tour, and afterwards his son, had erected forts and made other improvements on the St. John, which, from being navigable to a great distance, afforded the best channel of communication to Bay Chaleurs and Quebec. The Indians who frequented this river were also numerous, and with them La Tour carried on a profitable trade. Whether from jealousy arising from those circumstances, or from other causes, it is not known, but there arose a deadly strife between him and Charnissé, who soon entered into open warfare with his countryman.

Accounts of the disturbance having reached France, Louis XIII. addressed a letter to Charnissé, dated 10th February, 1638, and in it defined the limits of the country claimed by the contending parties. Charnissé's territory extended from a line drawn from the centre of the Bay of Fundy, to Canseau on one side, and New England on the other. The remaining part of Acadia was assigned to La Tour. Permission was granted to Charnissé to occupy La Have and Port Royal. La Tour was allowed to hold his own fort on the St. John, and both were required to keep within the bounds prescribed. Reconciliation nevertheless did not follow ; accusations from both parties were transmitted to the King, who finally sent out an order to Charnissé to arrest La Tour, and send him to France. In the commencement of the quarrel, La Tour obtained aid from the people of Massachusetts ; but his enemy made it appear that he was an outlaw, and for that purpose sent an agent to Boston with a copy of the warrant for La Tour's apprehension. This negotiation resulted in an agreement between Endicott, the Governor of New England, and Charnissé, in which the former promised to remain neutral. La Tour had previously chartered four armed vessels and employed eighty volunteers from Boston ; with this aid he returned to the St. John, whence he compelled Charnissé to retreat to

his fort at Penobscot. Madame La Tour had been engaged in England in adjusting her husband's affairs, and having completed her work, she sailed for the St. John; but the master of the vessel proceeded to the St. Lawrence, and having finished his traffic there, finally set the lady on shore at Boston. For this violation of his charter, and the loss Madame La Tour had sustained by him, she recovered £2,000 damages. She then proceeded to the fort on the St. John, and Charnissé having heard of the absence of her husband, pursued her, and attacked her fortress, which, from being commanded by a female, he probably thought would be an easy conquest. But the lady defended the place with great spirit, and her artillery fired with so much precision, that Charnissé's frigate was rendered unmanageable, and he was compelled to draw off beyond the range of the cannon. In the engagement he had twenty men killed and thirteen wounded. Having repaired his vessel, he returned to Penobscot, under the humiliating reflection of having attacked a woman during the absence of her husband, and received at her hands an ample chastisement for his ungallant and cowardly behaviour.

From motives of policy, the people of Massachusetts now refused to afford La Tour any farther assistance, and Charnissé seized another opportunity to attack the fort, when he was absent on a trading excursion. Having sailed up the River St. John, a siege was commenced, which, from the weakness of the garrison, offered a chance of conquest. But Madame La Tour, with a handful of men, was determined to defend the place even at the risk of sacrificing her own life, and during three days the besiegers were several times repulsed and compelled to retreat. On the fourth day, which happened to be Easter Sunday, she was unfortunately betrayed by a mutinous Swiss, who had gone over to the enemy and communicated information fatal to the safety of the heroic woman. Even under this untoward circumstance, her courage did not fail; and when Charnissé had scaled the wall, she met him in the front of her little garrison, and ready to perish in her husband's cause. Having reason to fear so brave a person, and having been several times beaten by a woman, Charnissé proposed a capitulation, which Madame La Tour accepted for the humane purpose of saving the lives of the few brave men who had so long defended the place against a superior

force. But no sooner had her cowardly adversary signed the articles of capitulation, entered the fort, and observed its defenceless state, than he immediately hanged all the survivors, reserving only one, whom he forced to execute his comrades. Besides this act of fiendish barbarity, he compelled Madame La Tour to witness the revolting and inhuman scene, and also led her to the gallows with a halter round her neck.

All the ordnance, stores, merchandise, furs, and plate of great value were carried away by the cowardly conqueror to Penobscot. The privations and perils Madame La Tour had suffered—the dreadful fate of her family and followers, with the loss of fortune and the danger to which her husband would consequently be exposed, broke with great violence upon the health of this heroic woman, and she died shortly afterwards, deeply lamented by all who had heard of her name and misfortunes.

The above fort* was situated at the mouth of the Gemsec, a deep and narrow channel between the Grand Lake and the main river.

* Mr. Haliburton, in his History of Nova Scotia, has given a description of the fort at the Gemsec, taken from an original inventory dated 5th August, 1670, as follows:—

“*First*—At the entering in of the said fort, upon the left hand, we found a court of guard, of about fifteen paces long and ten broad, having upon the right hand a house of the like length and breadth, built with hewn stone, and covered with shingles; and above them there is a chapel, of about six paces long and four paces broad, covered with shingles and built with terras, upon which there is a small turret, wherein there is a little bell, weighing about eighteen pounds.

“*More*—Upon the left hand as we entered into the court, there is a magazine, having two stories, built of stone and covered with shingles, being in length about thirty-six paces, and ten in breadth; which magazine is very old, and wanted much reparation; under which there is a little cellar, in which there is a little well. And upon the other side of said court, being on the right hand, there is a house of the same length and breadth the magazine is, being half covered with shingles, and the rest uncovered, and wanted much reparation. Upon the ramparts of the said fort are twelve iron guns, weighing in all 21,122 pounds.

“*More*—We do find in said fort six murtherers, without chambers, weighing 1,200 pounds.

“*More*—200 iron bullets, from three to eight pounds.

Under this burden of misfortunes, La Tour applied for aid to Sir David Kirk, who at that time was Governor of Newfoundland. That application was unsuccessful; but his friends at Boston supplied him with a sum of money, and a vessel, whereby he was able to revive his trade with the Indians of the St. John and Bay of Fundy. For those two acts of kindness it is said he made them a most ungrateful return.

In 1651, Charnissé being dead, La Tour was recalled, and he married the widow of his inveterate enemy. About this time Charnissé's sister also died, having bequeathed her property in Acadia to La Tour, whereby he obtained possession of the whole country. But La Tour le Borgne, to whom Charnissé owed a large sum of money, took proceedings against the property of the deceased, and obtained a decree from the Court of France to take possession of the lands owned by the debtor. This individual, evidently with a desire of obtaining the whole Colony, fitted out an expedition, and first attacked Monsieur Denys, whom he took, and having put him in irons, sent him to Port Royal. He then destroyed all the buildings and fortifications belonging to Denys at Chedabucto and La Have, among which, at the latter place, was a chapel that cost 100,000 francs. La Tour's fort on the St. John still remained uncaptured; and while Borgne was making preparations for its reduction, he was preceded by Colonel Sedgewick, who was commissioned by Oliver Cromwell in 1654 to recover Nova Scotia from the French. Having defeated La Tour on the St. John, Sedge-

“Lastly—About thirty or forty paces from said fort, there is a small outhouse, being about twenty paces in length and eight in breadth, built with planks and covered with shingles, which do not serve for any use but to house cattle.

“*More*—About fifty paces from said outhouse, there is a square garden, enclosed with rails; in which garden there are about fifty or sixty trees bearing fruit.

(Signed)

“LE CHEVALIER DE GRAND.
FONTAINE.
JEAN MAILLARD.
RICHARD WALKER.
ISAAC GARNER.

MARSHALL, Secy.”

wick attacked Le Borgne at Port Royal, and captured the place, almost without resistance, notwithstanding it contained a strong garrison, a number of cannon, and plenty of provisions. Pentagoet, or Penobscot, was also taken, and the whole country again fell into the hands of the English.*

During these struggles in the infant Colony, French settlements were made on the shores of the Bay Chaleurs. In the year 1638 or 1639, when Acadia was held by Razillai, La Tour, and Denys, Jean Jacques Enaud commenced the clearing and improvement of a tract of land on the northern shore of New Brunswick (now so called).† Enaud was a native of Basque in France, whence he emigrated, with a number of families, to America. It does not appear that he obtained a grant of land from the French Government, and therefore it is probable that he was licensed by Denys, or that his district was supposed to belong to Canada. He was related to the Governor of Quebec, and it has been said that he obtained a title to all the lands between Grande Ance and Jacquet River. Enaud appears to have been in affluent circumstances. He had trading establishments at Baie des Vents Island, and other places along the coast; but his principal residence was at Abshaboo (now Bathurst), at the mouth of the Nepisiquit. From the peculiarity of the situation, in a deep bay, and remote from the settlements made by the French and English on the Atlantic coast, Enaud and his followers were in some degree exempt from those broils and conflicts that so often disturbed the peace of the southern districts. Indeed, the settlements of these people in Acadia do not appear to have been generally known at the time, as history is almost silent upon the subject.

The situation of La Tour's fort, at the mouth of the Gemsec, on the St. John, was such that he could readily have communicated with and obtained aid from Enaud, provided they were on friendly terms; but the existence of a correspondence between those persons is only traditional. Having carried on an extensive trade in furs, and having

* Haliburton, p. 60, 61.

† No particular account of Enaud, and the settlements made by him in New France, or Acadia, is found among the historical records of the time. Those accounts have been obtained from letters and MSS. still in possession of the descendants of the Acadian French.

pursued the taking of the walrus, or sea-cow, for several years, during which time *Les Habitans* had become the occupants of the best situations, and greatly increased in numbers, Enaud married a Mohawk woman, the daughter of a renowned Sachem, or Chief; but, from a quarrel that took place in the family, he was murdered by his wife's brother. At this period, the Mohawks of Gaspé and Canada were at war against the Micmacs of Acadia. The Nepisiquit was the boundary between the two tribes. The Mohawks were victorious, and such of Enaud's followers as escaped their vengeance were compelled to fly to the Isle St. John. Even to the present time, the Micmacs of the northern shores of New Brunswick are terrified at the long, tremulous whoop of the Mohawk Indian. The French emigrants did not return to their lands until about 1668; and in 1670 they had resumed their settlements at Nepisiquit, Grande Ance, and Caraquette. In 1692 they were again destined to experience new trials and adversities. The Micmacs, with whom they had long been upon friendly terms, had become jealous of the intrusions made by the white men, whom they now resolved to drive away. Led by a desperate chief, called Halion, they attacked the settlements, drove away the cattle, and burned the houses; and such of the inhabitants as escaped their fury were compelled to leave the country.

During all the changes of rulers, the inconstancy of the mother-country, the fickleness of the Indians, and the determination of the English to avenge the disloyalty of the French by banishment, they never altogether abandoned Acadia.

The religion of the Roman Catholics, from its numerous and peculiar exhibitions, strikes the mind of the savage with far greater force than the forms of Protestant worship. The French priests found little difficulty in converting the North American Indians so far to their faith, that they became their temporal as well as their spiritual guides; and they often led them to battle against the English, who had taken little pains to convert the savages to Christianity. The French Government, in order to obtain allies from these warlike tribes, offered large bounties to such of their subjects as would marry with them. Several of the priests, and many of the French inhabitants, adopted the habits and customs of the Indians; and the latter took to themselves wives of the

red women of the forests. From these have sprung a mongrel race, whose mixed features may still be seen in some parts of the Province. It is, therefore, not surprising that the lineage of individuals who now hold respectable situations can be traced to some renowned warrior or wise Sachem of the Etchmins or Abenakis tribes.

Notwithstanding the country was conquered by the English, the increase of the French population, which was scattered in small villages along the coasts and borders of the principal rivers, afforded France a decided advantage when the two nations were at war. Little pains were therefore taken by the English to maintain a Colony that had already been given away several times, and whose lands had frequently been ceded to private individuals.

In order to secure his property and trade, La Tour was ready to submit to any Government into whose hands Acadia might fall; he therefore urged his claim upon the English, and pleaded the grant made of Acadia to his father by Lord Stirling. His application was supported by persons of influence in England, and he again obtained the chief part of the country, which he sold to Mr. Temple, afterwards Sir Thomas Temple.

This gentleman expended £16,000 in erecting fortifications, and he carried on a lucrative trade; but by the treaty of Breda, concluded in 1667 by Charles II., Acadia was again given up to France. Temple endeavoured to retain a part of the country, by making a distinction between Acadia and Nova Scotia; but he was finally ordered to deliver up the whole territory to the French.

Even at this period the country was considered scarcely worth being protected, and its inhabitants were exposed to numerous pirates that infested the coast. Among these was the notorious Captain Kidd, whose money, some have believed, is still buried on the shores of New Brunswick. The pirates not only plundered the inhabitants, but actually took the forts at the Gemsec, on the St. John, and at Pen-tagoet.

Upon the breaking out of the war that followed the Revolution of 1688, the defenceless state of Nova Scotia rendered her an easy conquest, and the people of Massachusetts resolved to attempt the achievement of the enterprise. Accordingly, an expedition was fitted

out under the command of Sir William Phipps.* Three ships, besides transports and 700 men, appeared before Port Royal on the 20th of May, 1690. The garrison consisted of only 80 men. Manival, the French Governor, obtained a very favourable capitulation under the circumstances. It has been stated by French writers, that Sir William Phipps violated the articles upon which Manival surrendered. Having administered the oath of allegiance to the inhabitants, he carried away the Governor, 40 soldiers, and two priests. He then proceeded to Chedabucto, occupied by Montorquil, the successor of Denys; and finding the fortification resolutely defended, he set fire to the place, and granted a capitulation to the small but brave garrison, who were safely conducted to Placentia. Sir William then destroyed the chapel and other buildings of Isle Percé.

During this miserable state of the country, two pirates appeared at Port Royal, where their crews pillaged the country, set fire to the buildings, and burned one whole family in their dwelling. Port Royal was shortly afterwards taken possession of by Chevalier Villabon, who captured the place by pulling down the English flag, and hoisting French colours in its place. Villabon, who was commissioned by the French Government to take the command of Nova Scotia, recovered a considerable sum of money that had been buried by one Des Gautius previous to the landing of Sir William Phipps, and then proceeded to attack the fort on the River St. John; but on his passage thither he was overtaken by a pirate, who captured his vessel, which contained, besides a large sum of money, the presents intended to secure the alliance of the savages.

The old Charter of Massachusetts having been forfeited, a new one was granted by William and Mary. One of the provisos in the new charter was, that no land should be granted between the Sagadahock and the Gulf of St. Lawrence without the special permission of the King, whereby a plain distinction was made between Nova Scotia and Massachusetts.

* Sir William Phipps, the son of a blacksmith, was born at Pemaquid, in 1650. In the early part of his life, he built a vessel, and recovered from a Spanish wreck at Hispaniola £300,000. He was afterwards Governor of Massachusetts.

Although Acadia, which then included within its bounds New Brunswick, had been conquered by the English, it was nevertheless in the possession of the French. Villabon occupied the fort* on the St. John, which was the resort of the French and great numbers of Indians. In 1691 he made Mr. Nelson, who had been appointed Governor of Nova Scotia, a prisoner, and sent him to Quebec, whence he was carried to France.

From the forts on the St. John the French and Indians were supplied with arms and ammunition, with which they made frequent attacks upon the villages of New England. The Government of Massachusetts, therefore, resolved to stop the supplies sent out annually from France to that river. An armed vessel called the "Sorrel" was sent to cruize in the Bay, and having met the French frigate with the supplies, a desperate engagement ensued; but she was beaten off, and the supplies landed in safety. By numerous presents and the influence of the French priests, Villabon was successful in securing the aid of the Indian tribes. He was joined at St. John by Iberville, who arrived from Quebec with a body of soldiers and fifty Micmac Indians; he was also reinforced by Baron Castine, who had lived many years among the savages and married a squaw. With these forces Villabon captured Pemaquid, where the Indians were permitted to murder several of the English prisoners.

The people of Massachusetts, being aroused by numerous acts of cruelty committed on their countrymen, sent Colonel Church with 500 men to Nova Scotia, and the country was soon regained, with the exception of the fort on the St. John. He called upon the Acadians to assist him in subduing the Indians; but they refused their aid, whereupon they were considered enemies, and the soldiers, after plundering the inhabitants, set fire to their buildings. The situation of the Colonists at this period was truly deplorable. They scarcely knew at times to what country or nation they belonged. They were strongly attached to France, and when they refused to be loyal to the British

* In regard to the fortifications on the St. John, only the fort at the Gemsec is generally mentioned by historians: but there are remains of other military works along the banks of the river, of which some notice will be taken in another chapter.

Crown, they were compelled to bear all the penalties of rebellion. The Province remained in the possession of the English until 1696, when, by the Treaty of Ryswick, it was again given to France.

The memorable war of Queen Anne commenced in 1702. The victories of Marlborough, and the universal success of British arms, were followed by a desire to improve the Colonies in America. New England having suffered much from the savages who were allied with the French in Acadia, resolved to gain by war what had so often been lost by treaty. She had solicited the mother-country to relieve her of Acadia, which up to this time had formed a part of the Colony; but now the success of the English abroad called forth new energies in the people, who were desirous to share in the glories of their countrymen.

In 1704, an expedition, commanded by Colonel Church, was sent to Nova Scotia. They arrived at Beau Basin (now Cumberland), where the inhabitants were required to join them in the extermination of the Indians. Upon their refusal to take up arms against their allies, their houses were burned, their dikes opened, cattle destroyed, and their goods plundered. This expedition terminated in producing the greatest possible distress among the Acadian settlers, and reflected but little credit upon the English Provincial troops, or the individual by whom they were commanded. Church returned to Massachusetts, where he was reinforced. He then proceeded up the St. John, and attacked the fort commanded by Villabon; but the place was so well defended, that he re-embarked his men and retired.

Three years afterwards, 1,000 men were sent to complete the conquest of the country; but Subercase, the French commander at Port Royal, defended the place with so much ability, that the assailants were compelled to raise the siege. Shortly afterwards, another unsuccessful attempt was made by the people of Massachusetts to capture that fortress.

In 1710, an expedition was fitted out from Boston Bay, consisting of four men-of-war, two galleys, and fourteen transports, with one regiment of marines and four regiments of Provincial soldiers. These forces were put under the command of General Nicholson. The armament arrived at Port Royal on the 24th September, and the troops were landed without opposition. Subercase, the Governor, having a garrison

of only 260 men, made but a feeble resistance, and soon capitulated. The artillery taken by the English was purchased by the Government for 7,499 livres, and the prisoners were sent to Rochelle. The expenses incurred by New England in conquering Nova Scotia at this time amounted to £23,000. This sum was afterwards reimbursed by Parliament.

The Court of France, fearing that Acadia would be irrecoverably lost, employed every means, through the medium of the French Missionaries and by presents, to secure the affections of the Acadians and Indians. Castine, with a body of the latter and a few French, defeated a party of the English. He also invested Port Royal, and the Marquis d'Alloigniers was ordered from France in great haste to aid him; but the arrival of an English fleet in the Gulf of St. Lawrence effectually checked these movements, and Castine's army dispersed.

During these operations, the Peace of Utrecht was concluded, between England and France, on the 11th April, 1713. By the articles of the treaty, all Acadia, or Nova Scotia, according to its ancient limits, was ceded to Great Britain, and France was now for ever deprived of the Colony.*

General Nicholson, having conquered the country, was in 1714 appointed Governor. He was afterwards succeeded by General Philips, and Port Royal, the capital of Nova Scotia, was named Annapolis.

From the severity of the climate, and dread of the savages, few British settlers were disposed to take up their residence in the Province, and the population consisted of French Acadians, of whom there were 4,000 men capable of bearing arms. These people were strongly attached to their native country, and always lived in the hope that France would finally conquer and hold the Colony, for which object they were ready to lend their aid. As they were known to be hostile to the British, whenever a war occurred they were called upon to take the oath of allegiance, to which many of them submitted, under the reservation that they should not be compelled to fight against their countrymen. They were also exempt from the payment of any taxes, and permitted to trade with France.

* Haliburton, vol. i. p. 92.

From this period the Acadians were called French Neutrals. But the Indians, who had always been attached to the French, were not conquered, and refusing to become the subjects of Britain, they availed themselves of every opportunity that offered to plunder the English, upon many of whom they inflicted their savage tortures. Being well acquainted with the country, they would pass over it, carrying their canoes upon their shoulders between the rivers with great rapidity; and being often assisted by the French Neutrals, they bade defiance to the Government, and remained lords of their native soil.

In the year 1720, a strong body of the Richibucto Indians, assisted by a party of the Penobscot tribe, made an attack upon Canseau, and other places on the eastern shores of Nova Scotia, and carried off property to the amount of £20,000. They were commanded by a sagacious and powerful chief called Argimoosh, or the "Great Witch." In 1723, they captured seventeen sail of fishing-vessels from Massachusetts. A number of persons fell victims to this outrage, and many were put to the most cruel tortures. Governor Philips happened to be in the vicinity of Canseau at the time of this outrage, and sent two sloops well prepared, under the direction of Mr. Elliot of Boston, and Mr. Robinson of Cape Ann, in quest of the Indians. Elliot found seven vessels in a harbour called Winnepang, and immediately attacked them. The Indians, seeing him approach, cried out, "Strike, English dogs!" and a desperate conflict ensued, in which the aborigines defended themselves with great bravery for some time, but finally retreated to the holds of the vessels, and fired upwards through their decks. Elliot threw hand-grenades among them, and they then plunged into the sea, where nearly all of them were either drowned or shot. Elliot was severely wounded; five of his men were killed, and several much injured. The crews of the seven vessels thus captured, when they were taken by the Indians at Canseau, amounted to forty persons: of these, fifteen were rescued, nine had been murdered, and the remainder sent as slaves to the Indian settlements at Richibucto. Mr. Robinson captured ten schooners, and killed a number* of the marauders. The crews of the remainder of the vessels were obtained by ransom.*

* Haliburton.

These Indians and their allies had taken up a strong position at Kenebec, where they occupied a fort defended by artillery. In order to dislodge them, Massachusetts in 1728 sent forward a body of troops. After a desperate battle, the savages were driven out of their fortress, and pursued with great slaughter. Rallé, the French Roman Catholic missionary, it is said, fought with great spirit until he was killed. The fort was demolished, and the victory gained overawed the Indians, who afterwards adopted a more sly but not less deadly system of warfare.

The long peace between Great Britain and France terminated in 1744, and war was again commenced. Quesnel, the Governor of Cape Breton, at the very commencement of hostilities took Canseau and laid siege to Annapolis; but the defence of the latter place was so well conducted, that he was compelled to withdraw his troops. New England, in the mean time, with extraordinary zeal and courage, determined upon the capture of Louisburg, which was then the stronghold of the French in America, and consequently well fortified. Four thousand men were raised in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Hampshire. These were put under the command of Colonel Pepperall, and transports were provided to convey the little army to the field of their intended operations. This expedition was fitted out under the influence of religious enthusiasm, and was considered a kind of crusade against the idolatrous worship of the Church of Rome. A chaplain marched with the troops, carrying a hatchet, to break the images that might be found in the possession of the enemy; and Whitefield, the celebrated Methodist preacher, furnished a suitable motto for the occasion. This enthusiastic armament appeared before Louisburg on the 30th of April, 1745; and as its arrival was unexpected by the French garrison, the Provincial troops soon landed and captured a battery, turning the guns upon other parts of the fortifications. After a most unparalleled struggle in erecting batteries and making assaults, the garrison of Louisburg surrendered; and when the assailants had entered the forts, they were astonished at their own success, for the works were capable of defence against a much greater force. But the French had become dispirited from the arrival of English men-of-war; they had also lost one of their own ships; and the industry and valour of the besiegers were calculated to intimidate them, strong as their position was deemed.

The conquest of Cape Breton reflected great credit upon the Provincial troops, most of whom were traders and farmers who possessed but little knowledge of military affairs. The capture of St. John (now Prince Edward's Island) soon followed. By hoisting French colours at the captured forts, a vessel from the South Sea and two East Indiamen were decoyed and taken with cargoes which were valued at £600,000.

In order to retrieve these losses, France sent a fleet into the American Seas of no less than seventy ships, including eleven of the line, with 3,000 troops, under the command of the Duke d'Anville, who was instructed to take Louisburg and Annapolis, and, after capturing other forts along the American coast, to proceed to the West Indies. This fleet sailed from Brest in the summer of 1746, and escaped a British squadron that was stationed to observe its movements. From a series of disasters and tempestuous weather, it did not arrive at Chebucto until three months afterwards, when four of the ships were rendered unfit for service. Some of the fleet had been driven back by adverse winds, so that the expedition failed altogether. D'Anville, unable to bear so great a disappointment, died suddenly; and Destourville, the Vice-Admiral, ran a sword through his own body. De la Jonquière, then Governor of Canada, in the hope of turning the scale of fortune, proceeded against Annapolis; but in turning Cape Sable, he was met by a tempest—his fleet was broken up, and he was compelled to return to France. The English Colonists believed that these disasters arose from the immediate interposition of Divine Providence, and celebrated the events by a general thanksgiving.

So determined were the French to take Nova Scotia, that they despatched another fleet, of thirty-eight sail, under De la Jonquière. This fleet was overtaken by Admirals Anson and Warren, who defeated the French, and captured two ships, one of which was an East Indiaman richly laden.

Notwithstanding the great expense of maintaining her power in America, by the taking of all the fortifications possessed by the French along the coast, Louisburg was again given up by the British, greatly to the mortification of the Provincials, who had gallantly maintained the military character of the nation, and driven their enemies from their strongholds on the American shores.

About this period, Nova Scotia began to attract the attention of individuals in Britain, and it was proposed to make a settlement in the Province from the troops that had been disbanded in consequence of the peace. Every private soldier was allowed fifty acres of land, and officers a greater quantity, in proportion to their rank. By the encouragement held out by the Government, 3,760 persons, including many with families, in 1749 were landed at Chebucto—since called Halifax, after Lord Halifax, the patron of the expedition. Notwithstanding these settlers enjoyed the fostering care of their sovereign, and their safety and comfort were duly provided for, they were exposed to great privations, and suffered much from the attacks of the Indians. Some of them were made captives, and met with scalping, lingering tortures, and death; others were held in dreadful captivity, and dragged almost naked through pathless forests and deep snows, until death was preferred to life; and many were sold as articles of merchandise in the market at Louisburg, where the French, under humane pretensions, extorted heavy ransoms.

At this early period disputes arose respecting the boundary of Acadia, or Nova Scotia. The claims of the French extended from the St. Croix to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and eastward to the peninsula of Chignecto, embracing the present Province of New Brunswick. The Acadians and Indians occupied a fort on the River St. John, and Beau-Sejour at Cumberland. M. La Corne had landed at Bay Verte, with 600 men, from Canada, and commenced building a fort. The Indians were supplied with arms, and the town of Halifax was in danger of being seized. Major Lawrence was therefore despatched with a detachment of soldiers to dislodge the enemy; but after two attempts to capture Beau-Sejour, he retired, and erected a fort on an opposite point of land, to check the operations of his adversaries. During these violations of the treaty, and the open hostilities of the French Neutrals, the Courts of France made fair promises, but no effectual measures were applied to render the British inhabitants secure, either in their property or persons. In this state of affairs in Nova Scotia, hostilities were again commenced, by the capture of two French men-of-war, on the coast of Newfoundland, by Admiral Boscawen. Those ships were the *Alceide* of 64 guns, and *Lys* of 52

guns, which had been sent out to aid the disaffected portion of the inhabitants in the Colony.

War having been commenced, New England again manifested her usual patriotism, and despatched Lieutenant-Colonel Moncton, who, after a bombardment of four days, reduced Fort Beau-Sejour. He then proceeded to the St. John; but the fort at this place was abandoned previous to his arrival.*

The Acadians had extended their settlements to all the principal rivers in Nova Scotia. In New Brunswick also they occupied small villages at Bay Verte, Shediac, Richibucto, Miramichi, and other places on the southern shore of the Bay Chaleurs, where the remains of their fortifications are still to be seen. Although they had been greatly disturbed in the settlement of the country, their population now amounted to 18,000 souls. They owned 60,000 head of cattle; and, by their frugality and industry, they had obtained almost every comfort required in their simple mode of living. They still cherished a warm attachment to their native country, from which if they were frequently separated by war, they were as often restored by peace. Happy would they indeed have been, if they had adhered closely to their promises of neutrality, and, in their alliance with the aborigines, had endeavoured to restrain them from those outrages they had committed upon helpless English families. So far from observing the oaths they had taken, many took up arms against the British upon every favourable occasion, and they aided the savages in their cruel warfare against the subjects of their sovereign. Neither the life nor the property of a British subject was safe in the country, which, although it belonged to Great Britain, was really in the hands of the French Acadians and the Indians. The savages themselves were under the control of the French priests, who lived among them, and frequently adopted their customs. With them the Acadians had intermarried, and two races of people, whose original habits and manners were extremely different, soon became strangely amalgamated; the one forsaking a part of their civilisation, and the other a part of their barbarity. All the efforts of the English to reconcile those people

* Haliburton, vol. i. p. 142—168.

had proved abortive; and the severe treatment they had received from individuals, afforded them but a meagre apology for their obstinacy and disloyalty. The treaties that had been made with them, they had violated; and no confidence could any longer be placed in their promises, or even in their oaths of allegiance. Individuals, families, and sometimes whole villages of English settlers were surprised, robbed, scalped—murdered. To guard against the assaults of the Indians was almost impossible. They would creep upon the ground like serpents, or upon all-fours like quadrupeds, hiding themselves in marshes, thickets, and trees, until the silent hour of midnight arrived, when, like wolves, they would spring upon their prey, and, raising the war-whoop, they put all to death, except such as were reserved for their lingering tortures.

It was under such circumstances, and by the earnest solicitations of the British Provincials, Admirals Boscawen and Martyn, with Governor Lawrence, held a Council, and, after mature deliberation, resolved to confiscate the property of the Acadians, or French Neutrals, and to drive them from the country. Accordingly, their lands, houses, and cattle were declared to be forfeited; and they were only allowed to remove the small sums of money and the little household furniture they had in their possession. In order to enforce the dreadful mandate of the Council, it became necessary to decoy the unwary settlers. The inhabitants of several districts were therefore requested to assemble at certain places on urgent business, the nature of which was concealed. At these meetings soldiers were ready to enforce the law, and the order for expulsion was proclaimed.

By this act the whole population was plunged into the greatest dismay and distress. Some of them endeavoured to remonstrate, some fled to the priests, and others met their fate with patient resignation. Only a few were allowed to return to their houses to make hasty preparations for their departure. So unwilling were they to leave the lands redeemed by their industry, that when they were shipped on board the transports prepared to receive them, the soldiers deemed it necessary to urge them forward with the points of their bayonets. Bitter indeed were the lamentations of these unfortunate people, and many a tragic tale is related of these occurrences in the ballads still chanted by their descendants.

Notwithstanding the active and violent means that were employed to prevent the escape of the Acadians, and to secure the transportation of the whole population, only about 7,000 persons were taken and carried away. Many fled with their wives and children into the woods, where numbers perished by cold and starvation; others escaped to the French settlements at Richibucto, Miramichi, and other places, and often concealed themselves in the forests until the violence of the dreadful order had in some degree subsided. The lands and dikes of these people were laid waste, their houses were set fire to, and 263 of their dwellings were seen in flames at one time. At Cumberland many of the inhabitants fled into the thickets, from whence they beheld the destruction of their property with patience; but when they saw their chapel fired, they rushed out, killed thirty of those who were engaged in the work of destruction, and then returned to their hiding-places.*

Of the 7,000 collected, 1,000 were sent to Massachusetts, where they became a public charge. The quota sent to Pennsylvania were landed in a most deplorable condition, and it was proposed by the Government there to sell them as slaves; but the Acadians declared themselves to be prisoners of war, and as such they were not bound to labour. Those who were sent to Georgia, set out to return to Nova Scotia; but Governor Lawrence issued an order for their detention, and, having reached New York, they were compelled to abandon their design.

After the peace between England and France that followed, the British Government allowed them to return to their homes; but of 7,000 that had been expelled, only about 1,300 were ever found to avail themselves of the pardon that was offered them.†

In the year 1757, William Pitt began his brilliant ministerial career, and preparations were made to secure to the British Crown the whole of North America. Early in 1758, a strong fleet under Admiral

* In 1841, there was living at the mouth of the Peticodiac river, in New Brunswick, a Monsieur Belleveau, who recollected the facts related, with great clearness. He was at the above time upwards of 100 years of age, and his descendants now occupy a large village bearing his name.

† Haliburton, vol. i. pp. 173, 178, 181.

Boscawen, and an army under the command of General Amherst, were sent across the Atlantic. The Provincials, being aroused by the solicitations of the celebrated statesman, cheerfully performed their part in the service, and, on the 2nd of June, an armament of 150 sail of men-of-war and other vessels, with 14,000 troops, appeared before Louisburg. The place was then very strongly fortified, and defended by a garrison of 3,000 men, six ships of the line, and five frigates. The most dangerous and arduous services were entrusted to the gallant Wolfe, who in the most intrepid manner effected a landing under a heavy fire of the enemy; and, having gained an important position, he opened newly-erected batteries with great effect upon the interior works of the garrison. One of the French ships blew up by accident, and the fire having been communicated to other vessels, soon destroyed them. Admiral Boscawen entered the harbour with 600 men in boats, captured one ship, and drove another on shore. The daring exploits of the British, the loss of the French fleet, and the breaking down of the walls by the artillery of the assailants, placed the garrison in a hopeless condition, and on the 26th of July the whole of them, with their commander, surrendered themselves prisoners of war.

Shortly after this victory, a body of troops, commanded by Lord Rollo, was despatched to the Island St. John (Prince Edward's Island), where upwards of 4,000 Indians laid down their arms, and promised submission.

This successful campaign was followed by another still more brilliant in its achievements against Canada. It was put under the command of the brave General Wolfe, who had distinguished himself at Louisburg. Quebec was taken, and the country which had so long been the theatre of internal wars, and the scene of much suffering and bloodshed, fell a conquest to British intrepidity and valour. By the treaty of peace concluded at Paris on the 10th February, 1763, France resigned all her claims in North America to Great Britain; and, notwithstanding the revolt of her own subjects, in a number of her Colonies, during the American Revolution, the Northern Provinces still remain under her maternal care and protection.

CHAPTER III.

HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF THE EARLY SETTLEMENTS IN NEW BRUNSWICK.

HAVING given a general account of the history of Acadia, a brief view may be taken of the first settlements in New Brunswick. The Fort of La Tour at the Gemsec, and other fortifications on the St. John, with those at Chignecto and Bay Verte, are duly noticed and described by several authors; but the first attempts at colonisation on the northern side of New Brunswick are scarcely mentioned in history. The attention of England and France, during their struggle to conquer American territory, was directed to the principal ports along the Atlantic coast, while the first settlements on the shores of the Baie des Chaleurs do not appear to have been recognised by either country, and therefore the history of those settlements is derived more from correct tradition than from any written records on the subject.

La Baie des Chaleurs, or Bay of Heats, was discovered by Cartier in 1534; but no attempt was made to colonise the northern part of New France until 1638 or 1639, when Mons. Jean-Jacques Enaud emigrated thither, and occupied a part of the country in the manner already described.

Some time in the year 1672 or 1673, and six years after the Treaty of Breda, a number of French families emigrated from St. Maloes in France to the River Miramichi, and opened a settlement at Baie des Vents. About this time small villages began to spring up at Bay Verte, Nequaak, Canadian Point, and other places.

A town called Petite Rochelle, with fortifications, was also commenced near the mouth of the Restigouche. At Beaubair's Point on the Miramichi, there was a town of 200 houses and a chapel. On Beaubair's Island, since owned by Messrs. Fraser, there was a battery that com-

manded the river, and at French Fort Cove the fortifications mounted sixteen guns. At Fawcett's Point the French had a ship-yard, an armoury, and valuable stores.*

The Island and Point still bear the name of Mons. Pierre Beaubair, who was Governor or Superintendent of the Colony. In the vicinity of these several places there are evidences of former cultivation, although the inhabitants were chiefly engaged in hunting and fishing. Their exports were salmon, furs, moose-skins, &c., and their trade was extensive. In 1757, the English cruizers on the coast greatly interrupted their commerce. In this season also their crops failed, and in the succeeding winter they were reduced to a state of starvation.

In this calamity, they were visited by a dreadful disease. The fatal malady was supposed to have been introduced in a vessel wrecked near the mouth of Baie des Vents River. The remains of this vessel are still to be seen. The sufferings of these people were still farther increased by the loss of two transports despatched from France with supplies for their relief. Those vessels were taken by the British fleet, which, with the army under General Amherst, captured Louisburg. By the famine and the pestilence eight hundred of the inhabitants died, and the greater number were buried at Beaubair's Point. From the wearing away of the banks of the river, the graves of many of those unfortunate people have been opened; and in 1842 the bones of the early French emigrants were seen protruding from the soil, where at present a highway descends to the ferry crossing the north-west branch of the river.

Among the first victims to the fatal disease, was Monsieur Beaubair himself. Most of the *habitans* who survived fled to Bay Chaleurs, St. John's Island, and Memnamcook on the Peticodiac. Many of the Indians also perished. The capture of Louisburg by the British produced a panic among the French and Indians, so that almost every village and *wigwam* was deserted. Only a few persons remained at French Fort Cove, Canadian Point, and Nequaak, which were the principal rallying points for the savages.

* Cooney's History of the Northern Part of New Brunswick and District of Gaspé, pp. 31, 32.

After the conquest of Quebec, a vessel having on board the remains of General Wolfe was driven by a gale of wind into Miramichi River. The captain sent a boat and six men on shore to procure water. The boat landed at Henderson's Cove, and while the men were employed, they were surprised by a party of armed Indians and soldiers from the fort, and inhumanly massacred upon the spot. The captain of the vessel, having ascertained through the medium of the pilot that this murderous act had been committed, resolved to retaliate. He first silenced the battery at the Cove, and then destroyed the settlement at Canadian Point, where, it is said, he killed the miserable wretches that had escaped the famine and the pestilence. In proceeding to sea, he landed at Nequaak, and set fire to a large chapel. From this circumstance the settlement has ever since been called Burnt Church.

In 1760, the French Government made an attempt to regain Quebec, and to strengthen their forces in Canada. Twenty-two store-ships, under a strong convoy, were sent from France, and reached the Gulf of St. Lawrence, where information was received that a British squadron had preceded them up the river. Upon the receipt of this intelligence, the commander of the French fleet took shelter in the Bay Chaleurs, where he was followed by Captain Byron, commanding-officer of the British ships at Louisburg. The British squadron consisted of the *Fame*, *Dorsetshire*, *Achilles*, *Scarborough*, and *Repulse*. In proceeding up Gaspé Bay, the French ship *La Catherine* was captured, and another vessel was taken near *Carraquette*. The French commander, finding that he was pursued, took shelter in the *Restigouche*, at the town of *Petite Rochelle*, where there were two batteries. Captain Byron with much difficulty worked his ships up the river; and he soon silenced the forts on the shore, and brought the enemy to a general engagement. The French fought bravely, until Monsieur Bourdo, the captain of one of the ships, was killed, and a powder-vessel blew up.* Captain Byron captured and destroyed the whole

* During this engagement, two English sailors who were prisoners in one of the French ships jumped overboard and swam to a British ship, unhurt by the musket-balls discharged at them. They immediately went to the guns of their countrymen, and, as might be expected, fought bravely.

fleet, which, besides transports, included the *Marchault*, of 32 guns; *Esperance*, 30 guns; *Bienfaisant*, 22 guns; *Marquis de Malose*, 18 guns; and several sail of small privateers. He then destroyed all the fortifications, and burned the town of *Petite Rochelle*, which contained 200 houses. The remains of two French vessels may still be seen at low-water near *Mission Point*, where several pieces of cannon are partially buried in the sand.

Near one of the ancient batteries, a gun was recovered a few years ago by Mr. Robert Ferguson. It is a long French 18-pounder, and is now mounted near the residence of that gentleman. At the site of *Petite Rochelle*, muskets, swords, bomb-shells, with a variety of other warlike instruments, have been found; and among the ruins of the town, china, silver forks and spoons, and other articles of luxury, have been discovered. The walls, cellars, and foundations of houses may still be traced at the site of *Petite Rochelle*, which, like many other towns and populous villages in America, was sacrificed to secure the country to the British Crown.

Great Britain had now obtained by conquest the whole of North America, excepting only a small Colony on the south side of the *Mississippi*. The *Acadians* and *Indians* therefore gave up all hopes of holding *Nova Scotia* as the subjects of France, and therefore again tendered their submission.

The few French settlers that remained at *Miramichi*, *Richibucto*, *Shediac*, *Peticodiac*, and other places, appeared before Colonel *Frye* at *Cumberland*, and promised faithful allegiance to the British Government. The Rev. Mr. *Manack*, a Roman Catholic missionary, with a number of the principal inhabitants and four Indian chiefs, signed a formal declaration and promise of loyalty to the King. They also bound themselves, with those they were sent to represent, to appear at *Bay Verte* in the succeeding spring, to abide by such decision as might be made by the Governor in their case.

During the winter, eight more Indian chiefs surrendered themselves; and the whole *Micmac* tribe, which then amounted to 6,000 souls, abandoned the cause of France, and became dependent upon the English. The following are the names of the Chiefs that signed the obligation of allegiance, and their places of abode:—*Louis Francis*, Chief

of Miramichi; Dennis Winemowet, of Taboqunkik; Etienne Abchabo, of Pohoomoosh; Claud Atanage, of Gediaak; Paul Lawrence, of La Have; Joseph Algemoure, of Chignecto, or Cumberland; John Newit, of Pictou; Baptiste Lamourne, of St. John's Island; Rene Lamourne, of Nalkitgoniash; Jeannot Piquadauduet, of Minas; Augustin Michael, of Richibucto; Bartlemy Annqualet, of Kishpugowitk.*

The above Chiefs were sent to Halifax, and on the 1st of July, 1761, Joseph Argimault (or, as he was called by the Indians, Argimooch) held a *great* talk with Governor Lawrence. The hatchet was formally buried, the calumet was smoked, and all the Chiefs acknowledged King George to be their father. The ceremony was conducted with great military display. The officers of the several departments were present, and the inhabitants of the town mixed with the untamed savages of the woods; the several bands played the national anthem; the garrison and men-of-war fired royal salutes; and King George was proclaimed amidst loud acclamations of peace and harmony.

The Indians were allowed to retain their possessions, and to exercise their own laws. Thus was the spell that bound these people to the French broken, and the whole continent was subdued by the wisdom of British policy and the power of British arms.

Immediately after the above event, settlers from Great Britain and the neighbouring Colonies began to flow into the Province. In 1764, Mr. William Davidson emigrated from the North of Scotland to Miramichi, and he is said to have been the first British settler that landed at that place. At the time of his arrival, the houses of the French had been abandoned and destroyed, and the Indians were lords of the soil. In the following year, Mr. Davidson obtained a grant of land from the Government of 100,000 acres, situated on the south-west branch of the Miramichi River. He was afterwards joined by a Mr. Cort, from Aberdeen. These two persons caught from 1,400 to 1,800 tierces of salmon yearly, and soon commenced a profitable trade. They lived upon good terms with the aborigines, until the common cement of the American

* Taboqunkik is the original name of Taboointac, now called Tabosintac. Pohoomoosh is now called Pugmouche, and Gediaak alludes to Shediak. Nalkitgoniash means, Antigonish; and Kishpugowitk, Kishoubuguak.

Revolution, when the savages, who had previously been restrained by their own treaty of peace made at Halifax, and the exertions of the Missionaries, now displayed their flags, sounded the whoop and yell of war, and bade defiance to the pale faces of the east. They burned two houses, destroyed the cattle, and robbed Mr. Cort's store of 700 moose-skins. They declared themselves in favour of the American rebels, and opened a correspondence with the Revolutionists. Under these distressing circumstances, Davidson and the few persons belonging to his establishment applied to the Government at Halifax for relief; but up to the summer of 1777 no aid was obtained.

The Indians were holding a Grand Council at Bartibog Island, and had resolved upon the death of every individual belonging to the infant settlement. While the Council was sitting, and Davidson and his associates were making preparations to escape, the Viper sloop-of-war, commanded by Captain Harvey, appeared in the Bay. She had captured the American privateer Lafayette, and in order to decoy the savages, she was sent up the river under American colours. But the Indians were too chary to be deceived by this stratagem, and, by assuming the character of pirates, they resolved to make a prize of the vessel. Upwards of thirty of them were allowed to come on board. After a desperate struggle, they were overpowered; and such as were not killed in the affray were put in irons. Among these desperadoes was one named Pierre Martin, whose strength and savage courage were truly characteristic of his tribe. Two marines were unable to bind him, and he nearly strangled two others with whom he was engaged. After he had received several severe wounds, he tore a bayonet from the hands of a sailor, and missing his thrust at one of his opponents, he drove the weapon through one of the stanchions of the vessel. Covered with wounds, the savage at last fell, as was supposed to rise no more; but even in his dying moments, when his flesh was quivering under deep sabre-cuts, and his body was bathed in blood, he sprang to his feet, and fastened himself upon the throat of one of his companions, upbraiding him with cowardice. He had almost strangled the trembling Indian, when he was despatched by one of the crew. The wretches thus taken were sent to Quebec, and nine of them were afterwards put on board a vessel bound to Halifax. On her passage the

vessel engaged an American privateer. Etienne Bamaly, one of the prisoners, requested leave to fight for King George. Permission was given him—his irons were removed, a musket put in his hands, and he killed at two different times the helmsman of the American cruiser. The English gained the victory; and when the prize was brought to Halifax, Bamaly was liberated on account of his bravery.* Of sixteen Indians carried away, only six ever returned to Miramichi: among these were two villains called Knives and Tax, who afterwards murdered two men and a boy.†

On another occasion, the English inhabitants of Miramichi would have been destroyed by the Indians, except for the timely arrival of Monsieur Cassanette, a Roman Catholic priest, who checked them in their diabolical determination. The Julian family also frequently employed themselves in restraining their tribe from acts of violence.‡

Some time after the taking of Quebec, a Mr. Walker, from Scotland, opened a settlement at Alston Point, on the north side of Bathurst Harbour. Among the persons who accompanied Mr. Walker, was John Young, an Englishman, who a few years ago was still alive, and was then nearly 100 years old. The trade of the settlement consisted of fish, furs, moose-skins, and the hides, oil, and tusks of walrus. This settlement also suffered much from the outrages of the Indians, and during several years the inhabitants kept themselves in readiness for an attack.

After the American Revolution had commenced, several privateers entered the Bay, and took and destroyed property to the amount of £10,000. Two of these privateers were afterwards sunk off Roc Percé by two English gun-brigs, the Wolf and the Diligence.

Notwithstanding the French and Acadians had from time to time fallen into different hands, and had been more than once driven from their possessions by the British, to whom they had been unfaithful, there were always a few families who remained in almost every district.

* Cooney, p. 46.

† The author has a letter in his possession from Michael Franklin to James White, Esq. corroborating the statement of this affair.

‡ The descendants of the old Julian family are still residing at Burnt Church, or Nequaak.

When troubles arose, they fled into the forests, and lived with the natives; and in times of peace they returned to their lands, and resumed their occupations. Many of those also who had escaped to other places during war, when favourable opportunities occurred, returned to the places they had cleared and cultivated.

As early as 1670 there were French settlements on every side of Bathurst Harbour, at Grande Ance, and Caraquette. In the above year Mr. Charles Doucette established himself on Little River; and it was observed by him and other respectable persons of his day, that many of the French and Acadian settlers were then in very comfortable circumstances.

One of the oldest settlements in the County of Gloucester is at Caraquette. Two brothers by the name of La Roc, from Luneville, and two other individuals, named Burton and St. John, natives of Bretagne, began a settlement at that place in 1768. The present Acadian inhabitants of New Brunswick are chiefly descendants of people from Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, Cumberland, Minas, and other parts of Nova Scotia.

In 1760, James Simonds, Esq. visited the River St. John, with the intention of establishing a fishery at that place; but the hostility of the Indians and Acadians compelled him to return to New England. In 1764 he was joined by Mr. James White and Captain Francis Peabody,* who, with a small party of fishermen, arrived at the site of the present city of St. John on the 16th April. At this time the whole surface of the country was covered by a dense forest, and scarcely a tree had been felled where the city now stands. Shad, salmon, alewives, and other kinds of fish were then abundant; and they soon commenced a trade in fish, furs, and moose-skins.

The first English settlement made on the St. John was at Maugerville. In 1766 a number of families in Massachusetts obtained from the Government a grant of a township on the St. John, and immediately removed to the above place, now known as the County of Sun-

* Mr. Simonds was the father of the present Honourable Charles Simonds. Mr. White was an Ensign in a regiment of foot, and the father of the present James White, Esq., High Sheriff of the City and County of St. John. Captain Peabody afterwards settled at Maugerville, where he left a numerous race of descendants.

bury. At different times during the American Revolutionary War, they were reinforced by families from New England. The first commission of the peace for this new settlement is dated 11th August, 1766, and the Courts of Common Pleas were held in Sunbury until 1783, when Fredericton was made the seat of Government.* Up to this period the above county included the whole of the country now known as New Brunswick.

The first inhabitants erected a fort at Oromucto. The sufferings and hardships endured by these people, from the time of their first landing up to the close of the Revolutionary War, can scarcely be conceived by persons accustomed to civilised life. For many years they were constantly exposed to the depredations of the Indians, and their lives were often in jeopardy. It was not until after many years of hard toil and severe suffering had passed, that they were able to live in any degree of peace and comfort. In 1783 they amounted to 800 souls.

After the breaking out of the American Rebellion, the Revolutionists pillaged every unfortified village in Nova Scotia. A party of rebels from Machias burned Fort Frederick at the mouth of the River St. John, and on the site of the present town of Carlton. Simonds and White had erected small houses at the foot of the eminence now called Fort Howe Hill: at these houses and their inmates the rebels wantonly discharged a number of cannon-shot, having previously robbed the place of every valuable article they could discover.

Next season they induced the Indians to join them; and the Chiefs of the tribes on the St. John entered into a special contract at Boston to aid their cause, and destroy the British. No less than six hundred warriors assembled near the Gemsec, with hostile intentions. The inhabitants of Maugerville being, therefore, placed in a most perilous condition, took refuge in their little fort at Oromucto. The few families at St. John, who were joined by Mr. William Hazen about this time, were also in imminent danger of being murdered. In this state of things, Mr. Michael Franklin was despatched from Halifax to the River St. John, and was successful in obtaining the treaty the Indian Chiefs had signed at Boston, and in renewing the articles of

* Notitia of New Brunswick, p. 107.

peace they had entered into with the British. Messrs. White and Hazen, who were also engaged in the work of reconciliation, were captured by the savages, and had nearly perished before they were liberated. So faithless were the Indians, that they assembled again in 1779; and they were not appeased until they had received promises of large presents.* This was the last attempt of an Indian war.

* The following original letter and invoice were presented to the author by James White, Esq. High Sheriff of St. John:—

“To the Chief Captains and Principal Indians of the River St. John.

“Brethren,—I am much concerned I cannot see you, as I intended, on the 25th of this month; but Major Studholm will meet you for me, who will tell you the sentiments of my heart.

“Brethren,—King George wants masts for his ships, and has employed people to provide them on the River St. John, depending on you to protect the workmen in cutting them and conveying them to Fort Howe.

“Brethren,—The Governor sends you some presents which Major Studholm will deliver you. They are intended to bind fast your promise, that you will protect the mast-cutters.

“Brethren,—King George, my gracious master, has sent me a large quantity of presents for you; they are on the water on their way to Halifax. When they arrive, I shall deliver them to you in person.

“These presents the King gives you for your delivering up to me the treaty you had entered into with the Council of Boston.

“I salute you, and am your affectionate Brother,

(Signed) “MICHAEL FRANKLIN.”

“Windsor, 18th May, 1780.”

“Invoice of sundry Articles shipped at Windsor the 4th instant, on the schooner Menaquasha, Peter Dousett master, for Fort Howe, by order of Sir Richard Hughs, Commissioner of His Majesty's Navy, to be given as presents to the Indians of the River St. John and its neighbourhood, by Major Studholm, in such manner and proportions as he shall think proper, to induce the said Indians to protect the workmen and others in providing masts for the King's Navy, viz.:—

“50 pair blankets.

40 shirts.

1 piece blue stroud.

6½ yds. blue and scarlet cloth.

100 rings.

200 flints.

54 yds. ribl on.

During the above period, the Americans had spread disaffection in Nova Scotia; and even in the infant state of the settlements of the River St. John, an individual was found to guide the rebellious malcontents of the revolted Colonies through the woods, in order to take Fort Cumberland. This expedition failed,* and a scrupulously-humane Government has not remembered the fact against the ring-leader, nor his descendants.

The people of Truro, Onslow, and Londonderry, in Nova Scotia, all except five, refused to take the oath of allegiance, and therefore their deputies were excluded from the House of Assembly. In King's County, Nova Scotia, a liberty-pole was cut and made ready to be hoisted, when the arrival of a detachment of the King's Orange Rangers put an end to all disaffected movements. With the increase of population there has been an increase of loyalty, although there are many at the present day enjoying the favours of the Government who would not venture to make any appeal to the loyalty of their forefathers.

On the 21st January, 1783, a treaty of peace was signed between Great Britain, France, and Spain. The war being thus ended, several

2½ cwt. shot.
 3 pieces blue stroud.
 3 pieces white kersey.
 60 milled caps.
 40 worsted do.
 50 castor hats.
 2½ cwt. shot.
 100 yds. embost serge.
 1 barrel gunpowder.
 100 hoes.
 1 cask of wine sent by Mr. Franklin for the squaws, and such men as do not drink rum.

(Signed)

“MICHAEL FRANKLIN.”

“Windsor, 18th May, 1780.”

* One of the party referred to here stole quietly in a dark night up to the walls of the fort, and, being upon all-fours, the British sentinel espied him, and mistook him for a bear. He fired and killed the spy, who was brought in dead next morning. The assailants took to their heels when they heard the report of the sentinel's gun.

thousands of disbanded troops were removed from New England to New Brunswick. A number of Acadians who had established themselves at Fredericton were ordered to remove, for the purpose of accommodating a body of discharged soldiers. Those poor people, who had long been the sport of fortune, were finally settled at Madawasca, where their descendants now occupy an extensive and tolerably well-cultivated district.

It had been supposed that the Acadians, who had been driven from Fredericton, had at last found a resting-place; but in the recent settlement of the Boundary dispute, one part of Madawasca District has been assigned to Great Britain, and the other to the United States; and the divisional line has placed the same people under two different Governments.

In the above year great numbers of loyalists and refugees also removed to the Province, and the general improvement of the country commenced with extraordinary vigour. The Government offered every protection and assistance to those who had left their native homes, and sacrificed in many instances the ties of consanguinity and affection to their King and the British Constitution.

Each family received a certain quantity of land; and provisions were supplied to the destitute, until by their labour they should be able to maintain themselves.

In 1784, New Brunswick was separated from Nova Scotia, and made a distinct Government. General Carlton was appointed Governor on the 16th of August of the same year, and during his administration he made every effort to improve the state of the country. The Government has since been administered by a number of persons styled Lieutenant-Governors, or in their absence or demise by the senior member of the Executive Council for the time being.

Administration of the Government of the Province of New Brunswick.

NAME.	TITLE.	PERIOD OF ADMINISTRATION.	Died in the Gov'ment.
Thomas Carlton, Esq.	Capt.-General and Gov.-in-Chief	From Aug. 16, 1784, to Oct. 29, 1786	
Ditto	Lieutenant-Governor	" Oct. 30, 1786, to Oct. 4, 1803	
Gabriel G. Ludlow, Esq.	{ President of H.M. Council, and Commander-in-Chief . }	" Oct. 5, 1803, to Feb. 12, 1808	Died.
Edward Winslow, Esq.	Ditto	" Feb. 20, 1808, to May 23, 1808	
Major-General Martin Hunter	Ditto	" May 24, 1808, to Dec. 16, 1808	
Lieutenant Colonel George Johnstone	Ditto	" Dec. 17, 1808, to Apr. 27, 1809	
Major-General Martin Hunter	Ditto	" Apr. 28, 1809, to Sep. 10, 1811	
Major-General William Balfour	Ditto	" Sep. 11, 1811, to Nov. 13, 1811	Died.
Major-General Martin Hunter	Ditto	" Nov. 14, 1811, to June 14, 1812	
Major-General George Stracey Smyth	President and Comm.-in-Chief .	" June 15, 1812, to Aug. 16, 1813	
Major-General Sir Thomas Saumarez	Ditto	" Aug. 17, 1813, to Aug. 13, 1814	
Major-General George Stracey Smyth	Ditto	" Aug. 14, 1814, to June 24, 1816	
Lieutenant-Colonel Harris W. Hailes	Ditto	" June 25, 1816, to June 30, 1817	
Major-General George Stracey Smyth	Lieut.-Gov. and Comm.-in-Chief	" July 1, 1817, to Mar. 27, 1823	Died.
Ward Chipman, Esq.	President and Comm.-in-Chief .	" Apr. 1, 1823, to Feb. 9, 1824	Died.
John Murray Bliss, Esq.	Ditto	" Feb. 21, 1824, to Aug. 27, 1824	
Major-General Sir Howard Douglas, Bart.	Lieut.-Gov. and Comm.-in-Chief	" Aug. 28, 1824, to Mar. 29, 1829	
William Black, Esq.	President and Comm.-in-Chief .	" Mar. 30, 1829, to Sept. 8, 1831	
Major-Gen. Sir Arch. Campbell, Bt. G.C.B.	Lieut.-Gov. and Comm.-in-Chief	" Sept. 9, 1831, to May 1, 1837	
Major-Gen. Sir John Harvey, K.C.H., C.B.	Ditto	" May 1, 1837, to Apr. 26, 1841	
Sir William Macbean George Colebrooke, K.H.	} Ditto {	" Apr. 26, 1841; now adminis- tering the Government.	

In the year 1809 a duty was laid on Baltic timber, while that of the Colonies was left free. From this circumstance the trade of the Province rapidly increased; and although the commerce of New Brunswick has been occasionally checked by over-trading and rash speculations, the country is in a prosperous condition.

For the gifts made to the Loyalists, Great Britain has been amply compensated in the commerce of the country, and the loyalty of its inhabitants; and the hardships and suffering endured by the faithful subjects of the Crown have been rewarded with almost universal prosperity.

CHAPTER IV.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

NEW BRUNSWICK lies between $45^{\circ} 5''$ and $48^{\circ} 20''$ of North latitude, and between $63^{\circ} 50'$ and 68° of West longitude. It extends nearly north and south, and forms an irregular square between Nova Scotia and Canada. It is bounded on the north by the Bay Chaleurs and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which separate it from Gaspé west by the Restigouche River, or boundary of Canada. On the east it also extends to the Gulf, or Northumberland Straits. A narrow peninsula joins it to Nova Scotia on the south-east, and it is separated from that Province on the south by the Bay of Fundy. On the west it meets the State of Maine. It contains about 26,000 square miles, or 16,500,000 acres: 6,000,000 of acres have been granted; 10,500,000 remain not granted; and of that quantity about 9,000,000 of acres are fit for cultivation.

Disputed Territory.

It was not until after the peace between Great Britain and the United States had been ratified in 1815, that the Americans began to occupy a tract of country situated between the State of Maine and New Brunswick, since known as the Disputed Territory. As early as 1783 the British had settled a party of Acadians at Madawasca, and they had exercised jurisdiction over the country from its first discovery, except at those periods when it was held by the French as forming a part of ancient Acadia, or Nova Scotia.

The vague terms employed in the treaties between the two Governments respecting the north-western boundary of the Province began to attract the attention of some of the inhabitants of the Northern States. At first a kind of undefined title was set up to certain lands

southward of the St. John, and finally their claim was extended northward to the high lands that overlook the St. Lawrence. That the framers of the Treaty of 1783, and the treaty itself, never contemplated such a claim, is certain ; and it was only by the imperfect phraseology of the article establishing the boundaries, that the Americans hoped to be successful in extending their north-eastern frontier. The treaty declares that the north-west boundary of Nova Scotia, which then included New Brunswick, shall be "formed by a line drawn due north from the source of the St. Croix to the high lands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the River St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut River." The words which form a part of the treaty were written without any knowledge of the country they were intended to dispose of. Instead of one chain of high lands from which the waters fall in opposite directions into the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, there are two, and between them is situated the territory that was in dispute. The British insisted upon making one of those chains the line, and the Americans the other ; and thus a controversy arose that had nearly involved the two nations in a war. All the rivers on the south side of the British line do fall into the Atlantic Ocean ; but on the northern side of that line they flow into the St. John, and not into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The line claimed by the Americans was also at variance with the treaty ; for from one of its sides all the waters fall into the St. Lawrence, and from the other they descend into the Restigouche, opening into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and into the St. John, opening into the Bay of Fundy.

But the treaty contemplated "reciprocal advantages" and "neutral convenience" upon "principles of liberal equality and reciprocity." With such principles the territory in dispute would be assigned to the British ; and the whole history of the country, from its earliest date to the present time, clearly gives Great Britain a just title to all the lands she has now given away to the American States.

Even a brief review of the Reports and other works that have been written on the subject would occupy a volume. The Messages of the Governors of Maine had teemed with invective against the British, for holding what they had always possessed ; and the Congress of the

United States was yearly pressed with this vexatious question. The intemperate portion of the American press also found in the "disputed territory" an ample field for animadversion, until the agitation required to be appeased by the final adjustment of the line between the two Powers. Although an able work was written on the subject by a gentleman at St. John, and the press of the British Colonies occasionally touched upon the dispute, the Legislature of New Brunswick appeared to view the matter with indifference, until they found it necessary to place a sum of money at the disposal of the Government, to prevent the farther encroachments of the people of Maine, and to prepare for a threatened Border war.

A Commission was appointed to establish the line, under Jay's Treaty, in 1794. The Commissioners agreed in regard to the identity of the St. Croix, and established the boundary along that river and the Cheputnaticook to its source, and thence to Mars Hill. From that point the American Commissioners insisted upon extending the due-north line to the River Metis, falling into the St. Lawrence. The British declared Mars Hill to be the north-west angle of Nova Scotia, and at that point the due-north line should have terminated. From Mars Hill a continuous chain of mountains and hills separates the sources of the Penobscot, Kenebec, and Androscoggin Rivers, which fall into the Atlantic, from the branches of the St. John, falling into the Bay of Fundy, and the Chaudière, and other streams, descending into the St. Lawrence.

Whatever may be the language of the treaty, these are evidently the high lands to which it alludes as being the boundary. From this disagreement the Commissioners abandoned the work, and the question remained unsettled.

By the Treaty of Ghent of 1815, a provision was made for the final settlement of the question; and the whole matter in dispute was referred to the King of the Netherlands, who was chosen an arbitrator between the two Powers. After hearing the arguments, and examining the reports on both sides, his Majesty took a common course in such cases, and, to use an American expression, "split the difference" between the contending parties.

The line of the award extended from the source of the St. Croix

due north to the St. John, thence along the middle of the "Thalweg" (deepest channel of that river) to the St. Francis, and thence along certain lines marked on maps to the north-westernmost source of Connecticut River.*

Notwithstanding the astringent clauses of the Treaty of Ghent to make the decision of the King of the Netherlands binding and conclusive, it was not agreed to by the American Government, and the whole matter being thrown open, soon became a source of strife and contention on the borders, and endangered the peace of the two nations.

In the mean time, the Government of the State of Maine spared no pains or expense in obtaining an accurate knowledge of the country. Topographical and geological surveys of the "disputed territory" were authorised, and the information gained by her own people afterwards afforded the United States a great advantage in the final settlement of the question.

In July 1839, Lieutenant-Colonel Mudge, of the Royal Engineers, and Mr. Featherstonhaugh, were appointed Commissioners to examine and report upon the boundary. The professional celebrity of the former gentleman would attach great weight to the Report made afterwards; but the time allowed to survey an extensive wilderness region was far too short for him to perform the task, and the work appears to have been assumed by his colleague, who spent a few weeks near the territory in dispute, and then compiled the Report.

Although this *ex-parte* survey cost the Government a large sum of money, it was not attended with any good results. Some of the statements in the Report were found to be incorrect; the charge made against the former Commissioners was unfair, and but few of the facts stated were collected by persons employed in the survey. The Americans, ever ready to avail themselves of a favourable circumstance, made the Report a subject of severe criticism, and an instrument to weaken the British claim.

While Great Britain was expending large sums of money in negotiations, commissions, surveys, explorations, &c., the people of the United

* See Map.

States were taking possession of the territory in dispute. They crossed the high lands separating the waters that flow into the St. John from those that flow through the American territory into the Atlantic, and pitched their tents upon the Aroostook, where they erected Fort Fairfield. They also built another fort a few miles above Madawasca; they granted the lands, made roads, and opened settlements in a tract of country which justly belonged to Great Britain.

In 1842 a Border war was threatened, and Lord Ashburton was despatched to America with power to settle the Boundary Line. After much negotiation, the matter was amicably disposed of, but with a great sacrifice on the part of Great Britain. The line established by the Ashburton Treaty does not differ materially from that awarded by the King of the Netherlands;* but while it has secured to England a communication between New Brunswick and Canada, it has yielded to the Americans a vast tract of excellent land and timber, and also the navigation of the St. John, along which munitions of war may be sent by the Republic into the very heart of a British Province previous to the outbreak of hostilities.

The President of the United States, in his Message to Congress in 1845, has said in reference to the Oregon question, and the navigation of the Columbia River, that "the right of any foreign power to the free navigation of any of our rivers through the heart of the country was one" he "was unwilling to concede." If such are the views of the President and the people of the United States in regard to a river to which they have no claim, how must Lord Ashburton blush when he considers that he gave away the navigation of the St. John to that same power, and to those who had never claimed it! The following facts are derived from indisputable authority.

"The sentiments advanced by the senators during the secret discussion in the United States Senate, in August 1842, on the question

* The territory in dispute between the two Powers contained 12,029 square miles, or 7,697,280 square acres: of these by the Ashburton Treaty the United States obtain 7,015 square miles, equal to 4,489,600 acres, and England 5,012 square miles, or 3,207,680 acres. By the line of the King of the Netherlands, the United States would have had 7,908 square miles (5,061,120 acres), and England 4,119 square miles (2,636,160 acres).—Vide Map.

of ratifying the Ashburton Treaty for the settlement of the Boundary Line dispute, have recently been made public, with some of the inducements which led to the approval of the Senate. Among these, a most important document was brought forward by Mr. Rives, Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, who stated, that it was due to the distinguished gentleman (Mr. Jared Sparks, of Boston,) by whom the document referred to was discovered in the Archives of France, while pursuing his laborious and intelligent researches connected with the history of the United States, that the account of it should be given in his own words, as contained in a communication addressed by him to the Department of State. The following is a copy of the communication :—

“ ‘ While pursuing my researches among the voluminous papers relating to the American Revolution in the *Archives des Affaires Etrangères* in Paris, I found in one of the bound volumes an original letter from Dr. Franklin to Count de Vergennes, of which the following is an exact transcript :—

“ ‘ Passy, December 6, 1782.

“ ‘ SIR,—I have the honor of returning herewith the map your Excellency sent me yesterday. I have marked with a strong red line, according to your desire, the limits of the United States, as settled in the preliminaries between the British and American Plenipotentiaries.

“ ‘ With great respect, I am, &c.

“ ‘ B. FRANKLIN.

“ ‘ This letter was written six days after the preliminaries were signed ; and if we could procure the identical map mentioned by Franklin, it would seem to afford conclusive evidence as to the meaning affixed by the Commissioners to the language of the treaty on the subject of the boundaries. You may well suppose that I lost no time in making inquiry for the map, not doubting that it would confirm all my previous opinions respecting the validity of our claim. In the geographical department of the Archives are sixty thousand maps and charts—but so well arranged with catalogues and indexes, that any one of them may be easily found. After a little research in the American division, with the aid of the keeper, I came upon a map of North America, by D’Anville, dated 1746, in size about eighteen inches square,

on which was drawn a strong red line through the entire boundary of the United States, answering precisely to Franklin's description. The line is bold and distinct in every part, made with red ink, and apparently drawn with a camel-hair pencil, or a pen with a blunt point. There is no other colouring on any part of the map.

“ ‘ Imagine my surprise on discovering that this line runs wholly south of the St. John, and between the head waters of that river and those of the Penobscot and Kennebec. In short, it is exactly the line now contended for by Great Britain, except that it concedes more than is claimed. The north line, after departing from the source of the St. Croix, instead of proceeding to Mars Hill, stops far short of that point, and turns off to the west, so as to leave on the British side all the streams which flow into the St. John between the source of the St. Croix and Mars Hill. It is evident that the line from the St. Croix to the Canadian high land is intended to exclude all the waters running into the St. John.

“ ‘ There is no positive proof that this map is actually the one marked by Franklin; yet, upon any other supposition, it would be difficult to explain the circumstances of its agreeing so perfectly with its description, and of its being preserved in the place where it would naturally be deposited by the Count de Vergennes. I also found another map in the Archives, on which the same boundary was traced in a dotted red line with a pen, apparently coloured from the other.

“ ‘ I enclose herewith a map of Maine, on which I have drawn a strong black line, corresponding with the red one above mentioned.

“ ‘ JARED SPARKS.’

“ Not only do this document and the map referred to go directly to prove that the original line claimed by the British was the line understood by the Plenipotentiaries of both countries when the treaty of peace was concluded, but this undeniable fact is corroborated by proof from the archives of an American Statesman.—Mr. Rives said—

“ ‘ A map has been vauntingly paraded here, from Mr. Jefferson's collection, in the zeal of opposition, (without taking time to see what it was,) to confront and invalidate the map found by Mr. Sparks in the Foreign Office at Paris; but the moment it is examined, it is found to

contain, by the most precise and remarkable correspondence, in every feature, the map communicated by Mr. Sparks! The Senator who produced it could see nothing but the microscopic dotted line running off in a north-easterly direction; but the moment other eyes were applied to it, there was found, in bold relief, a strong red line, indicating the limits of the United States according to the treaty of peace, and coinciding, minutely and exactly, with the boundary traced on the map of Mr. Sparks. That this red line, and not the hardly-visible dotted line, was intended to represent the limits of the United States, according to the treaty of peace, is conclusively shown by the circumstance, that the red line is drawn on the map all around the exterior boundary of the United States; through the middle of the Northern Lakes, thence through the Long Lake and the Rainy Lake to the Lake of the Woods, and from the western extremity of the Lake of the Woods to the River Mississippi; and along that river to the point where the boundary of the United States, according to the treaty of peace, leaves it, and thence, by its easterly course, to the mouth of the St. Mary's on the Atlantic.

“With such evidence of the correctness of the position taken by the British Government in the possession of the American Cabinet, the readiness of these wily statesmen to assent to a proposition by which they would knowingly overreach honest and unsuspecting John Bull is easily accounted for; and Britain must only blame herself in being so unprepared to defeat the designing trickery of which, in the present instance, she has been the subject. We envy not the feelings of the American people, however, in the matter: the nations of the world must view with merited indignation and disgust a Government which could stoop to such meanness; but it appears to be merely an approval, in high places, of the *repudiating* system adopted by public bodies and States of the Union,—which, it is to be hoped, will yet meet with its reward.”

In the settlement of the question, the principle that a British subject could never be alienated from his allegiance to his native country has been violated, and the people of Madawasca have been bartered as if they were common articles of traffic.

From a humane desire to preserve peace, the treaty was received in the Provinces with silent coolness, which has been mistaken for satisfaction; and whatever may be the claims of Lord Ashburton to the praise of an enlightened statesman and politician, the above treaty reflects no credit upon his ability, and is disgraceful to the country that invested him with the powers of reconciliation.

The boundary between New Brunswick and Canada East has never been determined by actual survey, or with a proper regard to the physical geography of the country, which seldom agrees with the general terms employed in treaties. Now that the American line has been explored and marked, the fixing of a permanent boundary between the Provinces above named is necessary to prevent disputes, and by it the timber revenues of New Brunswick will be increased or diminished.

In a proclamation, bearing date October 7th, 1763, the boundary of Quebec is thus described: "The said line, crossing the St. Lawrence and Lake Champlain in 45 degrees of North latitude, passes along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea, and also along the coast of the Bay des Chaleurs and the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Cape Rosier." The same boundary is referred to in the Commissions of Governors Murray and Carlton, dated respectively Nov. 21st, 1763, and April 21st, 1767. In what is called the Quebec Act of 1774, the Province is bounded "south by a line from Bay of Chaleurs along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the River St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea, to a point in the 45th degree of North latitude." This boundary is adhered to in the Commission of Governor Haldimand, dated Sept. 18th, 1777, and in the Commission of Governor Carlton, of April 22nd, 1786. In several subsequent Commissions to the Governors of Nova Scotia, and also in that of Governor Carlton, the first Governor of New Brunswick, the northern boundary of the Province is fixed "as far as the western extremity of the Bay des Chaleurs." But from the western extremity of that bay no boundary has been established, and the River Restigouche has been adopted for the line by accident, or from the expediency of restricting the lumbermen to cer-

tain limits on both sides. A dispute has arisen between the two Provinces, in regard to the boundary between them; and, after a protracted negotiation, the matter has been referred to the decision of the Home Government.

During his explorations of this part of the Province in 1842, the writer was directed by the Provincial Government of New Brunswick to examine the country with reference to the above line, and his report was not favourable to making the Restigouche the boundary. The stream which has generally been understood to be the Restigouche, at the place where it is divided into two branches, cannot be considered as the main river. The main stream on some of the maps is called the Cadamkiswa, which the inhabitants have changed into Madam Kegewick, and finally into Tom Kedgewick. The Micmac Indian name of this stream is *Pe-tam-kedgewee*. The southerly branch of the river, above its junction with the larger stream, is called the *A-waan-jeet*. The former stream is one-third larger than the latter, and is 80 yards wide where it receives the above tributary. It may be remarked, that when a river is forked, the Indians apply a distinct or new name to each branch. The sources of the Petamkedgewee approach Temiscouta and Metis lakes. If, therefore, this river—the main Restigouche—should be the boundary between the Provinces, a far greater tract of country, and more excellent timber, will fall into New Brunswick than has been heretofore anticipated.

The river is an inconvenient boundary in the present state of the country. Persons may contract debts on either of its sides, and by crossing to the opposite shores be placed beyond the jurisdiction of the law. In 1842, on the Canada side of the Restigouche there was only one magistrate in a distance of seventy miles of thinly-inhabited country, and criminal offences were seldom punished, except by the too common application of what is called "club laws." American vessels landed their goods and bartered their "notions" for fish without fear of molestation. They could not be controlled by the Collector of Customs on the New Brunswick side of the Restigouche; and in the Gaspé district there was no authorised seizing-officer within sixty miles of the mouth of the river. All the timber of the immense interior wilderness must be brought to the mouth of the Restigouche, where

one code of laws and one custom-house establishment would be sufficient for the Government and trade of this part of the country.

Except on the west, New Brunswick is nearly surrounded by the sea, having the Bay of Fundy on one side, and the Bay Chaleurs on the other. Although there are no deep bays like those of Nova Scotia, the coasts are indented with fine harbours, which render the Province well adapted for commerce and fishing. The coast on the Bay of Fundy side is rocky and precipitous. The constant operations of the tides and waves have scooped out, at many places, deep caverns and grottos, or left sharp angular masses of rock projecting into the sea. With these there are narrow deep basins, affording shelter to small craft, or open harbours where large ships may ride in safety.

Notwithstanding Passamaquoddy Bay is studded with islands, there are comparatively few dangerous rocks or shoals in it, and the whole coast possesses every advantage for maritime pursuits.

The lands on the whole northern coast of the Province slope gradually down beneath the sea. The water is generally shallow, and along the border of the ocean there are extensive banks of sand and shingle, which are separated from the main land by spacious lagoons. The water in all the river channels is nevertheless sufficiently deep to admit the largest ships. On the northern side of the Bay Chaleurs, or coast of Gaspé, the shores are of an opposite character, and frequently present bold overhanging cliffs.

There is great diversity in the appearance of the Province in regard to its surface. Along the coast of the Bay of Fundy, and extending northward to a distance of thirty miles, there is a tract of hilly country, occupied by deep and narrow ravines, which give the surface a mountainous appearance; but few of the hills attain any considerable degree of elevation, nor are they such as would materially retard the progress of cultivation. Watered by numerous rivulets descending from the higher grounds, the ravines and valleys vent the smaller streams, which being collected in rivers, are frequently poured into the bay over beautiful cataracts or boisterous rapids. In this district there are many large tracts of naked rock, and numerous peat-bogs, or mossy swamps, which could only be reclaimed by a dense population, and in an advanced state of agriculture. Although there are many fine belts

of *intervale** along the streams, and some patches of good soil on the hills, this division of the country, like the south side of Nova Scotia, is not well adapted for agriculture. The scenery is wild and picturesque; the bold cliffs or ragged precipices, the deep valleys, the quiet lake and the dashing waterfall, are sometimes presented at a single view. The close forests of hill and valley appear in summer like green waves rising in succession above each other. Dotted on their sides by the log-house and clearing of the settler, they declare at once the still-infant state of the Colony, and the slow progress of husbandry.

The whole north-eastern side of New Brunswick, from Bay Verte to Bathurst, presents a low and level surface, almost unbroken by hills. The country at many places is uneven; but there are few steep acclivities, except those that have been produced by the action of water upon the beds of the rivers and other streams. Extensive marshes, *intervales*, and floating peat-bogs are somewhat peculiar to this part of New Brunswick. The above tract extends in a south-west direction to the River St. John. It is the region of the great coal-field of New Brunswick, and occupies an area of 5,000 square miles. Although there are numerous parcels of land too light and sandy to be very productive, the soil in general is good, and many tracts are of a superior quality.

There is another tract of country, extending from the Meductic Falls on the River St. John to the Acadian settlement at Madawasca, and thence in a north-east direction to the Bay Chaleurs and Restigouche. This district is mountainous, and embraces a part of the chain of high lands to which the Treaty of 1783 referred in reference to the boundary between the Province and the State of Maine.

Viewed altogether, the face of the country is greatly diversified, and exhibits almost every variety of scenery. It is indeed difficult to form a correct idea of what the appearance of a wilderness region will be after its surface has been partially cleared of its burden of timber, and its level alluviums changed into fertile meadows. At many places in the wild woods there are noble streams passing through the *intervales*, and winding along their courses through lofty groves of ash and elm. Standing along the borders of these rich fields of wild grass, there are

* An American term, signifying alluvium deposited from fresh water.

sometimes abrupt rocky cliffs crowned with spruce and other evergreens; but so close is the forest, that it is only from the summit of some naked eminence that the natural beauties of the country can be perceived, or its future appearance be anticipated.

There are but few high mountains in British America; in Nova Scotia there is not an eminence that will exceed 800 feet in height. A branch of the Alleghany chain of mountains passes through the Northern States. Cataadan, in Maine, is the loftiest eminence on its western borders, being upwards of 5,000 feet above the level of the sea. In New Brunswick there is a ridge of high land which is continuous from the State of Maine to Mars Hill, near the River St. John; from thence it stretches across the country in a north-east direction, and sending off a branch to the Restigouche, it nearly reaches the Bay Chaleurs. In this ridge there are a few mountains of considerable elevation. There is also another alpine ridge, extending from the St. Croix in a north-easterly direction, across the St. John, at the Nerepis Hills, to Bull Moose Hill, at the head of Belle Isle Bay, where the high lands in that quarter terminate. The mountains of the Cheputnecticook connect this ridge with the former, and both are chiefly composed of primary rocks. The broken and elevated country of the Restigouche is united to the Gaspé Mountains.

Although the height of these lands does not allow them to be classed with the lofty mountains of other parts of the world, from their perpendicular flanks, their naked precipices, and sharp outlines, they are as alpine in their general features as the mountains of more elevated districts. The hilly country between St. John and Westmoreland has no mountains; and the eminence called Shepody Mountain, near the entrance of the Peticodiac River, is only 620 feet above the level of the sea. Mount Pleasant, at the eastern branch of the Magaquadavic, does not exceed 800 feet. Bald and Douglas Mountains, near the Nerepis River, are only about 600 feet in height; and the conical eminences eastward of the Cheputnecticook Lakes will not exceed 1,000 feet in height.

Mars Hill has obtained some degree of notoriety, from being that point where the due-north line of the American boundary, according to the British claim, should have terminated. It is situated about five

miles from the River St. John. It rises in the midst of the forest, and is covered with groves of trees. Its top contains about six acres, a part of which was cleared by the Commissioners of 1794, who erected an observatory on its summit. The height of Mars Hill is 1,700 feet; from it there is a most extensive and interesting view. The more lofty Cataadan, sixty miles distant, in the State of Maine, is distinctly visible. Moose Mountain, Bear Mountain, and other high lands of the chain, are seen stretching away to the north-east. The valleys of the Aroostook and Tobique are also observed; but, excepting the American village of Houlton, and a small clearing on the St. John, the view is one of a vast wilderness, whose forests seem to defy the industry of human beings.

The highest mountains in the Province are situated at the source of the Tobique, Upsalquitch, and Nepisiguit Rivers. Blue Mountain, Ox Mountain, Pot Mountain, and Bald Mountain, of this range, will exceed 2,000 feet in height. This highland district affords some of the most sublime scenery in the Province. The summits of the mountains are most frequently naked. In some of the deep chasms and ravines, at their northern bases, where the rays of the sun are obstructed, the snow does not disappear during the summer, and in the spring glaciers sometimes descend, sweeping the woods before them downwards into the valleys below.

The streams pass through narrow and tortuous channels, frequently overhung by stupendous cliffs; and the water, dashing from fall to fall, is finally lost in wreaths of spray and foam in the more quiet streams of the lower ground. From the mountain tops nothing is to be seen in the foreground but vast masses of shelving rock, which frequently overhang the tops of large trees that have fastened themselves to the declivities, or stand erect from the bottoms of the gorges. In the distance, the eye wanders in vain for some peculiar object in the woody covering of the earth.

There is here a tract of country at least 300 miles in circumference upon which there is not a human dwelling; and the presence of the industrious beaver is evidence that the Indians seldom penetrate so far into the wilderness.

A mile and a half above Campbelltown, on the Restigouche River,

there is a sharp lofty hill called the Sugar Loaf. It is about 800 feet high, and the side fronting the river is a perpendicular cliff with a slope *débris* at its base. Its ascent is extremely difficult and dangerous, except at its eastern side. Near a place called the Flat Lands, there is another conical eminence, called Ben Lomond. From the tops of these hills the high lands of the interior may be viewed in all their grandeur, and the Tracadegash and other mountains of Gaspé are seen covering the country to the north with lofty cones of unknown altitudes. Southward of the Sugar Loaf there is a wide area of table-land, which, like the uninhabited district of the Tobique, is covered with a living mantle of pine, spruce, and other evergreens.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.

There is perhaps no country in the world of the same extent that enjoys greater facilities of navigation than New Brunswick. All its large rivers are navigable for ships, and its smaller streams afford safe passage to boats and canoes.

The St. John is the largest river of the Province. It was discovered by De Monts on the 24th June, 1604. By the native Etchemins it was called the Looshtook, or Lahstok (Long River), but the Siriquous gave it the appellation of Ouangoudy. It received its present name from having been discovered on St. John's Day. It takes its rise near the sources of the Penobscot and Connecticut Rivers, emptying itself into the Atlantic from the territory of the United States, and in latitude 46° North, and longitude 69° 50" West.

By winding its way along the segment of a large circle, it traverses the country to a distance of 500 miles, until it finally empties itself into the Bay of Fundy, in latitude 45° 20" North, and longitude 66° West. The Mittaywaquam from the north-west, and Waloostookwamasis* from the south-west, unite, and having descended about fifty miles through an uninhabited district, are joined by Black Rivers and the Allegash. The latter stream, Fish River, and the Aroostook, flow from the "disputed territory," and those high lands which were in-

* Sis and Asis in the Indian language signify "lesser" and "least." In English this river, therefore, would be called "the Little Waloostook."

tended by the former treaty to be the boundary between New Brunswick and the State of Maine. They are supplied by numerous lakes and rivulets, and drain a large tract of intervale and other excellent land. Above the Grand Falls, the St. John receives Grand River, Green River, the St. Francis, and the Madawasca. It is here navigable for large boats, and its tributaries afford an easy communication for canoes, rafts of timber, &c.

The Grand Falls of the St. John are situated 200 miles from its mouth, and 125 miles above Fredericton, the seat of government. Having the bulk of its waters greatly increased by the influx from its branches, the river sweeps through the Acadian settlements at Madawasca, and expands itself into a beautiful basin immediately above the cataract. This basin affords a safe landing-place for rafts of timber, boats, and canoes; but it is suddenly contracted, and the river, after making a detour to the south, is then poured into a deep rocky gorge only 250 feet wide. From a peculiar excavation in the rock, the water falls into the gorge from the front and from each side, and the river makes a leap of 58 feet over a perpendicular cliff of calcareous slate.

Smooth to the shelving brink a copious flood
Rolls fair and placid, where, collected all
In one impetuous torrent, down the steep
It thundering shoots, and shakes the country round;
Dash'd in a cloud of foam, it sends aloft
A hoary mist, and forms a ceaseless shower;
With wild infracted course and lessen'd roar,
It gains a safer bed, and steals at last
Along the mazes of the quiet vale.

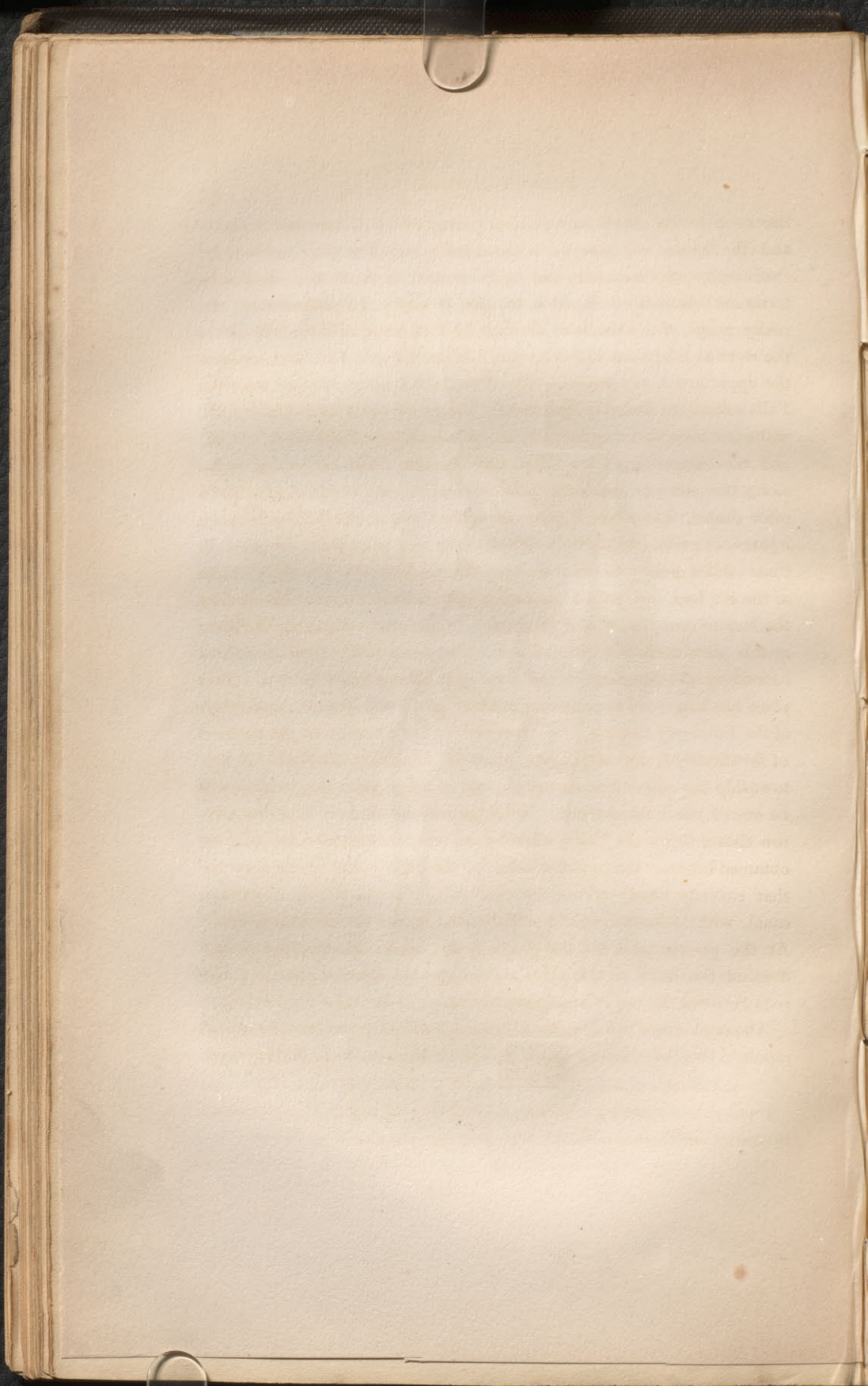
THOMSON.

In the ascending mist is seen the ever-varying rainbow, and clouds of white spray float over the cataract, whose thundering noise and tremulous effects upon the rocks have no remission.

On the brink of the Fall the water descends six feet, and it runs so smooth that its surface appears to be oiled. The gorge is three-quarters of a mile long, and is flanked with perpendicular and overhanging cliffs, from 100 to 150 feet high. It is a narrow and frightful chasm, lashed by the troubled water, and excavated by boiling eddies and whirlpools always in motion; at last the water plunges in an

GRAND FALLS OF THE ST. JOHN.





immense frothy sheet into a basin below, where it becomes tranquil, and the stream resumes its original features. The river seems to be swallowed up by the earth, and again poured forth from a dark subterranean channel too narrow to give it vent. In passing along the rocky gorge, the water also descends 58 feet, making the whole fall of the river at this place 116 feet, which is the difference of level between the upper and lower basins.—The descent of a raft of timber over the Falls affords an amusing spectacle. Pieces of pine, 60 feet in length, will sometimes shoot up into the air endwise almost their whole length, and the largest trees are frequently broken. The projecting rocks along the sides of the gorge produce eddies, into which the timber is often drawn, and where it revolves against the rocks until it is much injured, or ground to pieces. Whole rafts are sometimes detained in these eddies greatly to the loss of the timber-dealers.—The Grand Falls of the St. John are only surpassed in grandeur in British America by the magnificent Cataract of Niagara. Immediately adjoining the river at this place there is a little village. The lands on the small peninsula formed by the bending of the river still belong to the Crown. This place has long been the site of a military post; and since the settlement of the Boundary dispute, our Government has commenced the erection of fortifications, for which the place is admirably adapted. A new township has also been surveyed, and in a few years this locality will be one of much importance. A bridge may be thrown over the narrow chasm below the Falls, whereby an easy communication will be obtained between the opposite sides of the river; and along a ravine that extends nearly across the peninsula, it is practicable to open a canal, with locks, to avoid the Falls, and render the navigation safe.* At the present time, all the goods, boats, canoes, &c. that ascend and descend the river at this place are transported across a portage, † 150 rods between the upper and lower basins.

About three and a half miles below the Falls, there are two dangerous rapids. One of these is called Rapid de Femme, from having been

* The Grand Falls of the St. John are on the mail route between New Brunswick and Quebec.

† A carrying-place.

scaled by a woman. They arise from the confinement of the water between high rocky cliffs. The distance between the cataract and the town of Woodstock is 72 miles. This part of the St. John receives two great tributaries, the Aroostook and the Tobique. Besides these, there are the Pecagogmik, opposite the village of Wakefield; the Shictahank, Monquart, and Munic, which flow in from the northward, having taken their rise near the head of the south-west Miramichi. The Presq' Isle and River des Chutes, two small streams, enter from the north-west.

The Aroostook is the largest tributary of the St. John; its sources are at Lakes Millinoket and Millinoketsis, near the head waters of the Penobscot, in the State of Maine. The distance between one of the tributaries of the Penobscot and the Aroostook is only 186 rods. This river enters the St. John from the westward, eighteen miles below the Grand Falls, and is navigable for boats and rafts of timber 100 miles. In its course, it receives ten minor streams. The river and several of its branches run through an expanded valley of excellent soil, and all the streams are skirted with rich intervalles. The pine forests will afford for many years a great supply of the best timber, the chief part of which must be transported down the St. John before it can be shipped for market.

By the ratification of the late treaty in the settlement of the Boundary question, the whole of the Aroostook territory was transferred to the Americans. Previous to that period the whole district was almost an uninhabited wilderness; but its excellent soil and timber soon attracted the people of the United States after the termination of the dispute, and improvements of every kind are now rapidly advancing.

Fort Fairfield, belonging to the Americans, is situated five miles from the St. John, where the Boundary line crosses the Aroostook. Three miles below the fort, on the British side, the river passes through a narrow gorge, where there is a frightful rapid. At the lower part of this rapid there is a Fall of seventeen feet, and the water descends by two steps into a beautiful basin. A rock situated in the middle of the Falls divides the stream, and the cliffs on each side are forty feet high. These Falls, as well as those of the St. John, have retreated some distance, and both of them are still slowly advancing up the rivers that

flow over them. Between this place and the main river, there are two dangerous rapids.*

The distance between the Grand Falls and the mouth of the Aroostook is eighteen miles, and the banks of the river can scarcely be said to be inhabited. The lands on each side are hilly. The soil is nevertheless very good, and extensive surveys have recently been made in this quarter in order to facilitate the settlement of the new lands.

The Tobique River is the next largest tributary to the St. John, and nearly equal to the Aroostook in its extent. Its mouth is twenty miles below the Grand Falls, and two miles below the confluence of the above river with the main stream. The direction of this river is to the north-east, and about eighty miles from its mouth it is divided into four branches. One of those branches enters from the south-east, and proceeds from three lakes, the largest of which is about twelve miles in length. These lakes are situated at the principal sources of the Miramichi. The old Indian portage between the waters of the Miramichi and those of the St. John was only one mile in length. The other branches extend to the northward, and nearly meet the sources of the Upsalquitch and Nepisiguit, emptying into the Bay Chaleurs. All these rivers take their rise in one district, and in the mountainous region already described.

As the Tobique River and its tributaries are uninhabited, and offer a wide field for emigrants, a more extended notice of them may be given than of districts already occupied by settlements.

At the mouth of the river there is a considerable tract of terraced intervale, which, with several thousands of acres of excellent upland, belong to the Melecete Indians. The islands in the mouth of the river are very productive. There is here an Indian village of twenty-six houses, a chapel, and 200 souls. It is a sort of depôt for timber, where frequently in the spring season three or four hundred men are employed

* In one of these rapids the Author was placed in imminent peril in 1842, and, notwithstanding the skill of his Indian guide, his canoe passed over a "pitch" of six feet, and filled with water. A few days previous, a stranger "in a log" passed the upper rapid, and was on the brink of the Fall, when, perceiving his danger, he sprang from his canoe, laid hold of a rock, and saved his life. The canoe was dashed to pieces.

in preparing the rafts to descend the main St. John. The Indians obtain a scanty living by cultivating a few acres of land, rafting timber, fishing, and hunting. In the spring of 1842, two of the Indians were in possession of furs to the amount of £150. They had at that time eighty bear-skins, and thirty pounds of castor.

The Indian grant at this place occupies an important situation. As the Melecete tribe do not cultivate their lands, it would be advantageous to this part of the country if an exchange could be made with them, whereby they might enjoy all their privileges, and the trade they now possess at the mouth of the Tabique be opened to improvement by emigrants. Care should be taken that the property of these people should be rendered secure, and not to be placed at their own disposal; for it is a trait in the Indian character, to put a low value even upon the most fertile soil.

Ascending the river, one mile above the Indian village, there is a rapid called the "Narrows." The river at this place passes through a chasm a mile long, and upon an average only one hundred and fifty feet wide, and between perpendicular cliffs from fifty to one hundred feet high. Through this opening the water rushes with great violence, and the projecting masses of rock produce violent whirlpools, so that in times of freshets canoes cannot pass, and rafts of timber are frequently broken up by being dashed against the cliffs. The gorge is too narrow to vent the water from above—it therefore rises and rushes through the narrow channel with great impetuosity. The navigation of the river at this place may hereafter be greatly improved, by the erection of dams and locks. It is an excellent site for mills and machinery, and a dam may be constructed in such a manner as not to injure the salmon-fishery of the stream. From the mouth of the river to the "Red Rapids" the distance is eleven miles. The water runs at a moderate rate, and large boats may be towed up by horses. There are several small islands, and patches of intervalle. The banks of the stream are high, and closely covered with a mixed growth of hard wood and hemlock. Red and white clover, wild roses, onions, peas, wild plums, currants, and gooseberries, grow spontaneously. There are also the balsamic poplar, high cranberry, butternut, and thorn, with a variety of other indigenous plants.

The river, by passing over a ledge at the Red Rapids, is again broken. It could, nevertheless, be made navigable for two boats at a trifling expense. In 1837, a number of persons, known as the Tobique Mill Company, built a dam across the river and erected extensive saw-mills at this place; but before the mills were put in operation, a part of the dam was carried away, and the undertaking abandoned, £27,000 having been expended in the fruitless enterprise.

It had been intended by the Provincial Government that the road between Fredericton and the Grand Falls should cross the Tobique at this point, and a large sum of money was expended between the Rapids and the former place; but, from a series of objections to this route, the project has been given up.*

Twenty miles farther up the river, a tributary flows in from the east, called the Wapskanegan, from the Indian *Aw-kee-auc-waps-ka-nee-gan*, which signifies "a river with a wall at its mouth." This stream runs through a belt of fine intervale and a valley of good upland, and is navigable for canoes twenty miles. Along its banks there is an abundance of gypsum and limestone; these minerals are also abundant on the Tobique.

Thirteen miles above the Wapskanegan there is another large tributary, called by the Indians the Agulquac, which also enters from the east. Between the mouths of those two tributaries, there are Long Island, Diamond Island, and others, consisting altogether of rich alluviums, covered with ash, elm, and poplar. There are also extensive intervales on each side of the river. All the uplands in this quarter are of an excellent quality. The soil, a dark-coloured loam, bears a

* Near this place, the Author, on the 5th day of July, 1842, during his exploration of the river, witnessed a most violent tornado. A small cloud rose quickly from the west, and soon spread itself so as to produce almost total darkness. The lightning began to flash from the clouds, and sharp peals of thunder rattled along the valley, accompanied with a shower of pieces of ice as large as musket-balls. The shower of ice lasted five minutes, and was succeeded by the blast of a hurricane and whirlwind, which tore up the trées, and levelled the forest to the ground. The width of the tornado did not exceed half a mile, and in its course to the east it left an open space of fallen trees, distinctly marking its track. Such tornadoes are very rare in New Brunswick.

heavy growth of sugar-maple, yellow birch, hemlock, and pine. The Agulquac is navigable for canoes twenty-five miles. It passes through a fine tract of land, and a belt of intervale. A large area in this district was overrun by fire in 1825. The dreary appearance of the wilderness after the fire had induced some of the lumbermen to suppose that the soil was barren, but there is every evidence of its being fertile.

At the base of Blue Mountain the stream is seventy-five yards wide, and the intervalles are extensive. The whole country from this place to the main St. John is comparatively level; but from that point northward it assumes a new feature, and becomes elevated.

Still proceeding northward, the character of the river, with its intervalles and islands, remains unchanged, and its beauty is increased by the lofty hills seen in the distance. All the lands on the slopes and along the valleys are fit for cultivation, and many tracts are of a superior quality. The alluviums are covered with elm, balsamic poplar, ash, alder, &c. Wild hay is abundant; and there are indigenous grapes, wild plums, currants, gooseberries, mint, rhubarb, and wild onions.

About eighty miles from its mouth the Tobique is divided into four branches. Where these branches meet, and in the country around them, the lands are still well adapted for settlement. The streams that descend from the lakes to the north-east are blocked up with fallen cedars and "jams"* of trees, which render them altogether unnavigable even for light bark canoes.

Still farther northward, the country becomes exceedingly mountainous and broken. There are lofty ridges of rock, and fields of granitic boulders, which the industry of man can never render fertile, nor the art of agriculture improve. It is among these mountains, far in the interior, that the native wild animals find a retreat, and the beaver lives in safety within his dwelling.

The extreme sources of the Tobique wind their courses among naked and almost inaccessible mountains. Bald Mountain is 2240 feet high, and is surrounded by several lofty cones but little inferior in altitude.

* Immoveable rafts of timber.

Formerly there were immense groves of white and red pine in the vicinity of this stream, but most of these have been destroyed by fires. Spruce, cedar, larch, and hemlock are still abundant; and there are fine groves of beech, birch, and maple. In the stream there are seventy islands, all composed of alluvial soil. The river abounds in salmon, trout, and other kinds of fish.*

The Tobique is navigable for tow-boats and canoes 100 miles from its mouth. Between its head waters and the Nepisiguit the portage is two miles. The lands in the region of this river still remain ungranted, and they are better adapted to the circumstances of a respectable class of emigrants and settlers than those of almost any other district in the Province.

It would be difficult to form a correct opinion in regard to the climate of the valley of the Tobique country from the experience of a single exploration. From the nature of the plants and their luxuriance, it is evident that the climate is milder there than nearer the coast. From the 5th to the 20th of July, the average range of the thermometer was from 90° to 95° in the middle of the day, and sometimes the mercury would rise to 100° in the shade. There is a great change of temperature in the forest during the night, when the mercury will frequently fall to 50° and even to 45° during the hottest season.†

In order to facilitate its settlement, the Tobique district might be formed into new counties and townships, and its lands surveyed into lots of 100 acres each; but it is not probable that the Provincial Government will make roads through this wilderness country, until settlers have first advanced and taken possession of the lands.‡

A small branch of the St. John, called the Meduxnaqueag, passes

* In 1842, a settler living near the mouth of the Tobique killed twelve barrels of salmon with a single spear; and they were sold for £5 currency per barrel.

† The black flies and mosquitoes, so numerous in the woods, cease to sting when the thermometer is at 95, and also when the mercury descends to 55.—75 may be called the best biting point of those insects.

‡ Between the city of St. John and Fredericton there are daily steam-boats in the summer season, and steam-boats will hereafter ascend to Woodstock. At present families and baggage are removed in tow-boats, plying on the

through the town of Woodstock, where it is crossed by a substantial bridge. This river is navigable for rafts of timber and canoes to the distance of twenty miles, and forms a water communication between the above place and Houlton on the American side of the line. Directly below Woodstock, there is a large tract of superior intervalle rising from the river by successive steps.

Eel River, another tributary, empties itself into the St. John twelve miles below Woodstock. It is about thirty-five miles in length, and proceeds from a beautiful lake to the southward. Between this lake and the north Cheputnecticook Lake, the distance is only three miles. It was along this river and the lakes that the Indians formerly pursued their route from the St. John to the Penobscot. This stream is navigable for boats, except near its mouth, and at a fall near the lake; it passes through a tract of good land, and its banks are skirted with intervalles.

About ten miles below Woodstock, there is another rapid in the St. John, called the Meductic Falls. The river is narrow, and descends over reefs and boulders of granite, which render the passage of boats difficult and very dangerous to any except skilful pilots. Between Eel River and Fredericton, a number of small streams enter the main river on both of its sides. The Shogamock and Pokiok* come in from the south; and the Nackawick, Mactaquack, Keswick, and other rivulets, from the north. The Pokiok is fed from a lake in the interior, and is poured into the St. John through a deep and narrow gorge, and over a beautiful waterfall. The Keswick is skirted by some fine alluviums, and its banks were settled by disbanded soldiers shortly after the peace of 1763. The scenery between Woodstock and Fredericton is bold; and the valley of the St. John, being gradually expanded, is occupied by extensive intervalles. Although the chief parts of these intervalles are cultivated, they still bear lofty elms, and their borders are fringed with low shrubbery, Notwithstanding there are numerous

river as far up as the Grand Falls. Those boats may ascend the Tobique in the summer time, or canoes may be procured for that purpose at the mouth of the river.

* From the Indian Piquihoak, "dreadful place."

fine farms and luxuriant fields along the flanks of the hills, the surface of the earth presents the aspect of a new country.

Fredericton, the capital of New Brunswick, is situated sixty-five miles by land and eighty-five by water above the mouth of the St. John, and sixty-four miles below Woodstock. The river is here three-quarters of a mile wide, and navigable for ships to the sea. Nearly opposite the town there are two streams—the Nashwaak and the Nashwaaksis. The branches of the former nearly meet one of the sources of the Miramichi to the north. This river also abounds in fertile alluviums, which are met on each side by sloping uplands.

Between Fredericton and the mouth of the St. John, the main river resembles a lake. The tide flows to Chapel Bar, four miles above the capital, and seldom rises over fifteen inches. The noble stream is now spread out into small bays, and inlets communicating with lakes, along its margin. In descending, the valley is greatly enlarged, and its whole area is occupied by extensive tracts of alluvial soil, islands, ponds, and creeks, through which the majestic St. John sullenly winds its way, bearing upon its bosom the steamboats and numerous craft of the river. The alluvial banks, as well as the higher grounds, are extensively cultivated. The rich meadows are decorated with stately elms and forest-trees, or sheltered by low coppices of cranberry, alder, and other native bushes. Through the numerous openings in the shrubbery, the visitor, in traversing the river, sees the white fronts of the cottages, and other buildings; and, from the constant change of position, in sailing, an almost endless variety of scenery is presented to the traveller's eye. During the summer season, the surface of the water affords an interesting spectacle. Vast rafts of timber and logs are slowly moved downwards by the current. On them is sometimes seen the shanty of the lumberman, with his family, a cow, and occasionally a haystack, all destined for the city below. Numerous canoes and boats are in motion; while the paddles of the steamboat break the polished surface of the stream, and send it rippling on the shore. In the midst of this landscape stands Fredericton, situated on an obtuse level point formed by the bending of the river, and in the midst of natural and cultivated scenery.

But how is this pleasing prospect changed in autumn, winter, and

spring! The floods of those seasons cover all the intervalles. The valley of the lower St. John, with all its cultivated fields and fertile meadows, is overspread by the water, which sometimes sweeps away houses, barns, stacks of hay, cattle, and everything that is moveable: and when "ice-jams"* occur, the inhabitants themselves are in danger. During the freshet season, some of the people remove to the higher grounds, each having a summer and winter residence. Others live and secure their stock on small islands, or eminences in the midst of the water: and instances frequently occur when families are driven to the upper stories of their dwellings. At the door of each house is chained a canoe, the only vehicle employed on all occasions. At those periods the valley has a dreary aspect: the tops of the buildings, lofty trees, and numerous haystacks are seen standing erect in the midst of the inland sea, with steamboats and smaller craft sailing among them in almost every direction.† In the middle of winter, the scenery is again changed, and the valley becomes a sheet of ice, traversed by sleds and sleighs to its remotest borders. In the month of May, the deluge is withdrawn, and green fields are seen smiling where all had been a scene of desolation.

Twelve miles below, another stream, called the Oromucto, enters from the south-west. It proceeds from a remote lake, and drains a fertile tract of country. It was at the mouth of this stream that the first permanent British settlement was made in New Brunswick, and the Courts of Justice were held there until 1783.

French and Maquapit Lakes, with the rivulets flowing into them from the north, are discharged into the main stream above Gagetown, a village near the mouth of the Gemsec.

The Grand Lake is about forty-five miles from St. John, and thirty from Fredericton. It is separated from the main river by an alluvial tract

* Collections of masses of ice that obstruct the passage of the water in the rivers of North America.

† It is an extraordinary fact, that some of the farmers on the St. John obtain a crop of vegetables and a crop of fish from the same piece of ground annually. Upon such parcels of land they catch their herring during the freshet season; after the water subsides, they plant then with potatoes or grain, which generally succeed well.

a mile wide, and communicates with it by the channel called the Gemsec. This beautiful sheet of water is also connected with the two lakes just mentioned by free openings, cut through the alluvium of the intervalles. All these lakes and channels are navigable, and no obstacle to the passage of vessels is presented, except in the latter part of summer, when the water is low.

From the almost constant current down the lakes, the alluvium made upon their shores, and by the streams emptying into them, is swept onward towards the river; and it has not only formed extensive tracts of intervalle, but also choked up the natural outlets of the water, which is now confined to narrow and deep channels.

The Grand Lake is thirty miles long, and from three to six miles in breadth. In it the tide rises six inches. It is not, however, to be supposed that the ocean flows so far up, and into the lake—the effect is produced by the elevation of the sea a few feet above the level of the river at high-water on the coast. The result of that elevation is obvious. The fresh water being prevented from escaping, accumulates, regurgitation takes place, and the lakes and rivers rise, more or less, even a hundred miles above the *débouchement* of the stream.

The common rise at Indian Town, near the City of St. John, is eighteen inches; in the Grand Lake, six inches: above Fredericton, or one hundred miles from the Bay of Fundy, the rise disappears altogether. From the northern extremity of the Grand Lake, the Salmon River, a beautiful stream, comes in from the north-east, where it nearly touches the sources of the Richibucto, emptying itself into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The principal outlet of the Grand Lake is called the Gemsec. It is a narrow but deep channel, three miles in length. Although this place is now the seat of rural industry, and not of war, in the early settlement of the country by the French it was the theatre of several bloody engagements. It was the stronghold of the French upon the St. John, and the resort of the savages, who there obtained arms and ammunition to attack the settlements of New England. It was at this spot where the heroic Madame de la Tour bravely defended her garrison during her husband's absence, and compelled her enemies to retreat, until she was betrayed, when her soldiers were hung and

herself tortured by the hatred of Charnissé, her countryman and cowardly conqueror.

Six miles below the Gemsec there is another arm of the river, called the Washadamoak. It is a narrow lake, thirty miles in length. It terminates in a river of the same name. The river springs from the head of the Cocagne, and the banks of both are but thinly inhabited.

Belle Isle Bay is also a deep inlet, navigable for ships. From this bay the river turns to the south-west, and runs a direct course to the distance of sixteen miles. The alluviums now begin to disappear, and the stream is confined between hills of considerable altitude. This straight section of the St. John is called the Long Reach, which terminates in a noble sheet of water known as Grand Bay. This bay also sends out an arm to the north-east, called the Kenebecasis, which receives the Kenebecasis and Hammond Rivers. From the westward the bay takes in a stream from the Nerepis Hills.

There is not a river in America of the same extent that has so narrow an outlet as the St. John. From Grand Bay to the Falls, a distance of four miles, this noble stream passes through a crooked channel, at many places not exceeding two hundred and fifty feet in width, while in the interior of the country the stream will average from one to three miles in breadth. The rocky shores of its outlet have not been worn down and scooped out, as is common to all rivers giving passage to great quantities of ice. On the contrary, they appear to have been separated from each other at a period comparatively recent; and the gorge through which the river now passes at Indian Town appears like a deep fissure opened by some sudden movement in the earth. It is probable that the St. John had formerly two mouths, one opening from the Kenebecasis down the present site of the marsh, and the other opening from Grand Bay through the Manawagonish; but the same causes that opened the new channel have obliterated the old ones. That the whole line of coast westward has been elevated from eighteen to twenty-six feet and upwards, is proved by the marine shells found in the clay and marl beds now elevated the above number of feet above the highest tides. The condition of the Magaguadavic is similar to that of the St. John, whose bed has been raised, and a stream that

was formerly in all probability very rapid has become like a lake, from the narrowness of its mouth, which has been changed by causes altogether geological.*

The Harbour of St. John is neither very spacious nor commodious. From its shallowness and the violence of the current, large ships cannot enter it at low-water. Those disadvantages are in some degree compensated by the elevation of the tides, which are very favourable to shipbuilding and the transportation of timber. The *débouchement* of the river is between perpendicular walls of limestone, where the channel is only one hundred and fifty yards wide. Its deficiency in space is made up in the violence of the current, which runs with inconceivable swiftness, the waters rushing down a frightful rapid called the "Falls."

The ordinary tides of the harbour rise below the Falls twenty-six feet; above the Falls, their common elevation is only about eighteen inches: therefore, the height of the fall outwards is twenty-four feet six inches. But the entrance of the river at the gorge is too narrow to admit the sea on the flood-tide to flow in freely, and therefore there is the singular occurrence of a fall inwards at high-water, and a fall outwards at low-water. The time for vessels to pass through the narrow opening, or Falls, is fixed at three quarters of an hour at each ebb and flood, or when the sea and river are both at the same level. The fall outwards has been estimated at twenty feet, and at high tides the fall inwards at high-water is fifteen feet, making the whole height of this double fall thirty-five feet.

The accumulated waters of this extensive river here rush through a narrow chasm, and descend down a rocky slope into the sea. The current is in some degree checked by two small islands in the basin above. Having passed those islands, the water plunges forward with tremendous fury; but on the flood-tide the scene is reversed: the ocean spreads its mantle over the cataract; and, by flowing inwards, it

* There is a tradition of the Indians, that the "Great Spirit" once grew angry, and shut up the Looshtook, or St. John. Some of the natives still believe that a gigantic beaver appeared on the earth, and in a single night built a dam across the river, so that all the country above was overflowed.

silences the noisy rapid, closes the tide-lock of the Falls, and, in its turn, rolls inwards upon the river. Having passed the Falls, the stream turns suddenly to the eastward, and the water, covered with fleecy masses of foam, mingles with the sea.

The next river of much importance emptying itself into the Bay of Fundy is the St. Croix, which forms the boundary between the Province and the United States to its eastern source; although its western branch was the one contemplated as being the line of separation between the two countries; for as early as 1621, in the grant made to Sir William Alexander, that river, to its most remote western spring, was declared to be the boundary of Acadia, or Nova Scotia.

The Indians always called this river Schoodic, or Schoodeag, which signifies "low and swampy ground." The stream itself emerges from land of that description. The St. Croix, which has already been noticed in the early history of the Province, after passing along the western side of the County of Charlotte, empties itself into Passamaquoddy Bay, at the town of St. Andrew's. It is here a mile and a quarter wide, and near its centre is the little island upon which De Monts and his party wintered in the early discovery of the country. About ten miles above St. Andrew's, the river diverges to the west, and a beautiful sheet of water called Oak Bay extends to the north. These, with a small cove and rivulet to the east, are supposed to have given to the first discoverers the idea of a cross, from which the river received its name. It is navigable for large ships to St. Stephen's, seventeen miles above St. Andrew's, where it is broken by a fall. At this place and at Milltown, three miles above, the stream is occupied by powerful saw-mills.

After running a very irregular course, the river turns to the north-west; and, about forty miles from its mouth, it is again interrupted by a cataract. The Falls are separated into upper and lower; between them the water passes over an inclined plane, and rolls over a broken cliff. At the upper Fall, the water rushes through a narrow gorge, and descends twelve feet. The waters of the Schoodic and Cheputnecticook Rivers, descending from lakes in the interior, rush over these Falls and the rapid between them with great fury. Large pieces of timber and logs are frequently elevated high above the water, and plunged into the

pool beneath. Large trees are sometimes broken in pieces while passing the gorge ; and the sound produced by the concussion of the logs against each other and the rocks is like the noise of distant artillery. From being confined between the cliffs and to a narrow channel, the water rushes forward with frightful impetuosity, until it is poured into the more tranquil part of the stream, the surface of which is always concealed beneath beautiful waves of white foam. Frequently the mouth of the rapid is blocked up with the rafts of the lumbermen, so that the timber cannot pass, and a "timber jam" is produced : the clearing away of such jams is the most dangerous and difficult part of the stream-driver's * employment.

Directly above the upper Fall, there are two small islands, situated at the confluence of the Schoodic, or St. Croix, and the Cheputnecticook Rivers. The average breadth of the streams at this place is sixty yards. The Schoodic branch extends westerly into the country recently confirmed to the State of Maine. Two miles above, on the other branch, there is another dangerous rapid, known as the Cheputnecticook Falls.

The whole country in this quarter is uninhabited, and seldom visited except by the lumbermen, and the Indians in search of game. Along the river there are small tracts of low intervale, bearing wild grass suitable for fodder, and very useful to the settler on wild lands. The uplands, which were formerly covered with groves of pine, are fit for cultivation.

The Cheputnecticook is a very boisterous river, and broken by numerous rapids and several falls besides those already mentioned. From the mouth of the St. Croix to its first lake, the distance along the stream is upwards of seventy miles.

The Cheputnecticook Lakes are about forty-five miles in length ; their breadth is very irregular, being not more than a quarter of a mile at some situations, and ten miles at others. They present a series of narrow straits and wide bays, with deep inlets and creeks. The general course of the chain is about north-west ; and on its northern side there are a great number of deep inlets, all running in the direction of the

* Men who float timber down the rivers.

main lake. Those inlets, numerous islands, and narrow passages, render the navigation of this beautiful inland basin very intricate.

Notwithstanding the water is very deep, and may be navigated by vessels of considerable burthen, vast white granitic boulders rise above the surface, and are also seen at various depths beneath the transparent water. The shores are also lined with boulders, which at many places form natural wharves, with twenty and even forty feet of water around their perpendicular sides. The hills slope gradually down to the shores, where the blocks of white granite appear like solid masonry, and exhibit a degree of neatness seldom seen on the borders of lakes in the wilderness. The numerous islands are covered with cedar, hemlock, spruce, and birch. The mountains and hills of the shore bear lofty groves of pine, hemlock, and larch; elm, ash, and cedar being the productions of the lower ground. In general, the soil is strong and fertile.

Universal gloom and stillness reign over these lakes and the forests around them. From the tops of the highest hills no appearance of a clearing nor any signs of cultivation can be seen—not even the “log-road” can be traced far from the water, and the only indications of human industry are the naked poles of the lumberman’s deserted camp, and the ancient trails of the Indians.

Ornamented with islands and branched with placid bays, the Cheputnecticook is stretched out before the traveller, who here views the country as it was before the European set his foot upon the soil, or the native savage had been deprived of his wild inheritance. At present, these inland sheets of water are the summer resort of numerous species of ducks and other wild fowl. Their shores are also frequented by droves of moose, cariboo, Virginian deer, bears, wolves, and other animals; and the water abounds with the finest trout, perch, and a species of salmon called togue,* weighing from fifteen to twenty pounds.

From the extremity of the Grand Cheputnecticook Lake there is a narrow passage, a mile long, communicating with the North Lake, into which a stream enters from the northward called Monument Brook. Its source was the site from which the due-north line was taken by the Commissioners under the Treaty of 1814 to settle the boundary. The

* *Salmo Hucó* of Sir Humphrey Davy.

Monument, as it has been called, is a marked cedar-tree. Between the North Lake and Eel River Lake, emptying itself into the River St. John, the distance is only three miles. This was a portage of the Indians long before the country was discovered by the English. In passing from the St. John to the Penobscot, the natives ascended Eel River, crossing the above portage with their canoes into the before-mentioned lakes, whence another portage of three miles brought them to a branch of the Penobscot. Along this route they transported their arms and provisions from the fort at the Gemsec into New England, to attack and destroy the villages of the British inhabitants.

These ancient trails are narrow paths winding among the trees and along the sides of the hills; and so long have they been travelled, that the solid rocks are now furrowed by the mocassins of the native tribes. Some of the extreme branches of the St. Croix nearly meet the sources of the Magaguadavic, and almost the whole of the interior of this part of the Province may be traversed in a light bark canoe.

The Digdeguash is a small rapid stream, not navigable beyond the harbour at its mouth.

The Magaguadavic extends from the coast of the Bay of Fundy in a northerly direction across the country almost to the St. John, and the lakes whence it issues nearly communicate with the Shogamock, a small tributary of the latter river. In its course through the uninhabited country, it presents alternate distances of smooth and rapid water, with several falls; and having passed through a wide plain of intervalle at the base of the high lands, it reaches the sea, and opens into a beautiful harbour of the same name. That the site of this intervalle was at some remote period a lake, there is the most satisfactory evidence. At the chief village, the bed of the river is nearly one hundred feet above the highest rise of the tide, into which the river falls by five successive steps, and through a chasm averaging thirty feet wide and a hundred feet deep.

The saw-mills fastened to the sides of the cliffs have greatly modified the appearance of this remarkable spot. Having swept slowly along the valley above, the accumulated water is thrown into the deep and narrow opening, where, spouting from cliff to cliff, and twisting its foaming column to correspond with the rude windings of the passage,

it falls in a torrent of foam into the sea ; or, passing beneath the wheels of the mills, its fury is scarcely abated as it mingles with the spray floating above. The river then advances along a narrow passage between rugged cliffs, and makes its *débouchement* into the Bay. The Poclogan, Le Proe, and Musquash are minor streams fed by lakes. At the mouth of the latter there is one of the best harbours in America ; the stream above is bordered by a large tract of marsh. The small streams emptying themselves into the Bay between the Harbour of St. John and Shepody require in this place no particular description.

The Peticodiac takes its rise near the sources of the Kenebecasis, and having run in a north-easterly direction forty miles, turns at a right angle, called the Bend.* It then runs to the south twenty miles, and discharges its waters into Shepody Bay. It is navigable for vessels of a hundred tons burthen thirty miles from its mouth, and large ships are laden at its curve. Here the tide flows in and ebbs off in six hours, and runs at the rate of seven miles an hour. The flood-tide is accompanied by a splendid "bore," or tidal wave, which at spring-tides is five and sometimes six feet high. The rushing of this overwhelming wave is accompanied by a noise like distant thunder, and affords an interesting spectacle. At low-water, extensive flats of fine sand and shingle are laid bare. From venturing too early on the flood, or too late on the ebb, there is much danger to vessels. In the former case, they are sometimes overrun by the tide and stranded in the quicksands ; and if they resist the fury of the "bore," the water washes away the sand from their leeward sides, they roll over before the current, breaking their masts, and finally filling with shingle, they are buried in the same. These dangers are all avoided by good pilots, and persons who are acquainted with the river seldom meet with accidents.

* The tides rise in the Peticodiac as follows:—At the Bend, common tides, 22 feet 8 inches ; highest tides, 28 feet 8 inches. At Dorchester Island, common tides, 36 feet ; highest tides, 42 feet. It is three hours flood before the tide reaches the Bend ; and from rushing along the river to the distance of twenty miles, it rises higher here above the lowest level of the sea at Grindstone Island than it does at Dorchester Island. The difference of level between Grindstone Island and the Bend may be estimated as follows:—Common tides, 45 feet 4 inches ; highest tides, 57 feet 4 inches.

The Memramcook, Tantamarre, Aulac, and Missiquash are small rivers which, like the Peticodiac, pass through very extensive marshes.

The Great Tantamarre Marsh is situated on both sides of the river of that name. It is about twelve miles long, and, upon an average, four miles wide, being one of the most extensive collections of alluvium formed by the sea in America. In the Parishes of Sackville, Dorchester, and Moncton, 4,900 acres of marsh have been rescued from the sea by dikes and embankments. All the streams emptying themselves into Shepody and Cumberland Bays are skirted with alluvial deposits, which are more productive than any other lands in the country.

At the eastern extremity of the Tantamarre Marsh, a large tract is occupied by peat, floating bogs, and small lakes. The whole of this extensive area was once open to the sea; but, from the vast quantities of alluvial matter brought inwards by the tides and winds, the mouth of the estuary has been filled up, and raised several feet above the level of the lands in the interior, which can now only be reclaimed by opening canals, and allowing the sea to flow over them.

It has long been proposed to open a canal between some of these rivers and Bay Verte or Shediac, the average distance being only fifteen miles, and several surveys have been made of the different lines proposed. The last exploration and survey of a line of canal to connect the waters of the Bay of Fundy with those of Northumberland Straits, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, was made by Captain Crawley, R.E. From the report of that gentleman, it would appear that there is not a sufficient quantity of water during the summer season to supply a canal at its summit level. It is also apprehended that the opening of a free passage for the tides from one side of the peninsula to the other would be attended with unfavourable consequences; and the expense of the undertaking is estimated to exceed the profit that would arise from it, if the work should be completed. The enterprise, therefore, although not abandoned by its advocates, remains stationary.

On the north-eastern shores of New Brunswick, a number of small streams open into Northumberland Straits, between Bay Verte and Richibucto; and the Shediac, Cocagne, and Buctouche have excellent harbours at their mouths.

The Richibucto River has four principal branches, which descend

from the uninhabited country to the south. One of those branches approaches within three miles of the Salmon River, flowing in an opposite direction into the Grand Lake, the waters of which are discharged into the St. John. It is navigable twenty-five miles from its mouth, where there is a safe and convenient harbour.

The Kouchibouguack River empties itself into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, about twenty miles southward of Miramichi Bay. It is about fifty miles in length, and its waters are discharged into a lagoon that forms a good harbour for small vessels.

The Miramichi* is the second river in extent and importance of the Province. Its branches, which are very numerous, drain a vast tract of wilderness country, and, by being united as they approach the sea, they form a stream of considerable magnitude. Some of its north-western branches approach the St. John, and almost touch the Nashwaak; others reach the lands of the lower Tobique. Three of the north-west branches spring from a chain of lakes in the upper Tobique country. Having descended with considerable rapidity from its principal sources, and traversed the forests of the south-west nearly two hundred miles, the branches of the Miramichi unite and become navigable for large ships; and finally, the river makes its *débouchement* into a spacious bay of the same name, in lat. 47° N., and long. 64° 53' W.

The banks of the main stream are settled one hundred miles from the Bay, and the mouths of some of the principal branches are also thinly inhabited; but remote from the larger tributaries, the country is in its original wilderness state, and millions of acres of land capable of successful cultivation are covered by dense forests, and even the fine tracts of intervals on the borders of the streams to a great extent remain uncleared.

Miramichi Bay is twenty miles wide at its mouth; and although the waters along the coast are shallow, there is a ship channel in the estuary from two to four miles broad, and from five to eight fathoms deep. The Bay is decorated with seven islands, and the low sandy shores are inhabited by the descendants of the Acadian French.

* Miramichi, in the Micmac Indian language, signifies "Happy Retreat." The savages formerly called this river the Restigoucheis.

Twenty miles above its opening into the Bay, this noble stream receives the waters of a large branch called the North-west Miramichi,* whose sources extend to the branches of the Nepisiguit farther north. To its confluence with the north-west branch the river is navigable for large ships, and for small craft to a greater distance. Boats and canoes may ascend the principal streams far into the interior.

It was on the point of land between the main river and its north-west tributary, that Monsieur Beaubair established himself in the first settlement of the country, and a great number of the early French inhabitants fell victims to famine and disease in 1758. Along the banks of the river, there are numerous wharves and landing-places, depôts for timber, &c.; but the principal business of the country is carried on at Chatham, Douglas, Newcastle, and Nelson—four small towns situated within a distance of five miles. The extensive district bordering upon the Miramichi and its tributaries has derived its chief importance from the great quantities of valuable red and white pine that formerly stood upon its lands; but in 1825 this part of New Brunswick was visited by a most awful and calamitous fire that consumed the forests like stubble, and besides destroying a number of the inhabitants, involved the whole population in ruin and distress. From the great annual exports also, the timber is growing scarce, and more difficult to be obtained; so that the period is fast approaching when the great number of persons employed in lumbering will engage in the more permanently profitable occupation of husbandry.

On the south side of Miramichi Bay, there are two indentations receiving small rivers, and called Big Baie des Vents and Little Baie des Vents.† Settlements were made at those places by the first French inhabitants, and they are now rather thickly populated. Neguac, or Burnt Church River, is a small stream opening into a lagoon on the opposite side of the Bay. It is still a resort of the Indians, who formerly assembled there in great numbers to hold councils preparatory to their sanguinary attacks upon the European settlers.

* Minaqua of the Indians.

† Like many of the old Indian and French words, these two names have been strangely corrupted by the inhabitants, who now call the harbours "Big Betty Wind" and "Little Betty Wind."

From the entrance of the Miramichi, the coast extends in a north-east direction. A part of the County of Gloucester is situated on a cape that extends into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, having Miramichi Bay on one side, and Bay Chaleurs on the other. This cape has several large islands at its northern extremity, and is penetrated by a number of small rivers, bays, and inlets. The Taboosintac,* Tracadie, Pokemouche, and Carquette are the largest rivers along this part of the coast: the two former streams open into lagoons formed by bars of sand and shingle, and the two latter into bays where there are good harbours.

The Nepisiguit descends from a number of lakes situated near the head waters of the Tobique, from which it is separated by a short portage. - These lakes are at the bases of some of the highest mountains in the Province, and in an elevated tract of country. The river is about one hundred miles in length, and throughout its whole course runs swiftly, being frequently broken by falls and rapids. Its upper part winds its way between perpendicular cliffs and through a mountainous wilderness. Its principal branches are Silver River, Lascoodich, Parbooktich, and Pabineau.

About twenty miles above the mouth of the Nepisiguit, the river presents a magnificent cascade. The bed of the stream is granite, which, at the Falls, forms a perpendicular cliff one hundred and forty feet high. Over this precipice the water descends by four leaps or steps, and comes thundering down wrapped in clouds of spray.

Next to the Grand Fall of the St. John, it is the greatest cataract in the Province, and its height exceeds any waterfall in New Brunswick. Below the cataract, the stream glides through a narrow channel, and between high cliffs. Above its *débouchement* into Bathurst Harbour, it again rolls over a bed of large granitic boulders, which render the river unnavigable, except for canoes and single pieces of timber.

A great many minor streams empty themselves into the Bay Chaleurs, on the coast between Bathurst and the Restigouche; but none of them are navigable to any distance, and they require no particular description.

La Baie des Chaleurs, now called Bay Chaleurs, † which terminates in

* "The place where two reside" (Indian).

† This bay was known to the Micmac tribe of Indians as Eckeetan Nemachii, which signifies "a sea of fish."

the Restigouche River, is a large arm of the sea, extending in a westerly direction from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, being one hundred miles long, and between Point Miscou and Cape Despair twenty-five miles broad. On the north or Gaspé side of the Bay, the coast is bold; and a few miles from the shore, the country rises into lofty mountains; while on the New Brunswick side, the land ascends gradually from the border of the sea to the mountain range at the sources of the Tobique, Nepisiguit, and Upsalquitch Rivers, already described. This bay was visited by Jacques Cartier in 1534, previous to his entering the St. Lawrence; and from the great heat of the weather at the time of that navigator's voyage, he called it *La Baie des Chaleurs*, or Bay of Heats. It was previously known to the Spaniards. It is a beautiful sheet of water, surrounded by harbours, and abounding in all kinds of fish, notwithstanding in winter its whole surface is covered with a crystal garment of ice.

The principal sources of the Restigouche are situated in a mountainous range that extends through the whole District of Gaspé. The course of the river, from its mouth to the distance of sixty miles, ascending, is to the south-west; it then turns at a right angle to the north-west. Extending towards the St. Lawrence, one of its branches reaches to within a short distance of the Metis Lake; and another approaches Lake Tamisquata, on the portage between the St. John and Quebec. Another large branch runs from the south-west, and nearly meets the streams that flow into the St. John. The whole length of the river, along its several courses, is estimated to be two hundred miles. The Upsalquitch, a large tributary, descends from the south, where it meets the heads of the Tobique and Nepisiguit.

The Bay Chaleurs, having extended deeply into the country, finally terminates in this fine river, which opens a wide district to all the advantages of trade and internal communication. The banks of the Restigouche are not settled more than thirty miles above its mouth. The upper part of the noble stream, and all its branches, pass through a dense wilderness, and the whole interior of the country is uninhabitable.

It was up to that branch of the Alleghanies which extends into the District of Gaspé that the Americans laid their claims, before the question of disputed territory was settled by Lord Ashburton; and until

that period, the Restigouche had formed a temporary boundary between New Brunswick and Canada. Since the termination of that dispute, another of less importance has arisen respecting the boundary between the two Provinces. It is evident that the range of mountains separating the rivers that flow into the St. Lawrence from those that fall into the Bay Chaleurs, the Restigouche, and the St. John, would form the best divisional line between New Brunswick and Canada. Such a line would give to each Province all the rivers that flow and open into their respective districts; it would agree with the physical geography of the country, and accord with the ancient limits of each Colony, until the whole of the Provinces should be united.

The Restigouche* and its branches pass through a tract of country differing in its principal features from any other part of New Brunswick. This division of the Province is alpine in its scenery, being varied with lofty hills and deep valleys. Mountain behind mountain rises in the distance, and the horizon is indented with lofty eminences of surpassing grandeur. It is only along the shores of New Brunswick and Gaspé that any settlements have been made: a short distance from the coast on each side of the Bay Chaleurs, the country remains unexplored and unknown. It nevertheless appears, from the accounts given by the Indian hunters, that even among those mountains there are fine tablelands and alluviums capable of cultivation.

The town of Dalhousie is situated on the south side of the mouth of the Restigouche, which is three miles wide. The harbour is very spacious, and sufficiently deep to float the largest ships of the navy. The mountainous character of the country on the opposite side of the river—the wide bay above the town, terminating in the deep valley of the Restigouche, render the scenery very bold and picturesque.

Campbelltown is situated sixteen miles above Dalhousie. Here the lands on each side of the river are high, and frequently broken and rocky. There is, nevertheless, a narrow flat of good soil along the edge of the river, which still continues wide, and is navigable for the largest class of ships. The lands on the Gaspé side of the Restigouche are high and broken. The river is nevertheless skirted with a few level

* Restigouche,—Big River of the Indians.

tracts and small collections of alluvium, the largest of which is Mission Point, the former residence of the Missionary to the Micmac Indians. Three miles above this place is *Point au Bourdo*, the site of the ancient town of Petite Rochelle, destroyed by the fleet under the command of Captain Byron in 1760.

The tide flows about six miles above Campbellton, where the river becomes narrow, and is studded with upwards of twenty small islands. The current is now rapid, and the water remarkably limpid.

The Flat Lands are ten miles above Campbelltown. At this place the settlement on the river may be said to terminate, notwithstanding there are a few families scattered along the banks of the stream still higher up. The Flat Lands are 500 acres of excellent terraced intervale. Two miles above, a large stream enters the Restigouche, called the Matapediac. It takes its rise from lakes on the St. Lawrence side of Gaspé, and descends through a chain of mountains, and between perpendicular cliffs of rock; its principal branches are the Us-men-ta-qua-gum, Ca-soups-coult, and Me-la-ga-na-took.*

Tow-boats may be drawn up the Matapediac. There is but little intervale on the sides of the stream, and the whole district is broken by high hills and deep ravines.

Six miles above the mouth of the Matapediac, the Upsalquitch enters the Restigouche from the New Brunswick side. It proceeds from the mountains at the head of the Tobique and Nepisquit, being a very rapid stream, with numerous branches. Many of its tributaries also run between perpendicular cliffs, which greatly increase the danger and difficulty of procuring the pine timber still remaining along its borders.

The Patapediac is a stream of considerable size. It descends from the north-west, and lands in the vicinity of Metis Lake. The same general features that have been described prevail upwards to the *Pee-tam-kedge-wee*, fifty miles above the mouth of the Upsalquitch. The lands here are less mountainous, and fit for cultivation. The stream which has generally been understood to be the Restigouche,

* The native savages frequently named rivers after celebrated Chiefs and other individuals.

and is so called by the English inhabitants, is only a branch of the main river. The main river on some maps is denominated the Cadamkiswa, and the lumbermen give it the appellation of Tom Kedgewick; but the original Indian name is Peetamkedgewee; and the south-westerly branch of the river, above its junction with the larger stream, is called by the Micmacs, A-waan-jeet. The former stream is one-third larger than the latter, and is eighty yards wide where it meets its chief tributary.

The distance from the mouth of Grand River, emptying itself into the St. John at Madawasca, along the Awaanjeet, or south-west branch of the Restigouche, to its *débouchement*, is one hundred and fifty miles. The Restigouche and its south-west tributary are navigable for tow-boats and rafts of timber one hundred and fifty miles; the Matapediac, fifty miles; and the Upsalquitch, seventy miles. All these streams are situated in an uninhabited and unexplored country; and when the extent and resources of this part of New Brunswick are considered, it may appear surprising that it has so long remained in its present state: but it can never be supposed that any district will ever be settled while its natural advantages and the nature of its soil remain unknown.

The principal lakes of New Brunswick have been already noticed. Most frequently those lakes are situated at the sources of the rivers, and, therefore, they greatly extend the facilities of internal communication. The numerous streams flowing in all directions through the Province are separated from each other by portages varying only from one to four miles in length. Every township has its river; and so extensively is the country irrigated, that there is scarcely a half square mile that has not its brook or rivulet. Even the highest tracts abound in springs; and the whole face of the country is abundantly supplied with water, necessary for its animals and plants, and which, by being collected into rivers, greatly promotes the transportation of its productions, and affords power to carry machinery.

The advantages thus bountifully supplied by nature were well known to the aborigines, and the present Indians still follow the old portage trails of their more numerous ancestors. With their light barks, they can ascend the streams remote from the sea to their sources, whence they carry their canoes upon their shoulders to the tributaries descend-

ing to other districts; and the facilities with which such passages are made are truly remarkable. From the St. John, the Melicetes will quickly cross the country to the St. Lawrence, Restigouche, and Bay Chaleurs, or to the Penobscot and Kennebec. Their skill in making these quick and sudden movements rendered them dangerous enemies to the early inhabitants, thousands of whom were surprised and cut off while they supposed themselves in safety. The same river channels that aided the savages in their sanguinary enterprises, now afford passage to the native pine, or their waters turn saw-mills that prepare deals for the British market; and they will continue to be highly important to the agricultural and manufacturing industry of the country.

The effects of changes of level in the bed of the St. John and other rivers of New Brunswick are seen in the terraces along their borders. These terraces are admirably displayed at Woodstock, and between that place and the Grand Falls. We here ascend from the stream by successive steps, and see the ancient shores of the river rise in regular order by a series of steep embankments, like the steps of a stairway. The Miramichi, Restigouche, and other streams, also have their terraced alluvial borders, which, from the regularity of their embankments, have been mistaken for ancient Indian fortifications. They are from six to twenty feet in height, and always consist of beds of gravel or alluvium.

The channels of the St. John and other rivers of New Brunswick have had their beds excavated and lowered by powerful vernal and autumnal currents. In the freshets of spring, the broken ice, for many miles, will move forward until its progress is arrested by projecting banks, or narrowness and shallowness of the stream; an ice-barrier is formed across the river, and the country above is immediately inundated. These barriers, called "ice-jams," are sometimes very alarming in their consequences. The ice, urged along by the current, and collected in enormous masses, grinds against the bottom and sides of the river; the earth trembles beneath the burden, and the pent-up water extends far and wide, not unfrequently sweeping away cattle, buildings, and everything within its reach; logs, trees, and the rubbish of the shores are also borne along, and aid in forming the obstruction. The alarmed inhabitants of the intervalles fly to the high grounds in canoes, whence they witness the destruction of their cattle and buildings. But

at length the jam breaks, the barrier gives way, and the flood rushes along the valley in a mighty wave, overflowing the lands which during the summer months were covered with a luxuriant vegetation. At the sites where these obstructions take place, the channel of the river is frequently deepened, and great changes are produced in the shoals and rapids below. Large masses of rock, detached by the frost, are frequently transported down the stream; acres of intervalle are torn away, and the whole aspect of the river is greatly modified. Such ice-floods are common to all the large rivers of the northern part of the American Continent; and, with the constant wearing down by the currents, whereby lakes are sometimes drained, they account for the changes of level in the streams, and consequently for the forming of terraces along their margins.

At the mouths of all the rivers emptying into Chignecto Bay, there are extensive collections of alluvial matter, called salt marshes. As these deposits are chiefly made by the operations of marine currents, they are only found in great quantities in situations where there is a high elevation of the tides, and where those currents are violent. The tides in the estuary of Cumberland Basin rise from fifty to sixty feet, and every flood brings into the river-channels great quantities of alluvial matter, which is derived from the soft rocks along the coast. Clayey sediment is swept into the rivers by every flood; before the water recedes, it falls, and the spring-tides overspread the highest marshes with a fine alluvial covering.

The Tantamarre Marsh is stated to contain upwards of 25,000 acres; of that quantity about 5,000 acres have been rescued from the sea by dikes and embankments, and called Diked Marsh. All the streams flowing into Cumberland Basin are skirted at their mouths with these rich alluviums, which afford excellent crops of hay and wheat. Large trees of different kinds, collections of shells and bones of fish, are found buried at different depths in these marshes. The vegetable productions have evidently been drifted, and the marine animals have been enveloped by the muddy water. The rapidity with which the alluvium collects is proved by the discovery of pieces of cord-wood cut by the French Acadians in the early settlement of the country. Indian harpoons, made of stone, and other relics of the aborigines, have been found ten feet below the surface.

In the great marsh of the County of Westmoreland there are layers of stumps of trees standing in their natural positions, and situated above the alluvium in a manner that proves the fact of their having from time to time been buried and succeeded by new growths. These circumstances only occur near the margin of the upland, where vegetables of the higher ground have been driven back by the slow but certain increase in the elevation of the tide.

The whole of the southern coast of the Province, from the River St. Croix to the entrance of Chignecto Bay, is bold and rocky; it is, nevertheless, indented by a number of fine harbours, and small deep bays, in which the largest ships may ride in safety. The mouth of the St. Croix, Chamcook Bay, and L'Etang are spacious basins. Beaver Harbour is also sufficiently capacious to contain a large fleet. Mace's Bay is unsafe in a gale from the south-west, and on its eastern side the water is shallow. Dipper Harbours are convenient openings for vessels of medium tonnage. Musquash Harbour is spacious, and safe in gales from every point of the compass. The Harbour of St. John has been noticed in the description of the river of that name. Between the estuary of the St. John and Shepody Bay, there are no harbours for ships, and but few inlets where small vessels can be secure in unfavourable weather. At the mouths of the Peticodiac and Memramcook Rivers there are fine harbours, and large ships may ascend the former stream on the flood-tide to the distance of twenty miles: the numerous small creeks and coves along the coast render it extremely well adapted for shore-fishing.

Passamaquoddy Bay is studded with islands of various dimensions. Grand Manan is situated about twelve miles south of Campo Bello and West Quoddy on the American side of the line; it is twenty-five miles long, and upon an average five miles in breadth. The north-west side of the island is uninhabited, and terminates in lofty headlands: it presents a bold front of overhanging cliffs and lofty mural precipices of trap-rock. Between the main land and the island there is a very strong current on the ebb and flood-tide. When the wind and the tide are opposed to each other, a heavy sea is soon produced, which, with the influence of the currents, is constantly undermining the rocks, and they frequently fall in vast masses into the sea. The south side of the island

is low and level. Fishing has been the principal employment of the inhabitants, who have not until very recently directed their attention to agriculture. Along the south side of the main island there are a number of small islands which afford shelter for vessels at all times. Grand Manan is a very valuable fishing station; but, from being exposed to the constant aggressions of the American fishermen, its prosperity has been greatly retarded.*

Campo Bello Island is upwards of eight miles long, and two miles in breadth; and is valuable on account of its harbours, fisheries, and timber.

Deer Island is twelve miles long, and about three in breadth. Its south side is sheltered by a number of smaller islands, and there are numerous harbours for small vessels and boats. The inhabitants are employed in fishing along the shores, and in small craft that frequent the coasts and bays. Jouet's Island, a custom-house station, contains only about four acres of land, and is within two hundred yards of the American shore. L'Etang, White, Spruce, Green, Cherry, and Casco Bay are also small islands; besides these, there are others that still remain uninhabited.

During the summer season, Passamaquoddy Bay is almost covered with fishing-boats; of which several hundreds are sometimes huddled together over shoals of cod, haddock, or pollock, common in these waters.

The whole north-eastern coast of New Brunswick, where it is bounded by Northumberland Straits, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Bay Chaleurs, is low, and the shore waters are comparatively shallow. The currents and waves have thrown up narrow banks of sand and shingle, and formed shoals at the mouths of almost all the principal streams. Between the sandbanks raised above the sea and the main land, there are lagoons with open channels, which receive the rivers and afford shelter to small vessels.

Bay Verte was much frequented by French vessels in the first settle-

* The number of American vessels fishing within three miles of the island, at certain seasons of the year, has been estimated at 500; while of British bottoms there are only about 100.

ment of the country. It affords safe anchorage, except during a south-east gale, and there is not sufficient water for large vessels at the extremity of the inlet: the latter circumstance has been one of the objections to opening a canal into it from the head of Cumberland Basin.

The Harbour of Shediac is safe and convenient; its channel being sufficiently deep to admit large ships at high-water. At its mouth there are two pretty islands. On the smallest of these, there are the remains of an ancient French fort, which is supposed to have been erected by the Acadians immediately after the conquest of Quebec by General Wolfe.

Cocagne Harbour has ten feet water upon the bar at its mouth at low-water, and fourteen feet at high-water. At spring-tides these depths are increased about two feet. At these places the common tides rise only four feet, and the time and duration of high-water are much influenced by the winds in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

The entrance to the Buctouche is between two bars of shingle, and the depth of the water rather exceeds that of the Cocagne. A number of square-rigged vessels are loaded at this place annually for Great Britain, and a ship of 1,000 tons was built on the banks of the river emptying into the harbour. The tide flows inland twelve miles.

The Harbour of Richibucto, at the mouth of the river of the same name, is twenty miles farther north. It is a spacious haven, with six and seven fathoms of water. The entrance is between two long bars of sand, with a depth of eighteen feet at high-water.

The next, and one of the most important harbours on the coast, is Miramichi Bay and River. The safest entrance to the harbour is between a shoal of sand and shingle, and Point Escuminac, between which the distance is three miles, with five to seven fathoms water. This passage opens into a fine basin twelve miles long and eight miles broad, and terminates in the river already described, which is also navigable for the largest class of vessels upwards of twenty miles. The towns and villages situated on the sides of the bay and river render the scenery lively and interesting, and the great exports of timber to the British market employ a great number of fine ships.

The lagoons of Taboosintac and Tracadie, and the inlet of Pockmouche, are safe retreats for vessels of moderate tonnage. The splendid

Harbour of Shippegan is formed by Shippegan Island on one side, and the main land and Poksudie Island on the other. It has from five to seven fathoms water, and will admit the largest ships of the navy. Its entrance is from the Bay Chaleurs; the passage into the Gulf has only six or seven feet of water. Little Shippegan Harbour is a small bay between Miscou and Shippegan Islands; the channel is two miles wide, with four fathoms of water.

Caraquette Harbour has a good entrance, between Poksudie and Caraquette Islands. From each of these islands large shoals extend into the Bay; but between them there is a safe channel of four and five fathoms.

The Harbour of Bathurst is about forty-five miles westward of Caraquette. Its entrance between Alston and Carron Points is about three hundred yards: outside of those points, a bar of sand reduces the depth of the water to fifteen feet. Large vessels take in parts of their cargoes of timber on the Bay side of the bar, where there is plenty of water and good anchorage. The basin of the harbour is three miles long, two miles wide, and perfectly sheltered from all winds.

Westward of this port, the Bay Chaleurs extends eighty miles, having a medium breadth of twenty miles: it may of itself be considered an immense haven, without a rock or a shoal to obstruct its navigation. The coast on the New Brunswick side meets the shore with a low border; but on the opposite coast of Gaspé, there are high rocky cliffs and abrupt precipices fronting the Bay. At a short distance from the shores, the country rises into lofty eminences, separated by deep ravines and narrow gorges, through which mountain torrents descend. The Bay, at its remotest point, forms the Harbour and receives the River Restigouche, already described. There are a number of small bays, lagoons, and inlets, that do not require any particular description, notwithstanding they are highly important in the prosecution of the inshore fisheries. In all the bays, harbours, and rivers, fish of various kinds are abundant, and vast quantities are taken and shipped annually by the inhabitants scattered along the shores: but a more extended notice of the fisheries is reserved for another chapter.

The principal islands on the coast are situated on the south side of the entrance of the Bay Chaleurs. Miscou Island is twenty miles in

circumference, and its northern point is the landmark for vessels bound to Bathurst and the Restigouche. It was occupied by the French at an early period, and the remains of their former fishing establishments are yet to be seen. It is still the resort of British and American fishing craft; and notwithstanding the plain language of the treaty which precludes the latter from the fisheries of the shore, their crews frequently erect flakes and cure whole cargoes of fish caught within the lines, and upon British ground.

Shippegan is a low, sandy island, twenty miles in length. On its west side there are two settlements of Acadian French—a people who form almost the entire population of this part of Gloucester. Poksudie and Caraquette Islands are small insulæ between Shippegan and the main land.

From the great extent of the coasts, bays, and rivers of New Brunswick, fishery should naturally form an important division of labour; but it is only at a few places where that branch of industry has been actively pursued. The fishing establishments of Shippegan have been successful; and there are many other situations, both on the Bay of Fundy and Bay Chaleurs sides of New Brunswick, where that kind of enterprise would be bountifully rewarded.

CHAPTER V.

NATIVE INDIANS OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

THERE has been great diversity of opinion respecting the origin of the aboriginal inhabitants of America. Blumenbach viewed the physical character of the American Indians as corresponding in some degree with that of the Mongul race, who inhabited that part of Asia which approaches nearest to the American Continent; and there are many reasons for entertaining the opinion that this vast territory was peopled by emigrants from the Old World. It has been maintained by Mr. Jones, that the native tribes of this quarter of the globe have descended from the Tyrians and ancient Israelites. That writer contends that the former established themselves upon the southern part of the continent immediately after the conquest of Alexander of Macedon, in the year 332 before the birth of Our Saviour. In proof of the Jewish origin of the Northern tribes, he states that "the Northern aborigines have a traditional knowledge of the Deluge, and the 'dove of peace,' which to them, under the name of 'medicine' or 'mystery bird,' is sacred from the arrow of the hunter. They have their ark of covenant, in which is deposited some mystery seen only by the priests of the tribe. It is said to be a shell, and supposed to give out oracular sounds. This is an analogy to the book of the law placed in the ark of the covenant by Moses preceding his death on Mount Nebo—the oracular wisdom of which has guided civilisation to this day. The ark is never suffered to touch the earth, but is always raised on a stand of wood or stone: it is invariably carried by a tribe when they march to battle; a similitude is here to Joshua at the siege of Jericho. When it is in their peaceful encampment, it is surrounded by twelve stones, indicative of the original number of the tribes of their ancestors. This is strictly in analogy

with the twelve statues (probably rude blocks of stone) erected by Moses around the altar of the covenant to personify the twelve tribes of Israel. Joshua also, after the passage of Jordan, erected twelve stones in his encampment at Gilgal, and the same number in the river at the place of passage. They select their 'medicine men' (*i. e.* priests or prophets) from among a portion of the tribe not warriors: here is a custom of the Levites, or descendants of Aaron, being in the sacred office of the priesthood, for with the Israelites they were not to be taken from the ranks of the soldiery. These aborigines 'dwell in booths,' as when 'brought out of the land of Egypt,' for they are still wanderers (Lev. xiii.) They offer a flesh or burnt offering from the chase, which is first cast into the flames before a starving family may eat. They have their corn and harvest feasts, also one in observance of every new moon, another in festivity of the first fruits, and the great feast in direct analogy with the Hebrew Passover, even to the blood being stained upon the posts and lintels, and the mingling of the most bitter herbs: then their fastings and purifications are practised with the greatest severity.* The analogy between the Israelites and their supposed descendants might be carried much farther; but as the comparison belongs not to the object of the present work, the inquiry is assigned to others.

From whatever origin the natives of America may have sprung, they were at the time of their being discovered nearly as far advanced towards civilisation as the Europeans were at the early periods of their history. Among them were warriors, statesmen, orators and priests, and communities bound together by principles of equity, and customs that were equivalent to laws.

When Canada was first discovered by Europeans, it was found occupied by three Indian nations,—the Hurons, the Algonquins, and the Iroquois. The first of these great tribes held the northern bank of the St. Lawrence. The country of the Hurons joined that of the Algonquins, and extended to Lake Huron. The Iroquois claimed a vast tract of land on the southern side of the St. Lawrence. According to a map published by L'Escarbot in 1609, the whole of Nova Scotia was

* History of America, by George Jones. Longman & Co., London.

occupied by the Souriquois (Iroquois); and the ancient French maps of the country all agree in giving a tribe called the Etchemins possession of the southern side of New Brunswick. According to Baron La Houtan, the Indian tribes of ancient Acadia were the Abenekis (Men of the East), Micmacs, Canabas, Malingans, Openagas, Socokes, and Etchemins. By other writers, those tribes were called Algonquins. From the peculiar habits and patriarchal form of government of the North American Indians, new tribes were frequently formed; and the lesser tribes or families, although bound to some greater community, received distinct names from the early *voyageurs*.

At the present time, there are the remnants of two tribes in New Brunswick,—the Micmacs and the Melicetes, or Morrisetes. The former are found in a part of the District of Gaspé, on the whole coast from the Restigouche to Bay Verte, and on the entire surface of Nova Scotia. The latter reside chiefly along the valley of the St. John, on the banks of the St. Croix, and the country westward, where they are met by the Penobscots of the United States. The Micmacs speak a dialect of the Iroquois (or language of the Six Nations), Hurons, and other tribes of the North: but the Melicetes, from being descended from the Delaware stock, speak a dialect of that people which is scarcely understood by the descendants of the Iroquois.

The physical characteristics of those people are not dissimilar. They all have the same copper colour, the straight coarse black hair, hazel eyes, high cheek-bones, scanty beard, and erect carriage, common to all the Northern tribes. Some of the men are upwards of six feet in height, and remarkable for suppleness, activity, and great powers of endurance, rather than for strength. Individuals among them will travel seventy miles in a day without any apparent fatigue. Such feats are often performed under heavy burdens, and without any kind of food. Bears, deer, moose, and other wild animals are sometimes pursued by them and overtaken. The skill and agility they display in ascending and descending the dangerous rapids on many of the rivers, in their canoes, has never been attained by Europeans; and the quickness of their perceptions in discovering the trails and footsteps, and even the scent, of men and animals, is truly surprising.

Previous to the arrival of the Europeans in the country, the clothing

of the Indian consisted of a cloak. To a strong girdle or belt around the waist were suspended two aprons, one before and the other behind, which were used as pockets. A long stocking was sewed around the leg from the middle of the thigh to the ankle; and the whole foot was covered with a piece of soft leather ingeniously stitched up behind, and sewed to a top piece across the instep. This kind of shoe, called the mocassin, is light and agreeable, and better adapted for travelling in the forests and in snow than any other. These simple articles of dress were made of the skins of wild animals. The dress of the female differed but little from that of the male, except that the apron extended down below the knees. Since the introduction of European stuffs, these garments are made of cloth. The mocassin is still made of tanned or untanned leather.

All the hair was cut off or pulled out, except a tuft on the crown of the head, which was ornamented with feathers, pieces of bone, and shells. The hair of the females was permitted to grow, and flowed around their shoulders, decorated with rude trinkets. It does not appear that the Miemac were much attached to the custom of tattooing; although the chiefs sometimes recorded in their skins, by hieroglyphic figures, certain victories, and other events. The warrior, in preparing for battle, painted on his body the most frightful forms; the face was coloured with stripes of red and black, in such a manner as to offer to his foes the most terrific expression of countenance, and his motions were those of menace and defiance. From their resemblance to war, hunting and trapping were the favourite employments. Every hunting occasion was preceded by fastings, dreamings, and superstitious ceremonies; and the destruction of droves of wild animals was celebrated with enthusiastic joy. The great warmth and beauty of the skin of the beaver gave that animal a share in their affections; and in their songs, the knowledge, industry, and usefulness of that harmless creature were extolled. Upon the females devolved all domestic duties: they erected the huts or wigwams, cultivated the ground, made canoes, caught fish, and provided for their offspring. They were wives and servants to the lords of the forest. This custom prevails, in some degree, to the present day; and it is no uncommon thing to see a squaw bent down beneath a heavy burden, and her stately lord marching before her with

nothing but a gun at his shoulder. The introduction of civilisation has greatly ameliorated the condition of the native female.

Near the villages, maize, or Indian corn, and sometimes pulse, were cultivated in small patches. From the former, they obtained a scanty allowance of bread kind: the maize was pounded and boiled, or made into a kind of cake, and eaten with dried venison.

From the migratory disposition of these people, they seldom erect comfortable habitations. Their huts, called *wigwams*, consist of a ring of poles, set up from the ground and covered with the bark of trees, except at the top, which is left open to allow the smoke to escape: when completed, the whole fabric resembles a cone resting upon its base. A village of these singular dwellings, situated on the bank of a river, and sheltered beneath a grove of lofty trees, is almost the climax of American scenery.

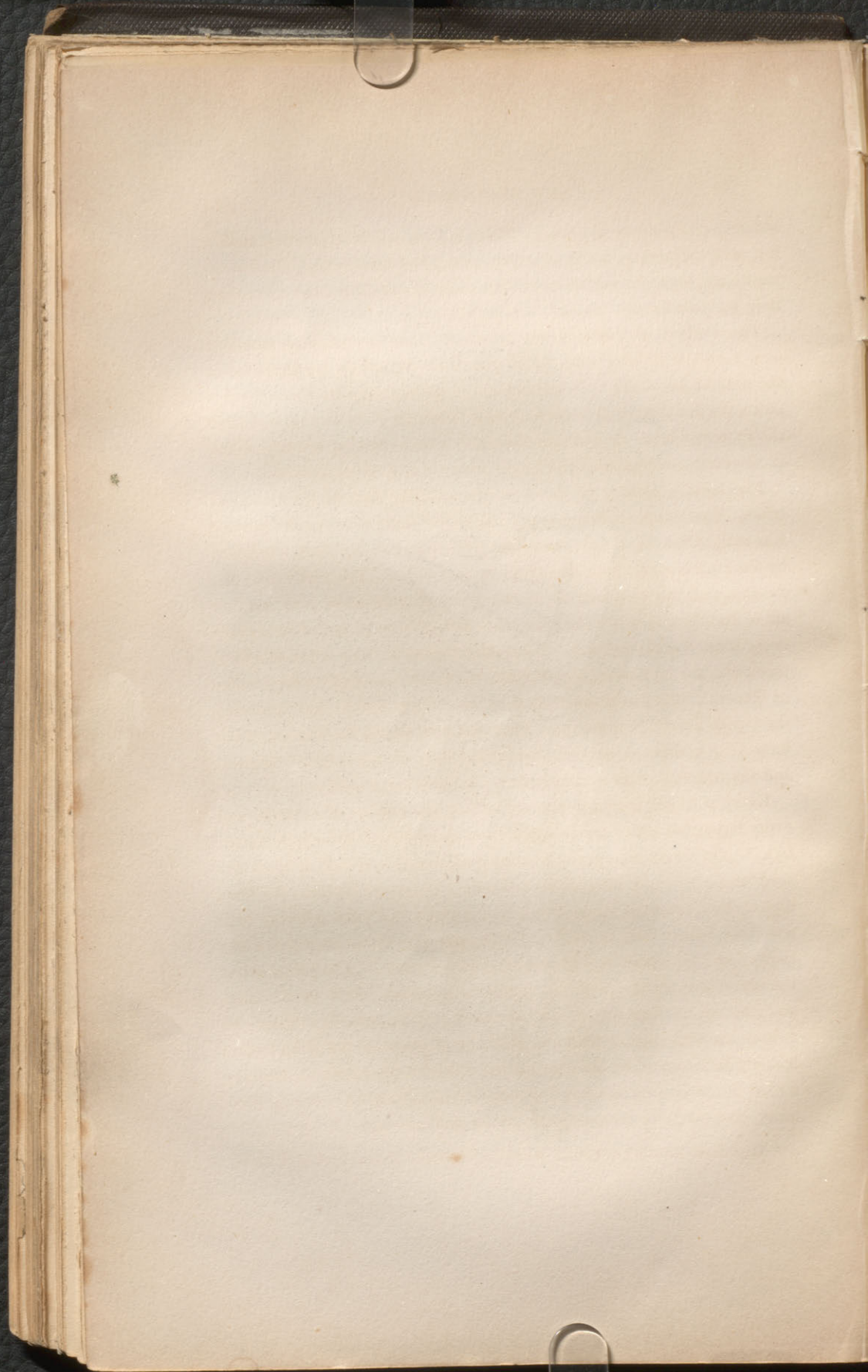
The Indians display more skill and workmanship upon their canoes than on any other fabric. The frame consists of the strongest and lightest kinds of wood, bent in their hoops to the approved model: over this is laid the entire bark of a large white birch tree, which is often found of sufficient size to cover the whole exterior of the vessel, and being cut and fitted to the framework, is finally sewed at the ends and to the gunwale with the tough roots of the spruce; the bars, or cross-pieces, are also sewed in. These vessels are not only well adapted for shallow and rapid streams, but, from their lightness and buoyancy, they are safe amidst the stormy waves and breakers. An Indian will transport from river to river on his back a canoe capable of carrying ten persons in safety, together with a paddle, a gun, a hatchet, blanket, and kettle.

The model of the canoe of the Melicete differs from that of the Micmac. It is somewhat in the style of an English barque, and has a very graceful appearance upon the water; but the canoe of the Micmac is rather the safer vessel in an open sea in stormy weather.

The culinary utensils of the aborigines consisted of pots made of chlorite and other kinds of soft stone, and a few vessels of baked clay. Pipes curiously carved were also made of the same materials. Their axes were hard stones ground sharp; around the middle was bent a piece of wood which served for a handle. They also had chisels,

INDIAN WIGWAMS.





gouges, and gimlets of stone. Their knives, points of arrows, spears, &c. were frequently made of jasper, agate, and hornstone. The instruments employed in warfare were also those of the chace, and upon them they bestowed much labour.

Those relics are found in the graves of these people, with whom it was a custom to bury with the deceased all the goods he possessed at the time of his death. Notwithstanding their passionate love of ornament, the Indians often bestowed their beads, rings, bracelets, and other showy appendages to decorate the dead, whose remains are now found in the earth covered with the gaudy trinkets of their survivors.

The social condition of these people was like that of the Canadian tribes. The independence of every individual to do whatever he pleased was maintained as a right, and that principle has not been weakened by their intercourse with European communities. They will enter the dwellings of the rich and sit at the tables of persons of rank with an air of dignity and self-possession, and their powers of imitation remove every kind of awkwardness. Their attachment to their tribe, and their patriotism for its honour and welfare, were not exceeded by the Greeks or Romans. They still maintain that the "Great Spirit" has permitted the "pale faces" to come upon their grounds to kill their game, catch their fish, and cut down their trees; but they are the lords of the soil, and the rightful owners of the water, the land, and the sky.

Every political circumstance calls forth the powers of oratory, and every important act of diplomacy is accompanied by a speech, or "great talk." On every emergency a council of the tribe is called, when the aged and wise hold long deliberations for the public weal. In their diplomatic discourses, each proposition is prefaced by the delivery of a wampum belt, which is made to represent the different parts of the treaty, and preserved as a record of the conference. The proposals of the orator are accompanied by appropriate actions. "If he threatens war, he wildly brandishes the tomahawk; if he solicits alliance, he twines his arms closely with the chiefs he addresses; and if he invites friendly intercourse, he assumes all the attitudes of one who is forming a road in the Indian manner, by cutting down the trees, clearing them away, and carefully removing the leaves and branches."*

* Historical Account of British America, by Hugh Murray, vol. i. p. 68, 69.

The acuteness of the Indian is almost supernatural; he can follow an animal by indications imperceptible even to an American backwoodsman. His powers of observation are so perfect, that he can trace on a piece of bark, with a bit of charcoal, the geography of the country he has traversed; and he will take a direct course to a place hundreds of miles distant, without the aid of a compass.

It has been supposed by some writers that the savage tribes of North America had no means of recording events. The wampum belt was generally applied to the different parts of a speech, or the different articles of a treaty; and on great occasions, when these belts were brought forth, individuals were found who, from memory or tradition, could explain each section of the precious girdle: but, besides this mode of record, the Micmacs and Melicetes had pictorial representations of certain events, and communicated information through the medium of hieroglyphics. Rocks and trees in conspicuous situations have had figures cut or engraved upon them, which convey to the Indian traveller in concise terms the knowledge necessary for his safety and comfort. During his geological survey of the Province, the Writer, with two companions and three Indians, were much embarrassed in not being able to discover in the wilderness an old Indian portage between the head waters of the St. Croix and Eel River Lake. From this difficulty they were relieved by observing some rude hieroglyphics marked upon an old cedar-tree. The representations were that of an Indian carrying a canoe, and the direction of the figures corresponding exactly with that of the portage path, which had been obscured by grass and fallen leaves. A hunter with his gun levelled at two deer, indicated that those animals were plentiful: this, and other information conveyed in a similar manner, was found to be correct. In another instance, when the same party was descending Eel River, and their lives were in jeopardy on the brink of a fall, a large drawing of two Indians, with their heels uppermost and their canoes capsized, was seen executed in durable black ink upon a broad piece of cedar secured to a post: this warning was immediately understood, and a landing was effected before the canoes and the whole party were plunged down the cataract.

Before the country was discovered, these tribes had been at war, and desperate conflicts had taken place between rival powers. The Etche-

mins and Iroquois had each struggled for supremacy, and the tortures they inflicted upon their captives forms a dark page in the traditional history of those people. At Meductic Point, eight miles below the town of Woodstock, on the east bank of the St. John, a great battle was fought between the Melicetes and Penobscots. In making a new road at the spot a few years ago, a number of skeletons and instruments of war were discovered; and songs are still chaunted by the natives commemorative of the event.—The relics found at the mouth of the Oromucto River are evidently those of a public cemetery, as the skeletons at that place were ornamented and enveloped in beaver skins. In 1639, the Mohawks of Canada were at war with the Micmacs of Acadia, and a bloody battle is said to have been fought between them near the mouth of the Restigouche. The former were victorious, and the warlike character of the tribe was such that the war-whoop of the Mohawk was to their enemies the signal for flight. Even at the present day, the Indians of New Brunswick have a superstitious dread of the spirit that led the "hungry wolves of Canada" to battle.

The early French Colonists soon discovered that they could never carry on a successful war against so brave a people; they therefore endeavoured to make them their allies. They adopted their mode of living, and even some of their barbarous customs. Their Government offered rewards to any who would marry a native, until the two races were so blended together that they could not be separated. The priests of the Jesuits lived with the savages, and all became the avowed enemies of the English, who claimed the country by discovery and possession. The Indians readily laid hold of the firearms, axes, and knives of the French, which were employed in the awful massacres of the infant settlements in the Colony. Their dress was also made to imitate the garments of their visitors, and has since become a mixture of English, French, and Indian fashions; but although their outward appearance has undergone alteration, and necessity has compelled them to conform more or less to the present condition of the country, in their social state they remain unchanged, and every effort to bring them to a perfect state of civilisation has proved abortive. As a people, they are ever ready to attach themselves to almost any kind of religion, according to expected gain. Wherever there is any show of pomp or

ceremony, they will present themselves; and their last friendly visitor is always their idol, especially if he be lavish in the distribution of presents. In all their negotiations, there is little sincerity. The Indian naturally despises the refinements of civilisation; he looks upon the forest as his home, and even longs for wild adventure. Much pains have been taken to improve the condition of these people. Young children have been taken, with their parents, and educated with much care. They have been instructed in the arts and agriculture: but no sooner were they liberated from their masters, than they returned to the haunts and habits of their forefathers, and became the most depraved of all their race. By associating and labouring with the inhabitants of the Province, they have advanced slowly in agriculture, and a few families may be found who support themselves comfortably by their own exertions. But their intercourse with the whites has always been the introduction to intemperance, disease, and idleness; and if we judge by the rapid decline in their numbers since the country was colonised, there is reason to fear that the day of their arrival at an ordinary degree of civilisation will not long precede the day when the names of their races will be blotted from the page of American history.

The great number of lakes and rivers in the Province afforded the aborigines great facilities of water communication. The distances between those lakes and the sources of the rivers by land are short, and are called portages, which in the forests are only narrow and obscure paths. On some of the ancient Indian trails, the solid rocks have been worn out by the mocassins of the native tribes. A natural water communication is open almost from the Schoodic or St. Croix River across the country to the St. John at the Meductic; thence the aborigines passed along the River St. Francis, or Tuladi, northward of Lake Temiscouta, to the St. Lawrence. This was one of the routes from Passamaquoddy to Quebec. Portages were made between the Oromucto Lake and the Maguadavic, thence to the waters of the Chepuncticook and the eastern branches of the Penobscot—also from the Tobique to the Nepisiguit, from the Grand Lake to the Richibucto, and from the Grand River to the Restigouche.* It was along such

* To persons who are fond of hunting, fishing, and wild scenery, pleasant excursions may be made during the summer and autumn, by hiring Indians

wild routes the Indians travelled to make their attacks upon the early settlers of New England and Acadia; and the quickness of their movements from one place to another filled the minds of the early Colonists with the greatest consternation. In the dark and silent hours of the night, when the peaceful inhabitants of the villages were wrapt in slumber, or when the sentinel trusted to the distance between himself and the enemy, the savages were creeping upon them like serpents, sometimes drawing their bodies on the ground, at other times standing erect and imitating the appearance of trees or other common objects, until the war-whoop was raised, when all rushed forward to the indiscriminate and diabolical slaughter of men, women, and children. These fiendish acts, and the terrible tortures they inflicted on their prisoners, formed the dark pages of Indian history, until British arms and civilisation swept from the continent the barbarities of its primeval inhabitants.

All the Northern tribes are now upon friendly terms. The Chiefs and Delegates of the Penobscots, Micmacs, and Melicetes hold a Coun-

with their canoes, and traversing the rivers in the interior. The aborigines when thus employed are active and industrious, and while *poleing*, or paddling the stranger up the rapids in quest of game, they will relate many amusing anecdotes. For their skill in cooking little can be said; but the readiness with which they erect a wigwam or shanty, kindle a fire, prepare the bed of cedar boughs, and attend to the comfort of their employers, makes due amends for their careless habits in preparing food; and although they may offer the sportsman parched trout, (trout roasted in the blaze,) or racoon stewed in bear's grease, they will seldom urge him to partake of their viands to excess after he has paid a due compliment to their culinary ability. The following story is given to illustrate the humour of a Melicete Indian hunter, who was much addicted to taking snuff. In broken English, he says—"One time I go huntem moose; night come dark, rain and snow come fast; no axe for makum wigwam; gun vet, no get um fire; me very tired, me crawl into large hollow tree; I find plenty room, almost begin sleep. By and bye me feelem hot wind blow on my face: me know hot bear's breath. He crawl into log too; I take-um gun, she no go; I think me all same gone, all eat up. Then me thinkum my old snuffbox; I take some snuff and throwem in bear's face, and he run out; not very much likeum, I guess. Me lay still all night, he no come again. Every leetle while, every time bear he go O-me sneezeum, over and over great many times. Morning come, me fixem gun and shoot em dead: he no more sneezeum, no more this time."

cil annually at Pleasant Point, on the St. Croix, where they renew their friendship and establish regulations for the public weal. Each tribe has laws peculiar to itself, and the measures adopted by the Grand Council prevent collision in hunting and fishing. Their politics are neutral. They are now a harmless and, with due allowance for their customs, an honest people, with whom a Provincial or a European is as safe as he would be with his own countrymen. As a people, they still retain their idle, wandering habits, and many of them are frequently in a state of suffering and wretchedness. To this there are nevertheless exceptions, and a few families not only enjoy many comforts, but have small sums of money at their disposal.

The Provincial Government has made many efforts to ameliorate the condition of these people. Commissions have been appointed in different parts of the Province to watch over their interests; and small sums of money are granted by the Legislature, from time to time, to purchase seeds, and otherwise assist them when they are in distress. Fourteen tracts of land, containing 61,273 acres, have been reserved in different parts of the Province for their use, and which they are permitted to occupy during pleasure. Encroachments have been made upon those lands to a great extent, and some of the best tracts have been settled by squatters. As the title is not in the Indians, they have no power to prevent trespasses; and the result has been, that the lands set apart for their benefit are plundered of their most valuable timber, and the most fertile pieces of ground occupied by unauthorised persons.

There is a village of the Melicetes on the right bank of the St. John, about twelve miles above Fredericton. At that place there is a chapel, six comfortable dwelling-houses, and sometimes fifteen wigwams. The Indians obtain a scanty subsistence by cultivating potatoes, making baskets, hunting, and fishing. A few families also reside occasionally at Meductic Point, an ancient station of the tribe. A large tract of land at this place was granted by the French Government to René d'Amour, Sieur de Clignancourt, as early as 1684. At the entrance of the Tobique River, 16,000 acres of land have been rescued for the Indians. The village there consists of twenty-six houses and wigwams, and a population of 120 souls. Some of the males are employed in ng timber during the summer months, others devote the whole of

their time to the chase. A few of the Melicetes also reside at Madawasca, among the Acadian French: but a number of families have no fixed place of residence, and are seen wandering over the face of the country in poverty and wretchedness.

A number of Micmac families are settled on the Indian reserves of the Miramichi, Richibucto, and other rivers of the northern coast. The most extensive village of that tribe is at Mission Point, sixteen miles from the mouth of the Restigouche, on the Canada side. This place was the residence of a missionary. The village contains a large chapel and mission-house, and a population of 200 families. Lumbering, hunting, and fishing are the chief employments.

All these tribes were converted to Christianity by the labours of the Jesuits, and they still adhere to the Roman Catholic faith; but their attachment to that church is not greater than it would be to any other denomination, whose missionaries should carry with them a bountiful supply of presents for the use and benefit of their proselytes.

In 1841, Sir William Colebrooke, the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province, appointed M. H. Perley, Esq. a Special Commissioner for Indian Affairs, by whose labours much information was obtained of the condition of the two tribes, and the state of their lands. According to the Report of the Commissioner, the number of Melicetes, male and female, is 442; of Micmacs, 935: total number of Indians in the Province, 1,377. There was a time when those tribes could muster more than four times that number of warriors, exclusive of other population; and they now believe that the diseases of the Europeans, and ardent spirits, have been more fatal to them than the arrows and scalping-knives of all their enemies.

Notwithstanding the Micmac and Melicete tribes both inhabit one district, it is singular that the language of one cannot be understood by the other.

The Lord's Prayer in the Melicete Language.

Me-tox-sen-aa spum-keek ay-e-en saga-mow-ee tel-mox-se'en tel-e-wee-so-teek. Cheeptooke wee-chee-u leek spum-keektaun e-too-cheesauk-too leek spum-a kay-e'en. Too-eep-nankna-meen kes-e kees-skah-keel wek-a guleek el-me-kees-kaak keel-mets-min a-woolee. Ma-hate-moo-in ka-tee a-lee-wanay-ool-te-ck el mas we-chee-a keel mecoke-may-keel ne-ma-hate-hum-to mooin.

The Lord's Prayer in the Micmac Language.

Noorch enen waa-sooke abin, chip-took, talwee-sin me-ga-day-de mek. Waa-soke-te-lee-daa-nen chip-took igga nam-win oo-la ne-moo-lek naa-de la tay se-nen. Naa-tel waa-soke ai-keek chip-took ta-lee-ska-doolek ma-ga-mi guek ay e-mek. Tel-la-moo-koo-be-ne-gal es-me-a gul opch nega-a-tah kees-took igga-nam-win nes-el-co-nen. Ta-lee a-bik-chik-ta-kaa-chik wa-gai-nee-na-met-nick elk-keel-nees-kaam a-bik chic-toc-in el-wa-wool-ti-jeck. Mel-kee-nin maach win-chee-gul mook-ta-gaa-lin kees-e-na waam-kil win-chee-gukl ko qui-ak too-ack-too-in.—*Quebec Version.*

CHAPTER VI.

TOPOGRAPHY OF NEW BRUNSWICK—SOUTHERN COUNTIES.

IN the general description of the Province some of the most important features of the country were described, and a brief survey of the Colony is, perhaps, all that is necessary for historical purposes; but as emigration from the mother-country is an object of high importance, it appears to be expedient to supply such topographical details as may serve to guide the stranger in the choice of a situation where he is to establish himself for life on shores remote from his native home. It has been a subject of much complaint that the Province is scarcely known in Great Britain, and that this wide field for the industry of the British emigrant has been overlooked. It is therefore proposed to give in the two following chapters a sketch of each county, and to notice the particulars of each district. With those objects in view, it is necessary that the extensive resources of the Province should be considered; and as they vary in different sections of the country, they may be briefly mentioned in the course of topographical description.

The inhabited parts of New Brunswick are divided into twelve counties: St. John, Charlotte, Westmoreland, King's, Queen's, Sunbury, York, Carlton, Kent, Northumberland, Gloucester, and Restigouche.* The Seigniory of Madawasca has also been under the jurisdiction of the Province. The counties have been laid out with great irregularity; during the early progress of cultivation, villages frequently sprang up

* The County of Westmoreland has recently been divided, and a new county, called the County of Albert, has been set off on the west side of the Peticodiac; but as the divisional lines are not yet established, we have included the whole in the description of the County of Westmoreland.

beyond the limits of any local authority, and new counties were laid out for the accommodation of such settlements, and apparently without any view to the physical features of the country, or to future convenience. A glance at the map of New Brunswick will satisfy the most casual observer of the improvements that might be made by proper surveys, and a general equalisation of land between the counties. The County of Northumberland, although it has been twice divided, has more than its share of territory; and several counties cross the St. John River, which forms a natural and convenient boundary. Some of the parishes also, where they are laid out at all, are very inconvenient to the inhabitants. King's County should have touched the Bay of Fundy eastward of Quaco, and the County of Westmoreland should have been bounded by the Peticodiac. The surveys of land have also been conducted in an irregular manner, and by giving rise to disputes have been unprofitable to all, except gentlemen of the legal profession.

Each county is subdivided into parishes; the total number of which, including districts and cities, is 95. As the population increases, new counties will be laid out. There is still sufficient space for a county in the vicinity of the Grand Falls, one on the Tobique River, and one or two in the District of the Restigouche.

County of St. John.

The County of St. John, situated at the mouth of the river of that name, occupies a long and narrow belt of land forming the north coast of the Bay of Fundy, between Cape Enrage and Mace's Bay; being upwards of eighty miles in length, and upon an average not more than ten miles in breadth. It contains the parishes of Portland, Carlton, Lancaster, St. Martin's, and Simonds. The whole shore is rocky, and frequently bounded by precipitous and overhanging cliffs. Eastward of St. John there are no harbours of importance; but vessels of considerable burthen may enter Black and Quaco Rivers, Ten-mile and Gardner's Creeks, at high-water. Mispec River has a very pretty haven at its mouth. On all these streams there are saw or flour mills. The saw-mills at Salmon River, with the lands attached thereto, cost upwards of £20,000 currency. The coast is thinly settled; but at Quaco there is a large village with two meeting-

houses* and several ship-yards. This place was first settled by officers and soldiers of the King's Orange Rangers; many of whose descendants still live in the parish, since called St. Martin's.

The Harbour of St. John is safe, but not very spacious, especially at low-water. The tides rise twenty-six feet, and therefore great facilities are afforded for repairing and launching vessels; for during the retreat of the sea, the shores and a number of docks are left dry. At such periods there is a strong outward current in the harbour, which, during the flood, is easy of access for the largest ships. From the great quantity of fresh water that descends from the river during the freshets of spring and autumn, a strong and favourable breeze is necessary to enable ships to enter; in calm weather and head-winds they are frequently towed in by steamers. Partridge Island is situated at the mouth of the harbour. On it there are a battery, lighthouse, signal station, and hospital for the accommodation of sick emigrants and sailors, who are removed from vessels on their entering the quarantine station. Between the island and the main land westward there is a long narrow bar, dry at low water. A beacon on the bar is crowned by an excellent light, and offers a good mark for vessels entering at night: there are buoys on a shoal on the opposite side of the entrance.

At the lower extremity of the city a long pier has been erected, and is rapidly filling up by the ballast discharged from the timber-ships. At high-water large vessels pass the Falls, near the city, and navigate the river above. Eastward of the harbour there is a broad and shallow estuary terminating in a marsh, and a deep ravine that runs westward, and separates the town of Portland from St. John. As the latter contains an abundant supply of clay, it is the site of a number of brick-yards, which are more useful than ornamental to the environs of the city.

The Harbour of St. John has an important advantage over almost every other port in the Province, in being open at all seasons of the year. The ice—the great obstacle to navigation in all the ports of the St. Lawrence—does not accumulate here so as to obstruct navigation;

* The houses of worship of the Dissenters are called by the inhabitants meeting-houses.

and during the coldest months of winter, vessels are loaded and despatched to foreign countries without much risk or inconvenience. The harbour and offing afford a most valuable fishery: cod, halibut, pollock, and other kinds of fish, are caught at all seasons of the year; shad, herring, alewives, and salmon are abundant during the spring and summer months; the latter fish is sometimes sold as low as three-pence per pound. The fishery is divided into lots, which are annually drawn for by lottery, each citizen having a right to a ticket. The prizes, or best lots, are afterwards leased for £50, and even £100. The market where the fish are offered for sale is small and filthy, and calls for improvement.

St. John is built upon a rocky peninsula of very uneven ground, that slopes in opposite directions from a central ridge. A great deal of labour has been employed in cutting down the hills and levelling the streets; several of which are still steep, and the ice in winter sometimes renders them dangerous. That division of the city which is nearest the entrance of the harbour is called Lower Cove. The principal wharves, docks, and warehouses are situated farther to the north, and extend around the head of the basin to within a short distance of the Falls. The whole shore is lined with timber-ponds, booms, and shipyards, which receive the numerous rafts floated down the river.

The streets have been regularly laid out, and two pieces of ground, King's Square and Queen's Square, near the centre of the town, have been reserved for public accommodation. The city, which includes within its boundaries a town on the western side of the harbour, called Carlton, consists of six wards. It is incorporated,* and governed by a Mayor (who is appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor), a Recorder, six Aldermen, six Assistant Aldermen, a Sheriff of the County, a Coroner, Common Clerk, Chamberlain, High Constable, six Marshals, and sixteen inferior Constables. The revenue of the city amounts to about £5,000 per annum. A part of the public property still remains unleased, and is yearly growing more valuable. It is well built, and the whole range of wharves, to the distance of a mile and a half, is lined with stones and

* No emigrant, nor any other person, can sell goods until he first obtain the freedom of the city; the cost of which is £5 currency.

large piles of deal, and other kinds of lumber, destined for the British market. The principal buildings are made of stone and brick, and a number of the shops are not excelled in beauty in much older cities.

On the 14th of January, 1837, a destructive fire broke out and consumed 115 houses and stores, which were equal at the time to one-third of the commercial part of the city. The loss was estimated at £250,000. Several severe fires have occurred since, and whole streets, including the north and south market wharves, have been laid in ruins, with a new market-house at the foot of King Street. The extreme point of the peninsula belongs to the Crown, and is occupied by two batteries, military stores, and barracks, capable of containing two regiments. In front of the barracks there is a spacious parade-ground, which affords a fine promenade in summer for the public, who are admitted without distinction. The principal public buildings are three Episcopal Churches; two Presbyterian, one Roman Catholic, two Methodist, one Baptist, one Covenanter, one Christian Band Chapel; a Grammar School, a Methodist Sunday-school, Court-house, Gaol, Poor-house, two Hospitals, a Mechanics' Institute, Mayor's and City Office, three Banks, Market-house, Custom-house, St. John Hotel, and Penitentiary. A number of private houses are tastefully built, and the residence of the Chief Justice, situate in a small park, is quite in European style. The low wooden buildings that formerly occupied the suburbs are yearly replaced by handsome cottages, and the city is rapidly increasing in magnitude and population.*

Carlton, on the west side of the harbour, forms two wards of the city; it almost surrounds a large pond supplying water to saw-mills during the recess of the tide. It has several handsome streets, an Episcopal Church, Meeting-house, and extensive wharves. A steamboat plies between the shores, which are a quarter of a mile apart, every fifteen minutes. The fishing is excellent; and, from the convenience of

* General Arnold, who made a conspicuous figure in the American Revolutionary War, resided in the city after the peace, and the house built by him in King Street still remains standing. The celebrated and notorious William Cobbett was once stationed at this place as a private soldier; and he here found his wife, of whom he afterwards published a curious auto-biography.

the situation, several mercantile establishments have been opened of late, and the appearance of the place much improved.

The manufacturing industry of St. John has advanced with the growth of the city. It has now three iron-foundries, in which exalted steam-engines and other machinery are made. There are also a number of flour-mills, turned by steam and water, for the manufacture of foreign grain; but, from the present abundance of timber, the sawing of logs into deals, scantling, shingles, and laths, has called forth the greatest amount of capital: several steam saw-mills are employed in this business, and others are contemplated. The descent of the river at the Falls has given rise to the St. John Mills and Canal Company; and machinery for sawing and grinding grain is propelled by the stream, as it rushes down the frightful rapid towards the ocean. At a site below the Falls where the river is very narrow, an attempt was made a few years ago to erect a bridge between Carlton and the opposite shore. The work was nearly completed, when, from the lack of engineering science, a part of it fell into the stream, and a number of workmen, with a mass of timber, were plunged upwards of one hundred and fifty feet into the river below: of the men only a few were saved, and the event is among the painful records of the loss of life which has been but too frequent at and below the cataract.

Formerly there was an Indian village a furlong above the Falls, and the spot is still called Indian Town. The river steamers and small craft generally land here, and a little town has sprung up within the space of a few years. The distance to the city is a mile and a quarter, and the street runs through the thriving town of Portland, which should be united to St. John, instead of being a separate parish. The whole shore of Portland is occupied by timber-docks and ship-yards, and, except for its lack of cleanliness and frequent disorder, it would be a valuable appendage to the city.

Northward of Portland stands Fort Howe Hill, which commands the upper part of the harbour. The hill is the site of a military post, with a magazine at its base. Portland is the site of a handsome Episcopal Church, a Roman Catholic Chapel, two Meeting-houses, and an Academy.

By the recent exertions of an active company formed for the pur-

pose, the principal streets of St. John are now supplied with water, brought from a small lake situated a mile and a half northward. The water is elevated by forcing-pumps to the highest ground, and then conducted through pipes to its several places of destination. The streets are very imperfectly lighted, and an effort to introduce gas was resisted by the Corporation of 1842.

The situation of St. John is by no means unfavourable for fortification. Batteries on Partridge Island, Fort Howe Hill, and other eminences, would defend the haven and city. At present the defences consist of three small batteries on the east, and a stone tower and blockhouse on the west side of the harbour, and a fort on the island. Although those works are not in a state of perfect repair, the well-known spirit of the Militia, with the expertness of their artillery divisions, would render the approach of an enemy even with a strong force very hazardous.

The uplands in the vicinity of St. John are rocky. The soil is scanty and meagre. There are, nevertheless, fine fields and meadows, which, by industry and patience, have been rendered fertile. A marsh consisting of 1500 acres, eastward of the city, has been rescued from the sea by an embankment, and, by good cultivation, produces hay, potatoes, and oats abundantly. The surrounding country is thickly covered with cedar, larch, hemlock, and spruce. Viewed from any of the eminences flanking the harbour, the scenery is bold and picturesque. The river at low-water, dashing forward in columns of spray, is seen rushing through a narrow gorge into the harbour, spreading the surface of the water with wreaths of foam. Cultivation is driving back the forest, and the whole basin of the river appears to be alive with ships, steamboats, and small craft. In the rear, Fort Howe Hill, overlooking the busy scenes below, forms an interesting object. In the midst of this scenery stands the city of St. John, the great commercial depôt of the Bay of Fundy.

A little more than sixty years ago, the site of the city was a rocky headland covered with cedar thickets. It was then the refuge of American Loyalists, by whose patience and industry the foundation of a flourishing city was established, and which now contains 26,000 souls. Besides the public institutions before mentioned, St. John has a Cham-

ber of Commerce, Agricultural and Horticultural Society, Emigration Society,* Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, Religious Tract Society, Church-of-England Sunday School Society, Ladies' Benevolent Society, Library, Sacred Music Society, St. George's Society, St. Andrew's Society, St. Patrick's Society, Albion Union Society, Orphan's Benevolent Society, Temperance Society, Total Abstinence Society, and three Fire Clubs.

Some writers and travellers have charged the inhabitants of St. John with a lack of civility, and a want of harmony in their social character. In all commercial cities which rise rapidly, the constant influx of persons of different pursuits gives rise to jealousies; but such feelings seldom exist among the better classes at St. John, than whom a more kind and benevolent people can scarcely be found in any country. Again, it frequently happens that men in the humbler walks of life, and with little education, by their industry obtain wealth, and consequently more or less influence: such persons seldom acquire the accomplishments of those who have had greater advantages of refinement, and it would be wrong to condemn a whole community for the rudeness or incivility of some of its members. The licentiousness of the press has created unhappy divisions, and given to strangers an unfavourable opinion of the state of society; but the remarks of promiscuous and anonymous writers, who delight to record every supposed evil, take no hold upon the public mind, and time and the more general diffusion of correct principles will purify the corrupt portion of the press from its present tainted and disgusting personalities.

Besides being open to foreign trade, the situation of St. John is very favourable for Colonial traffic. The timber and other resources of the interior of the Province—and, since the settlement of the Boundary dispute, a part of the State of Maine—are transported down the river to the city, which commands the business of the towns and settlements above. It has also taken the traffic of the Bay of Fundy, and through that channel continues to draw away the productions of Nova Scotia

* The Government has appointed M. H. Perley, Esq., an Emigration Agent at St. John, who will be found ready to afford advice and assistance to any respectable emigrant who arrives at the port.

from Halifax. The construction of railways in the Provinces would greatly alter and improve the state of Colonial trade, and give to Halifax, the capital of Nova Scotia, a larger share of the business of that Province: but it is reserved for the chapter on the Commerce of New Brunswick to treat more largely on this subject.

Seven miles westward from St. John, a small bay, called Manawagonis, affords shelter for vessels during the prevalence of certain winds. Musquash Harbour, farther to the south-west, is a safe and beautiful haven, two miles long and half a mile wide. It is easy of access, with deep water and good anchorage. During the early settlement of the country, a French armed brig was chased into Musquash Harbour by a British cruiser. The former was run ashore and deserted by her crew, and a part of the wreck may still be seen at a place called Frenchman's Creek. At the head of the haven, there is a tract of marsh, intersected by Musquash River, which extends into the parish and village of Lancaster. On the northern branch of the stream, superior saw-mills have been erected by the Lancaster Mill Company, at an expense exceeding £20,000. The exports from those mills have been equal to £10,000 per annum.

Dipper and Little Dipper Harbours are frequented by coasters, and they are very convenient basins on a shore which, in general, is bold and rocky. In all these harbours, and along the intervening coast, there is a plentiful run of fish, of which comparatively few are taken by the inhabitants, who, like those on many other shores, divide their time between agriculture, lumbering, and fishing.

The whole District of St. John may be said to be rocky and broken. The soil in general is scanty and meagre, requiring at the hands of the husbandman much care and diligence in the production of a crop. On the west it is traversed by the great road leading from the city to St. Andrew's, upon which a stage or mail coach passes every day. Besides the main road, extending from the city towards the eastern section of the Province and Nova Scotia, there is another running to Quaco, passing by a beautiful sheet of water called Loch Lomond. Roads have also been laid out and improved along the shores, and to the remotest settlements; but many of them are in a bad state, and few

can be travelled with speed or comfort. The liberal grants made annually by the Legislature for the improvement of internal communication will soon multiply the facilities for travelling.

The best forests of this county have been felled, and it is only at places remote from the roads or open streams that good timber can now be produced. The chief advantages of the country inhabitants are the proximity of a market for their produce, the fisheries, and facilities for ship-building.

The county contains 427,650 acres, of which only 19,134* acres are cleared: large blocks of land still remain ungranted; but, from their mountainous and rocky character, they scarcely invite settlement. Notwithstanding, there are many small tracts that would compensate the industry of the steady farmer. Limestone is abundant, and, by judicious management, would greatly improve the state of agriculture. A considerable part of the surface is occupied by tracts of barren soil, producing only stunted spruce and moss; and bogs of peat are numerous. The appearance of the almost sterile spots is rendered less dreary by numerous small lakes and rivulets, resting quietly between the hills, or winding their way to the rivers and bays. The abrupt character of almost every eminence also contributes to render the scenery interesting. Although much of the land presents to the farmer a forbidding aspect, villages and settlements are springing up in almost every quarter. Of these, Quaco, in the Parish of St. Martin's, has become important, on account of its peculiar advantages for ship-building. The Parish of Lancaster is also rapidly improving in husbandry and domestic manufacture.

This county is better adapted for emigrants who have trades, or have been brought up to fishing, than for those who follow the tillage of the soil. The small harbours, bays, and creeks offer suitable sites for shore or deep-sea fishing, which might be carried on with profit.

On every stream of sufficient magnitude there are one or more saw-mills. During the winter season, the country inhabitants are engaged in felling and transporting logs of timber for those establishments, from

* Census of New Brunswick, 1840.

whence the deals are shipped in the ensuing spring. This kind of industry cannot be pursued in the best agricultural districts of Canada and Nova Scotia, where the cold months of winter bring around the season of gaiety, amusement, and matrimony.

The soil, when properly cultivated, produces fine crops of excellent potatoes, turnips, oats, barley, flax, grass, &c., for which it is better adapted than for wheat or Indian corn. The fogs that hang over the coast, during the early part of summer, are very unfavourable to the production of the latter kinds of grain. A hardy breed of cattle find sufficient grazing on the uncleared lands during the vegetating months. But the whole county partakes of the coast climate, which is far less favourable to the growth of plants than the warmer and less humid atmosphere of the interior. The total population of the County and City of St. John, at the present time, is about 35,000 souls.

County of Charlotte.

The County of Charlotte, if not the most extensive in area, is next in population and trade to the County of St. John. Commencing at Point Le Proc, on the shore of the Bay of Fundy, its eastern line touches the before-mentioned district, and the King's and Queen's Counties. On the north, it meets Sunbury and York; on the west, it extends to the River St. Croix, or Schoodic, the boundary of the United States; and on the south, it is washed by the waves of the Bay. It contains ten parishes,—namely, St. Andrew's, St. Stephen's, St. David's, St. George's, St. Patrick's, St. James', Pennfield, Grand Manan, West Isles, and Campo Bello. Whether those names were applied on all Saints' Day, or not, is of little consequence; the parishes, nevertheless, border on the St. Croix, and are situated to the westward of St. John and St. Martin's.

St. Andrew's, the principal town of this county, though not equal to St. John in magnitude, is of commercial importance, and would soon increase rapidly were it not for its rival St. Stephen's, a new town situated farther up the St. Croix, at the highest point to which vessels can ascend. The site of St. Andrew's, the shire town, is upon a peninsula on the east side of the mouth of the River St. Croix, or Schoodic, which at its *débouchement* into Passamaquoddy Bay is two

miles wide. The river opposite the town is divided by the small island upon which De Monts and his party wintered in the early discovery of the country.

This frontier town, situated nearly opposite to Robinstown on the American side, is built upon level ground, or an inclined plane, that slopes gently down from swelling ridges of land eastward to the border of the river. Streets running parallel to the harbour, and a chain of wharves occupied by stores, are intersected by other streets at right angles; the buildings in general are good, and the town, with its surrounding meadows and cultivated fields, presents a beautiful landscape. Being one of the oldest places in the Province, it is well provided with public institutions; the principal of which are a Chamber of Commerce, Bank, Savings' Bank, Bible Society, Agricultural Society, Geological Society, St. Patrick's Society, together with an Academy and Printing Office. The public buildings are an Episcopal Church, a Presbyterian Meeting-house, a Methodist Chapel, Court-house, Gaol, Record Office, Barracks, &c. A number of the private houses are built in handsome style, and impart an air of neatness to the whole place, which, although not extensive, contains much wealth and respectability. The safe and commodious harbour is favourably situated for foreign traffic and fishing, although it is sometimes obstructed by ice in the winter season. Heretofore, the West India trade, and exports of timber to Great Britain, have been pursued with success. The town is surrounded, except on its harbour side, by well-cultivated farms, which reach across the peninsula to Chamcook, at a medium distance of a mile and a half eastward.

About four miles northward of St. Andrew's stands Chamcook Mountain, associated with a number of cone-shaped hills, which add much to the grandeur of the scenery of the district. At the base of the former eminence are situated Chamcook Lake, River, and Harbour, opening out on the eastern side of the peninsula. At this place, extensive saw and grist mills, with a spacious wet dock, have been erected by John Wilson, Esq., by whose enterprise this part of the county has been much improved.

A mail crosses the line to and from the United States at St. Andrew's, and there are ferry establishments on both sides of the river for

the accommodation of travellers. Steamboats also ply between the St. John and the St. Croix during spring, summer, and autumn.

A few years ago, an Association was formed at St. Andrew's, called the St. Andrew's and Quebec Railroad Company; and the inhabitants of that town, it appears, were the first to propose a railway from the Atlantic to Canada through New Brunswick. In 1836, the Government granted £10,000 towards the accomplishment of the object, and that sum was expended in exploring a proper route. The Company obtained an act of incorporation, and proposed a capital of £750,000: the distance is 270 miles, chiefly through a dense wilderness, until it approaches the Grand Falls on the St. John. The line explored extends in nearly a straight line from St. Andrew's to the Parish of Woodstock; thence to the valley of the Aroostook, in the District of the Upper St. John, which it crosses, and then proceeds to the St. Lawrence near Quebec. This route is practicable; but the giving away of a part of the territory of New Brunswick to the Americans in the settlement of the Boundary dispute has materially changed the features of the undertaking, and would now increase the engineering difficulties of a line run on British ground. The unsettled state of the American claim, and difficulty of obtaining the requisite capital, prevented it from being constructed at the time, and the railway now proposed between Halifax and Quebec will no doubt check its farther advancement, unless it be deemed expedient to make this a branch of the great line intended to intersect the Lower Provinces.

Next in importance in the County of Charlotte is St. Stephen's, sixteen miles from St. Andrew's, and at the head of ship navigation. This thriving little town has one Episcopal Church, two Meeting-houses, a Bank, Whale-fishing Company, and other public institutions. Between it and St. Andrew's, the river throws out a beautiful sheet of water called Oak Bay, around which the scenery is very bold and interesting. The waters of the united Cheputnecticook and Schoodic Rivers, with their extensive tributaries and lakes in the interior, make their final descent over a fall into the sea at St. Stephen's. Here, and also at Milltown, two miles above, advantage is taken of the rapid current, and saw-mills are kept in constant operation, being supplied with timber floated down the lakes and rivers by the freshets of spring. A rail-

way on the American and a sluice on the British side of the stream convey the lumber from the mills to the basin below, where it is shipped. The quantity of boards, deals, and other lumber thus produced has given rise to a brisk trade with Europe and the West Indies, and rendered the upper town a place of active business. A large village called Milltown has also sprung up from lumbering industry, and is rapidly assuming the features of a flourishing town. Of late, agriculture has engaged the attention of many of the inhabitants, and the country around exhibits the extension and improvement of husbandry.

Directly opposite St. Stephen's is situated the town of Calais, on the American side. A bridge has been thrown across the river, and a friendly intercourse exists between the inhabitants of the opposite borders of the national boundary. During the last war, when a collision between those whose dwellings are within gunshot of each other would have produced the most unhappy consequences, it was mutually agreed upon by the subjects of both countries along this inhabited part of the line, that no attack should be made on either side, and the authorities effectually restrained the violence that sometimes springs from rash and intemperate men.

From Calais there are stages running to different places in the State of Maine; and if there is a single character that would distinguish the American from the British border, it is the greater number of houses of worship and denominations professing Christianity on the side of the former. The population of the Parish of St. Stephen's in 1840 was 3,405; it will soon exceed 4,000.

A tract of elevated and broken land extends from the County of St. John in a south-west direction to the American boundary. Within its range are the Mountains of the Nerepis, and the high lands of the Digdeguash and Magaguadavic, with the eminences that skirt the shore and stretch away into the interior. This range crosses the County of Charlotte, having Chamcook Mountain a little advanced towards the seaboard. The parishes already described, and those of St. James, St. David, and St. Patrick, at their northern extremities, are therefore broken and stony; and, from the nature of the rocks, they partake of the character of mountainous districts. On their southern margins, where they approach the river, the slopes and valleys are cultivated,

and yield good crops. In such situations, there is often a subsoil of clay, and excellent grass lands. Different kinds of grain thrive well; but the dense fogs that envelop the coast during the warm season are unfavourable for the ripening of wheat, which at places a little more remote from the sea yields a substantial harvest.

The Parish of St. Patrick is traversed by the lower part of the Digdeguash River, opening into Chamcook Harbour. The stream at certain seasons of the year affords passage for logs and squared timber, and is occupied by saw-mills. The chief part of the soil is dry and stony.

St. George's Parish is intersected by the Magaguadavic, also emptying into Chamcook Bay. At its mouth there is a very beautiful harbour, and the river is navigable for boats and rafts of timber to the Lower Falls, a distance of ten miles. At the termination of the navigable part of the stream, the river falls, by five successive steps, one hundred feet, and through a chasm averaging only thirty feet wide. The sides of the narrow gorge are occupied by six saw-mills of great power, which cling to the rocks like eagles' nests; and the lumber manufactured by them is carried along sluices into a small, deep basin below, where the water is in constant revolution. Above the Falls, the river passes through a level wide plain of intervalle; and, after pursuing a very tortuous course, it reaches Loon Lake, and communicates with the Shogamock, a small tributary of the St. John. From the river, its lakes, and a branch called the Piskehagan, there has been an abundant supply of logs, and the exports of lumber from the harbour are still very considerable. The little town of St. George, situated at and above the Falls, is a neat village with a number of good buildings: the main road from St. John to St. Andrew's passes through it. Lake Eutopia, surrounded by hills, separates it from the intervalle above mentioned. The village, the cataract, the lake, and the elevated wilderness to the north, render this part of the country peculiarly picturesque: indeed, the neighbourhood of St. George, the Digdeguash, Chamcook, and the lower St. Croix, present the traveller with some of the finest scenery in America. Forty miles up the Magaguadavic, the wilderness country is still more elevated. In the chain of high lands in this quarter, Mount Pleasant is the most conspicuous among the numerous hills of the district.

The above parish has an excellent harbour, called L'Etang, which is separated from the mouth of the Magaguadavic by a narrow peninsula projecting into the bay. At this place and on the neighbouring islands there are extensive quarries of limestone. Beaver Harbour, ten miles farther eastward, also affords safe anchorage for small vessels. In regard to soil and scenery, the parish of Pennfield is similar to St. Patrick's. It fronts the sea at Mace's Bay, a shallow estuary; and the principal river, the Poclogan, is an inferior stream. The County of Charlotte communicates with St. John by the main road leading from the latter to St. Andrew's and St. Stephen's, and in the summer season by steam along the coast. Another great road has been opened between St. Andrew's and Fredericton. Those works and the bridges across the rivers have been made by the Province at great expense, and require annual grants to keep them in repair. Every settlement has its road; but many of them are hilly and bad: they are too numerous to be kept in good repair by a scattered population.

Almost the whole of the northern part of the County of Charlotte remains in a wilderness state. It is true that advances upon the forest are made yearly; but much time must elapse before the descendants of the present inhabitants will be sufficiently numerous to clear and occupy the whole area of the district. Although the interior is broken by mountains and hills, there are good tracts of land, with fertile intervals along the courses of the streams. Many such tracts still remain ungranted, and might be cheaply obtained by emigrants. The industry of the mainland parishes is divided between agriculture, lumbering, and fishing. The former of those pursuits is most safe and certain in its reward.

The remaining parishes include the British islands on the coast. The whole of Passamaquoddy Bay is studded with islands, which are said to be 365 in number. Many of these islands are merely rude masses of rock, or small eminences covered with moss and stunted spruce. The larger ones have a soil of medium quality, and produce excellent potatoes, barley, and oats. During the summer or fishing season, the bay presents an interesting spectacle. Boats and vessels becalmed are swept away by the rapid tide. At one instant they are hidden by some blackened rock, at another they are seen gliding from behind the green

foliage of some little island. Sometimes hundreds of boats are huddled together, their crews being actively engaged in drawing forth the finny inhabitants of the deep. As soon as the shoal of fish retreats, or the tide is unfavourable, they disperse, and the surface of the water is decorated with their white and red sails. The Indian, in his frail bark canoe, without a rope or anchor, is also there, and the report of his gun, discharged at the rising porpoise, is re-echoed among the cliffs of the shore. Flights of gulls hang over the glassy surface of the water, which is here and there broken by a shoal of herring, or the spouting grampus in search of his prey.

Grand Manan, one of the parishes of the County of Charlotte, is an island situated twelve miles south from the main land of the American State of Maine, in latitude $44^{\circ} 46'$ North, and longitude $66^{\circ} 49'$ West. It is twenty-five miles long, and, upon an average, five miles in breadth. Its north side presents a bold front of perpendicular precipices, from two to four hundred feet in height. The opposite side slopes gradually down to the sea, and is occupied by small villages, farms, and fishing establishments. The higher part of the island is not inhabited, but affords excellent timber for ship-building and other purposes. Along the south side of the main island, there are a number of small islands, sometimes connected with each other by reefs of rocks or bars of sand that are covered by the sea at high-water. The open spaces between the islands afford safe harbours for vessels. The soil in general, although scanty, is fertile, and produces good crops of grain and potatoes. The shortness of the season is compensated by the quickness of vegetation. Wheat ripens in the month of August. On the island there are a church, two meeting-houses, a lighthouse, besides several small mercantile establishments. There are 3,000 acres of cleared land, and a population of upwards of 1,200 souls.

Fishing is the principal employment of the inhabitants, and Grand Manan is a most valuable island for that branch of industry. Nevertheless, the business is not pursued with much spirit, and ten times the present number of English vessels and fishermen might be advantageously employed.

From the abundance of fish, the Americans frequent the island and its fishing-grounds in great numbers. Their vessels are amply fitted

out, and the superior skill and energy of their crews give them a great advantage over the British inhabitants, upon whose rights they encroach with impunity. This subject will be treated of more at large in the chapter on the Fisheries.

Campo Bello, another island parish, is separated from the American town of Lubec by a narrow passage. It is about eight miles long, and upon an average not more than two miles wide. It has two fine harbours—Harbour De Lute and Welchpool. At the latter place there is a pretty village. The island is owned by Capt. Owen, R. N., and contains about 800 inhabitants, who are tenants to the proprietor. There are good herring-fisheries upon the shores. Cod, pollock, had-dock, and other kinds of fish are taken, and often carried over the Line and sold to the Americans in an uncured state. The great facilities for smuggling along this part of the American line are not overlooked by the inhabitants.

A third parish comprises the remainder of the inhabited islands, and is called West Isles. Deer Island is twelve miles long and three miles in breadth, and partially cultivated. Indian Island has a good fishing establishment. Jouet's Island, the residence of a Collector of Her Majesty's Customs, contains only four acres. The Wolves are six small islands, situated about ten miles from the coast; one of them is occupied by a single family, and the group is well known for having been the scene of many shipwrecks. The White Horse is a lofty mass of trap rock; and the White, Green, Spruce, Cherry, and Casco Bay Islands are small eminences of little importance. A number of vessels are owned at the inhabited places above mentioned, and employed in deep-sea fishing; and upwards of eight hundred persons are engaged in the catch along the shores. But, with all the apparent industry of the scattered population, there is evidently a defect in their system of employment, and the fisheries of the bay and islands contribute far less to the commerce of the Province than might be expected from such valuable resources. Lighthouses have been erected on the principal headlands of the coast and islands, but their lights are less brilliant than those along the American shores.

County of Westmoreland.

This extensive county is bounded on the south by Chignecto Bay and Cumberland Basin, and joins Nova Scotia on the south-east by a narrow peninsula. It extends along the shore of Northumberland Straits to the north-east. Northward it meets Kent, and westward King's and Queen's Counties. It contains eleven parishes, the boundaries of which have not been properly defined. The present population is not less than 19,000. There are 100,000 acres of cleared land, including 7,590 acres of diked marsh. The county contains 1,312,000 acres. A new county has lately been set off from Westmoreland, called Albert; but as its boundaries are not yet settled, I have included its description in that of the ancient district. The general features of Westmoreland are very different from those of the Counties of St. John or Charlotte. Excepting the eminence called Shepody Mountain, it is not elevated; the surface being varied by swelling oval ridges, gentle slopes, and wide shallow valleys. The lands of the eastern parishes are low and level. There are a few small lakes, and occasionally peat bogs and swamps; beyond these and a few small tracts of sandy ground, the entire surface is capable of being rendered fertile, and the chief part of the whole district is covered by a rich and productive soil, to which are added large tracts of marsh that have been rescued from the sea by embankments. The south side of the county is deeply indented by Shepody Bay and Cumberland Basin; the former receives the Peticodiac, which waters almost the whole of the western parishes. That river is navigable for vessels of a hundred tons burden thirty-three miles, and the tide flows inland thirty-six miles. Twenty-six miles from its mouth, it makes a sudden turn at a right angle called the Bend,* where the tide flows in and ebbs off in six hours. The flood-tide makes its first ingress in a tidal wave, or bore, which, at high tides, is sometimes six feet in elevation. Timber and deals are exported from the Peticodiac, and large ships are built near the Bend for the English market. The river also affords a good shad-fishery. The Tantarre and Aulac are smaller streams, whose estuaries have been filled up by alluvial matter now forming the great marshes of that part of the country.

* Named by the French, Petit Coude (Little Elbow), whence is derived Peticodiac, frequently called by the inhabitants Pettycoatjack.

The Parish of Dorchester, the shire town, is stretched along the east side of the Peticodiac, between the Bend and Sackville. It is thickly populated on the banks of the rivers and borders of the marshes. A large village, with an Episcopal Church, Court-house, and several handsome private buildings, stands on the side of a hill sloping towards the mouth of the Memramcook, where there is an excellent harbour with a Custom-house. The public business of the county is transacted at the above village. The exports from the harbour are very limited. Both banks of the Memramcook were originally settled by French Acadians, whose descendants still enjoy the possessions of their forefathers. On the west side of the stream they have a large chapel, and the place is the resort of a few families of Micmac Indians, who receive instruction and aid from the resident Roman Catholic Missionary. The east side of the Peticodiac, to the distance of twelve miles above its entrance, is also occupied by these people; and a pretty village has received its name in commemoration of Monsieur Belleveaux, who lived to the advanced age of one hundred and ten years. The parish contains valuable quarries of gypsum, freestone, grindstone, and strata of coal; and its fine alluvial marshes and strong uplands are favourable for the pursuits of husbandry.

The Parish of Sackville is situated between Dorchester and the Parish of Westmoreland, and borders upon Cumberland Basin. Its southern part was first settled by the French. After they were driven from their possessions here, and other parts of Acadia, their lands were immediately occupied by the British, and they are now densely populated. The great Tantamarre Marsh is situated on both sides of a river of that name, and is one of the largest collections of fertile sea alluvium in British America, being twelve miles in length and four miles wide. Its appearance in autumn, when dotted over with haystacks, is very novel to the European visitor. The overflowing of the sea is prevented by dikes thrown up on the margin of the rivers and across the creeks.*

* The creeks are filled with alternate layers of brushwood and marsh mud, secured by piles. Through the lower part of the construction there is a sluice, with a swinging gate or valve on the side next the sea, and which is closed by the tide at its influx, and opened by the fresh water above after the tide has retreated. The work is called an *aboiteau*.

This kind of land, when properly drained and brought under the influence of tillage, produces excellent crops of wheat, oats, and grass, but not potatoes: clover grows upon it luxuriantly; yet from the great quantity of marsh owned by the upland proprietors, extensive lots remain in an unimproved state. The whole area is capable of producing, under proper culture, five times the quantity of wheat or hay it now yields. The uplands along the border of the marsh are chiefly under cultivation; they produce wheat, rye, oats, barley, Indian corn, and potatoes, in great abundance. From the great supply of grass and hay, the inhabitants raise many cattle; their dairies also supply excellent butter for the Halifax and St. John markets. At the head of the marsh there is a tract of peat bog, floating bog, and small lakes, eight miles long and two miles wide. The farms are laid out in ranges running parallel to the marsh, and the whole face of the country presents a succession of flourishing villages, and a wide scene of agricultural industry, adorned by the natural beauties of the place. In the richest part of the district, the Methodist denomination have erected a large academy, which, by the liberal donations of its supporters, is kept in useful operation. The mercantile establishments at Sackville of Messrs. Crane and Allisons, and others, also add to its importance. At Cape Meranguin there are valuable quarries of freestone and grindstones; the latter are shipped to the United States. New settlements are succeeding each other in the more remote parts of the parish; although wild lands may still be purchased at a low rate, or from five shillings to ten shillings per acre.

The Parish of Westmoreland extends from the boundary between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, in the form of a triangle, and across the peninsula. It is less important and populous than either of the two parishes above described; still it embraces much fertile land, and is varied to meet the purposes of the farmer. The Aulac, a small stream, is also skirted by marsh. A swelling ridge of land, called Point de Bute, separates that river from the Missequash, forming the boundary line between the Provinces. Fort Beau-Sejour, now called Fort Cumberland, was erected on the south-western termination of the ridge, where it commands the entrance of both streams. On it stand a church and chapel, surrounded by fine farms and rich marshes. A certain locality

is called Bloody Ridge, from a sanguinary conflict that took place between a few loyalists and a party of rebels during the Revolutionary war. The little fortress that was deemed so important in the early history of the Province, and which was taken by Colonel Moncton in 1755, is still preserved by the Government; while Fort Moncton on the opposite side of the latter river, its ancient rival, has been permitted to crumble into decay. It has long been proposed to open a canal across the peninsula in the direction of one of those rivers, from the head of Cumberland Basin to Bay Verte, uniting thereby the Bay of Fundy and the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and several surveys have been made of different routes; but none of them have proved satisfactory, and the contemplated introduction of railways into the Provinces will, no doubt, draw away the attention of the people from that object.

Bay Verte, on the Gulf side of the Province, is a narrow and shallow estuary, especially at its inner extremity.

The Gaspereau and Tignish, two small rivers emptying themselves into the Bay, are frequently dry in the summer season. Those streams have singular terraces thrown up along their borders by the pressure of the ice during the floods of spring. Near the mouth of the former river are still seen the remains of the fort built by M. La Corne, who was sent from Quebec with six hundred French soldiers to aid the Indians in their attack upon the British settlements. The Bay terminates in a tract of marsh, and a large settlement with fine farms is spread around the head of the estuary. There are also two mercantile establishments which conduct the trade of the place. Between Bay Verte and Sackville there is a good road passing through the fine village of Joli Cœur; the northern part of the parish is thinly settled, and the roads are bad. Both wilderness and cleared lands may be purchased at low prices. Fish are plenty along the shores.

Botsford Parish occupies the extreme north-eastern point of the Province, called Cape Tormentine, which approaches Prince Edward's Island within a distance of twelve miles. Near the Cape there is a large settlement, and scattered villages occupy the road that runs along the coast. Great and Little Shemogne, and Tedish, and Aboushagan Rivers, are small streams emptying themselves into Northumberland Straits. At their mouths there are extensive settlements of Acadian

French—a quiet and industrious people. Their farms are small, yet they are well cultivated; and all their close villages, including the spacious chapel and comfortable residences of the French clergy, have an air of plain neatness. Agricultural and occasional fishing are the chief pursuits of these contented people. The interior of the parish is unsettled, except along the roads, which are bad. The surface is watered by numerous small streams, and the soil, that bears spruce, hemlock, and different kinds of maple and birch, is susceptible of cultivation; many tracts are of an excellent quality.

Shediac, another parish on the Gulf shore, is more populous than Botsford, although it has less cleared land. It reaches from the harbour of that name to the Bend of Peticodiac, and touches the County of Kent to the north. The rivers are but small streams; the land, low and level. It is interspersed with small bogs, swamps, and sterile sands; yet there are some rich loamy tracts highly productive under ordinary culture. Some pine still remains unfelled; but spruce is obtained in large supplies, and manufactured in saw-mills, of which there are fifteen in operation.

The Harbour of Shediac is very safe and convenient; but ships of large size must enter it at full sea, on account of the shallowness of the water. The tide rises four feet, and is much influenced by winds in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Near the entrance of the spacious basin there are two beautiful islands. On the smallest of these are seen the remains of a fortification and breastwork thrown up by the French immediately after the capture of Quebec by General Wolfe in 1759. The west side of the harbour is occupied by a series of thickly-populated villages, the largest of which may be called the town. In one of the settlements there are upwards of two hundred families of Acadians, and the largest Roman Catholic Chapel in the Province. The English inhabitants occupy the front of the harbour, where there is an Episcopal Church, Meeting-house, two inns, stores, and a number of good private buildings. The trade of the place is limited, and the fisheries along the coast make but a small return in proportion to their value. Oysters, of excellent quality, are abundant, and form an article of export to Canada and Nova Scotia. From the advantages enjoyed by the inhabitants, and their frugality, the place is in a thriving condition; and

although it partakes of the tameness of flat and level districts, the scenery is very pleasing. Agriculture is pursued with some diligence, and the employment of sea manure with calcined oyster-shells is highly advantageous to lands naturally stubborn and meagre. Wild land may be obtained from three to six shillings per acre. A line for the before-mentioned canal has been proposed to run between the Bend of the Peticodiac and Shediac, and the character of the country is favourable for the undertaking.

The next two parishes, Moncton and Salisbury, are situated northward of the Peticodiac, above the Bend. A ridge of rather high land extends through them from the south-west. They are intersected by the Cocagne River, emptying itself into a harbour of the same name in the County of Kent. They have several fine new settlements, and the former contains 2,000 acres of diked marsh. At the Bend there is a small town, and the shipment of timber to Great Britain, with ship-building, renders it a place of some importance. Some of the farms along the side of the river are well cultivated, and the main post-road to St. John affords facilities of communication with that place and the western districts of the Province.* In the above parishes there are large tracts of unoccupied lands, and sufficient space for 1,500 settlers.

Hillsborough is situated on the west and south side of the Peticodiac, and drained by Coverdale River, Turtle and Weldone Creeks. At the mouths of those streams there are large tracts of marsh, and towards their sources they pass through fine intervalles. A belt of marsh also skirts the main river. This parish contains some land of a superior quality, and the wilderness districts at the sources of the creeks and on the border of Hopewell are admirably adapted for settlement. They are most frequently covered with a heavy growth of hard wood, in which is the maple, affording domestic sugar. Limestone and gypsum are inexhaustible, grindstones are cut near the mouth of the river, and coal appears at several localities. A succession of settlements have been opened along the border of the Peticodiac, and, from the fertile character of the soil, the parish is rapidly improving. The same

* Stage-coaches run between Dorchester and St. John, passing the Bend, going and returning on alternate days.

remark will apply to Coverdale. In Harvey the lands are more gravelly and stony.

Of late this wilderness part of the country has been brought into notice on account of its excellent lands, and new villages are beginning to be extended into the deep recesses of the forest. The Legislature has endeavoured to remedy to some extent the great inconvenience of the settler—the lack of roads; yet many years will elapse before all the good lands in this quarter will be taken up, unless they are sought for by immigrants, many of whom have preferred heretofore to wander through the United States, rather than make a resting-place upon the best lands of New Brunswick.

The remaining parish of the county is Hopewell, which reaches along the shore of Chignecto Bay until it meets the County of St. John at Salisbury Cove. Its largest and most populous settlements are at Shepody. The broad marsh on the sides of a river of that name contains 5,000 acres, and a rapidly-increasing population are clearing higher up the slopes, the bases of which belong to the older inhabitants and their senior descendants. North of the largest village is an elevation called Shepody Mountain, the termination of a ridge of high ground extending along the boundary of St. John from the south-west. Sheltered from the north winds by an elevated tract in the rear, and possessing a rich soil, this extensive settlement, with its marshes and new clearings, presents a wide rural plain not surpassed in beauty by any district in America. The Shepody River terminates in a pretty lake. An opening has been made between the lake and the sea, in order to allow the tide to flow in and cover a large boggy tract with alluvium. New Horton, situated to the west of Grindstone Point and Island, is also a fine settlement. No parish in the Province is in a more flourishing condition than Hopewell, and none offers scenery more interesting to the visitor. The exports from the district consist of grindstones and flagstones, sent to Boston and New York; and butter, cheese, beef, pork, and agricultural produce, to the market at St. John. Cape Enrage, at the southern extremity of the parish, is a bold promontory with a lighthouse on its summit.

There still remain in the county large tracts of ungranted land. The best of them are situated at the heads of Pollet and Coverdale Rivers,

Turtle Creek,* and the sources of the Washadamoak. The soil at those places, in general, is a sandy loam. The high and low intervalles are alluvial. There are also fertile wild tracts in the eastern parishes. The marshes are capable of great improvement. At some situations, after they are diked and drained, they settle, until they become lower than the banks of the rivers where the alluvium is constantly collecting. From those causes, the inner margin of the marsh is overflowed by fresh water during a part of the season, and is thereby rendered unproductive. The best remedy for such an effect is to allow the muddy tides to flow in again over the low lands, whereby they will be elevated through the falling down of alluvial matter contained in the salt water. This plan of renovating diked marsh has been pursued at Sackville with success. Within a few past years, it has been discovered that sea alluvium, or marsh mud, is an excellent manure for dry sandy lands: its application to such lands has become very general in Nova Scotia, where it produces fine crops of wheat, potatoes, and grass. Limestone and gypsum may be quarried in the western parishes; but they have not been employed generally as manures, and improvements in agriculture are but slowly introduced.

The great number of streams that penetrate the whole district not only water its surface, but afford great facilities for manufacturing objects. The present number of grist-mills in the county is 56; saw-mills, 190; coal, limestone, gypsum, freestone, grindstone, with manganese and other minerals, have been discovered. With all those resources, the County of Westmoreland possesses the elements of industry capable of sustaining twenty times its present population, and whether considered in reference to its agricultural advantages, manufacture, or fisheries, it is an important and valuable district.

* In 1843, large tracts of these lands were surveyed into lots of 100 acres each, and a credit on 50 acres was offered to every actual settler, the price of the land being 3s. 3d. currency per acre. From a depressed state of business at St. John, upwards of 100 mechanics and the same number of common labourers started for the woods, and commenced clearings: but an increased demand for their labour in the city afterwards induced a number of them to return to their former avocations, and the benevolence of the Government has not obtained its object.

King's County,

Situated northward of St. John, joins Westmoreland on the north-east, Queen's on the north-west, and Charlotte on the south-west. It contains 849,920 square acres, of which upwards of 70,000 acres are cleared. The population in 1840 was 14,464; at the present time it will exceed 15,000. It contains nine parishes,—Kingston, Sussex, Hampton, Norton, Westfield, Springfield, Greenwich, Studholm, and Upham. The lines of the parishes have not been surveyed. A part of the county lies on the west side of the River St. John, which at short periods in every year cannot be crossed in safety. Its shape and division into parishes are very inconvenient for the inhabitants. A chain of high lands extends from the south-west through the entire length of the county, giving it a mountainous aspect; and almost the whole area of the district is interspersed by hills, steep declivities, and narrow ravines walled in by cliffs. There are, notwithstanding, level valleys between the mountains and hills, affording space for easy cultivation. The soil in such situations is excellent. It is also good on the acclivities; and even the tops of the highest hills, except where they are occupied by rocks, afford rich pastures. The broken and uneven surface, channelled out in valleys, or indented by the arms of the river, affords a great variety of bold and imposing scenery, and gives a wildness to its features not to be seen in the eastern districts.

About two miles above the Falls, the St. John throws out a beautiful navigable sheet of water called the Kenebecasis,* eighteen miles long, with a medium breadth of two miles. A river of the same name meets the Peticodiac, and having descended westward through a beautiful cultivated valley, its divided mouth surrounds Darling's Island and opens into the bay. Hammond River, another stream, comes in from the south-east, and waters a tract in that quarter. The Kenebecasis River is divided into four small branches,—the Mill-stream, Smith's Creek, Salmon River, and Trout Creek: all those streams afford facilities for the transportation of timber, and sites for flour and saw mills. There are several shipbuilding establishments on the border of the

* Little Kenebec, in the Melicete Indian dialect.

bay, whence timber, deals, and agricultural produce are transported in large boats to Indian Town and St. John.

Belle Isle, another lake-like branch of the St. John, communicates with the main river twenty-eight miles above the city. It extends to the north-east, and receives small streams from Kingston and Springfield. The valley of the Kenebecasis is bounded in Sussex by Piccadilla and Pisgah, two eminences that are elevated each 400 feet above the ordinary level of the district. Bull Moose Hill, in the parish of Springfield, is nearly 600 feet high, and contains a rich deposit of iron ore. A large valley extends from the head of Belle Isle Bay, in a north-easterly direction, to the source of the Washadamoak. It will average from two to four miles in breadth, and is upwards of fifty miles in length.

On the west side of the St. John, in this county, another stream, called the Nerepis, descends from the north-west, and, to the distance of twelve miles, passes through a belt of intervale and marsh. A large tract of this land was owned by the late General Coffin, and is known as a part of Coffin's Manor. On each side of that stream, the mountains rise to greater elevation. Douglas Mountain, the Eagle Cliffs, and other hills of the rocky alpine range, add great sublimity to the scenery of the Nerepis. There are also many small lakes scattered over the surface, and frequently situated far above the level of the rivers. One of the most remarkable of these is the *Pickwaakeet*, a few miles eastward of Kingston. Its character is that of an extinct crater, and the adjoining rocks are of volcanic origin.

Kingston, the shire town, is a romantic and very pretty village, situated among the hills, and on a branch of the Belle Isle Bay. It has a Church. The Court-house and Gaol are built of granite. The land in its vicinity is much broken. The soil is nevertheless good, and the district well improved. Near the village is a cloth manufactory, which reflects credit upon its proprietor. The parish comprises the peninsula between the Kenebecasis and Belle Isle Bays. A road encircles this point of land. The shores are settled; and many fine farms have been cleared, and are now cultivated, in the interior of the parish. There is an extensive settlement at Milkish Creek, and others opposite Gondola Point, also eastward of Kingston village.

Sussex, the most populous parish of the county, was first settled by

the American Loyalists, and contains not less than 2,500 inhabitants. It is situated on both sides of the Kenebecasis River, and occupies the chief part of the valley before mentioned, called Sussex Vale. This is one of the best agricultural districts in the Province. In ascending the river, the traveller readily perceives the narrow plat of alluvial soil along the course of the stream, which, like two rising grounds on each side, has been brought under cultivation. At the principal village of Sussex, the valley widens, and sends out branches to the north and south. The whole surface is closely settled. A wide tract, bounded by the forest-covered hills, is occupied by fertile fields and meadows, adorned by trees and country seats, that give an ancient appearance, and indicate a degree of ease and comfort not always seen in a new country. This village is intersected by the main road between Halifax and St. John. It contains a Post-office, two Churches, and other houses of worship. Two salt springs have been discovered; they supply about fifty gallons of water per minute. Every hundred gallons yields, by evaporation, a hundred bushels of very pure salt. A small salt manufactory has been established at the site; but, from the low price of foreign salt, it is not profitable, and the works have fallen into decay. Gypsum and limestone are abundant. Roads have been opened to the surrounding new settlements, and improvements are steadily advancing. Between Sussex Vale and the head of the Peticodiac River, there is a large tract of excellent land still remaining unsettled; and other parts of the parish offer many advantages to immigrants, or young men who are attached to husbandry. A single spring in this parish supplies sufficient water for a powerful flour-mill, and great masses of beautiful crystals of sulphate of lime are daily forming in a piece of low swampy ground.

Smith's Creek, a branch of the Kenebecasis, runs in a north-east direction from Sussex Vale, and meets the Anagance, a branch of the Peticodiac. It passes through a tract of fine intervale. Walled in on each side by high hills, after it diverges from the main stream, it winds its way through a narrow valley, having Mount Pisgah at its confluence with Salmon River. The soil in this quarter is very fertile. Occasionally small tracts of light sand occur, covered with

peat from four to ten feet in thickness. Near the source of the stream, there are two salt springs.

The Mill Stream, another branch of the above river, after extending through a notch in the hills northward of Sussex, proceeds along a broad trough until its branches are interwoven with those of the Washadamoak. This trough-like valley surpasses in size Sussex Vale, and extends from the head of Belle Isle Bay directly across the country to the parish of Salisbury, in Westmoreland, and falls away in the low, level land of the Gulf shore. Between the valley of the Kenebecasis and Belle Isle, there is a moderately elevated tract of land, called Butternut Ridge, running along the parish of Studholm. The soil on this ridge is also of a superior quality, and limestone is abundant. Wheat and other kinds of grain return excellent crops. The forest consists of beautiful groves of beech, birch, and sugar maple, intermixed with butternut trees. The lower grounds are occupied by cedar thickets, and along the upland hollows the elm and ash add to the beauty of the forests. The parish of Springfield possesses a soil equally productive; and, besides a series of fine farms spread along the borders of the bay and rivers, it has some thriving new settlements a little remote from the shores. Between the before-mentioned valley and the Washadamoak, there are several new settlements of English and Irish immigrants, who, having overcome the first obstacles of settling in a new country, are now gaining an honest independence.*

Except on the margins of the largest streams, the population is scattered here and there, according to individual fancy. Thousands of acres of the rich lands in this part of King's County are still ungranted, and scarcely known to any but the lumberman or the Indian hunter.

From the highest hill of Springfield, the eye may wander over the wild forests, which, in a north-east direction, are still unbroken. One

* A number of these immigrants landed in the Province from eight to fourteen years ago, without any means of subsistence. Parents carried their children upon their backs into the country, and lived in *shanties*, among the trees, upon the most humble fare. By their industry, they afterwards paid for their lots, cleared away the forest, made farms, and now drive their waggons to the market at St. John loaded with the surplus produce of their fields.

vast, rich, and variegated assemblage of forest-trees waves proudly over the earth, like wheat before the harvest. The valley of the Belle Isle, and Studville, with its scattered settlements and farms, shows where the industry of man is employed, and which, from year to year, is notching the dark and silent groves with cultivated fields and rich meadows.

The Parishes of Norton and Hampton are situated on the south-west side of the Kennebecasis Bay and River. Along the St. John and Halifax Road, and the sides of the rivers, they are well improved. At Hampton Ferry a bridge has been thrown across the river, and a pretty village, with an Episcopal Church, has sprung up within the space of a few years. A large settlement, with a Church, also appears near Gondola Point, opposite Kingston, where the whole shore is a succession of fine farms; and the beautiful islands at the head of the bay are either under the operations of the plough, or produce beneath their trees crops of wild hay—the natural produce of all the intervalles. Hammond River runs through a fine plat of alluvial soil, skirted with some good farms, and rushes through a narrow rocky gorge, a little way above its bridge, and the cultivated district at its mouth. Along the sides of the stream there are limestone, gypsum, and salt springs. Graphite, or plumbago, of a superior quality, has also been found in the rocks of the hills.

Westfield and Greenwich are on the west side of the St. John, and contain some of the settlements on the road leading from Carlton to Fredericton. Wherever clearings have been made, roads have been opened, and the cultivated districts are intersected by them in every direction. Salmon and trout are taken in all the rivers. Lumbering is not carried on very extensively in this county, agriculture being the chief employment of the inhabitants; and the encouragement afforded by the markets at St. John has brought a part of the soil into a tolerable state of cultivation. But the cleared land, compared with the whole area of the district, is very limited; and the wilderness tracts of the county offer to immigrants, or farmers of any capital, a wide and profitable field of labour.

Queen's County

Joins King's on the south-east, Northumberland on the north, Sunbury north-west, and Charlotte south-east. It lies on both sides of the St. John, being intersected by that noble stream across the whole of its south-eastern extremity. It contains 961,280 square acres of land, in nine parishes; namely, Gagetown, Canning, Wickham, Waterborough, Brunswick, Hampstead, Johnston, Petersville, and Chipman. Two important tributaries of the St. John, the Washadamoak and Salmon River, traverse the whole north-eastern part of the county. The former makes its *débouchement* forty miles above the City of St. John; the latter empties itself into the Grand Lake, whose outlet, the Gemsec, is about eight miles higher up. The lower part of the Washadamoak, from the stillness of its waters, may be called a lake, which is thirty-five miles long, with an average breadth of half-a-mile. The outlet is a narrow but deep channel, on the south side of the Musquash Island, a flat interval bearing lofty trees of maple, ash, and elm. It is navigable for large vessels to the above distance. In the spring and autumn, boats and rafts of timber descend the lake and river from a distance of sixty miles, or from the head of Cocagne River, which empties itself into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The front lots on both sides of the lake are chiefly taken up; but in the rear, the lands are still in a wilderness state, and many tracts remain ungranted. The Parish of Wickham in 1840 contained only 168 inhabited houses. On its western side, however, small settlements have been opened, and are now in a thriving state. A large tract of Crown land is not surveyed, nor even occupied by the squatter—the best pioneer in a new country. The soil is a red sandy loam, frequently reposing on clay, or a dark chocolate-coloured alluvium, very friable and fertile. The river, and some new roads recently opened, afford facilities of communication; yet these lands are unoccupied, merely because the population of the Province is too limited to cultivate even the richest ground, and too scanty to cultivate well what is already cleared of its native timber. Nearer the sources of the river, there is a flourishing settlement called New Canaan.* At that

* This is a favourite name for a village in the Provinces; but its frequent application has rendered it inconvenient, as the land of Canaan is now to be found in almost every part of the country.

place the stream is skirted by intervalle; and although the upland soil is light and sandy, it is by no means unproductive. The whole surface is low and level, excepting a few gentle undulations along the courses of the brooks and rivulets. At the head of the river, where it approaches the Cocagne, there are wide cariboo plains and peat bogs, surrounded by tracts bearing groves of pine and spruce. The above settlement was commenced upwards of forty years ago, and it is now a thriving village. Salmon and shad frequent the river at certain seasons—trout remain all the year. The eastern route from Fredericton to St. John is continued across the lake by a ferry nine miles from its outlet, and, after passing through an Irish village, it proceeds to Belle Isle Bay.

The next valuable channel of inland communication is the Grand Lake, with its supplying stream, Salmon River. This beautiful sheet of water is forty-five miles from St. John, and thirty miles from Fredericton. It is thirty miles long, and from three to nine miles broad, being separated from the main river by a collection of alluvium a mile wide, and communicating with the St. John by a narrow and deep channel, the Gemsec, which, by running obliquely to the river, is nearly four miles in length. It is also connected with French and Maquapit Lakes by similar channels, opened through the alluvium forming the intervalles. All these lakes and channels are navigable. The Gemsec and its fort were objects of much interest in the early history of the country, the latter having been an arsenal for the French and Indians, and the theatre of several desperate conflicts.

The Salmon River extends from the northern extremity of the Grand Lake, in a south-east direction, to the sources of the Richibucto. It is navigable at its mouth for vessels of considerable size, and for canoes and timber rafts to its sources, extending through a level tract of wilderness land. Only a few clearings have been made at its lower part, notwithstanding the stream is much frequented by lumbermen. Coal mines have been worked at its mouth, by a Company formed at St. John for the purpose; but they are not very profitable at the present time. A mine is also open at the mouth of Newcastle River, and supplies Fredericton and Gagetown with coal. The Ocnabog is a small lake on the west side of the St. John, and opens into the river at Long

Island. With such advantages of water transit, the county is destined to increase in value, and to supply from its fertile uplands and intervalles great quantities of agricultural produce, and from its forests timber for exportation.

Gagetown is very pleasantly situated on the south bank of a creek, nearly opposite the mouth of the Gemsec, and is the shire town of the county. It contains an Episcopal Church, Grammar-school, Court-house, and Gaol, with a number of handsome buildings and country seats. Passengers from the river steamers are landed in boats. From the town, roads diverge across the country to Fredericton, Oromucto, Nerepis, and other places; and it is a shipping place for the produce of the district. The banks of the St. John are here pretty thickly populated, and in the rear there are a number of thriving villages. But, notwithstanding clearings are made annually, and patches are cultivated on the road-sides, there are large tracts of unoccupied land, being between Gagetown and the Oromucto, and Gagetown and the Nerepis, or main post-road leading from St. John to Fredericton. Parts of those tracts have been surveyed by the Government into lots of 100 acres each; and, from their proximity to Gagetown, Oromucto, and St. John, they are advantageously situated for settlement. The soil in general is a brown or yellow loam, mixed with sand or gravel, and frequently covered with vegetable mould: beds of sand and gravel sometimes occur. The forests are not dense, nor altogether uninterrupted by plats of intervalle, and small open meadows bearing wild grass. The timber, for the greater part, is pine and spruce; yet there are strips bearing sugar maple, birch, elm, ash, and a few oaks. The Nerepis Road is settled along a considerable part of its line, and has a Roman Catholic Chapel and two Meeting-houses. Near the Oromucto, it passes through a pine forest that has been destroyed by fire. Tracts have also been surveyed southward of the Nerepis Road, and a few of the lots are occupied by Irish immigrants. Towards the Nerepis Mountains and Ocnabog, the lands are more broken and stony. At Coot Hill, eighteen miles from Gagetown, there is a flourishing settlement; and, a little farther east, a village called New Jerusalem. The hill contains a thick deposit of iron ore. A few families clustered together will be found on different parts of the unsettled districts. Shirley

and Gordon are fine clearings ; but they bear a diminutive proportion to the extent of the wilderness lands around them. The surveys made of Crown tracts will no doubt promote the occupation of good lands, which may be purchased from the Government for 3s. 3d. per acre currency. The increase of the present scanty population is altogether inadequate to general improvement ; and, unless by the introduction of immigrants, the district will long remain without having its resources improved. With this view of the western part of Queen's County, efforts have been made by the Provisional Government and individuals to extend agriculture beyond its present bounds ; but the lack of a proper class of settlers has retarded their operations, and the advances of husbandry against the wilderness are slow in their progress.

Between Gagetown and the head of the Long Reach, the sides of the St. John are pretty thickly settled and well cultivated. The river runs smoothly along, and encircles Long Musquash and other fine islands of alluvium, the most elevated of which are under cultivation, and produce admirable crops, although they are not planted until after the subsidence of the spring freshets. At the upper part of that straight and narrow portion of the river called the Long Reach, and near the line between King's and Queen's Counties, valuable quarries of granite were discovered during the geological survey of the Province ; and roofing-slate may be obtained at situations a little remote from the shore.

The scenery of this part of the St. John during the summer is extremely interesting. Steamboats and small craft are seen gliding over the surface of the water, and seem to be sailing through groves of trees, and, in autumn, among the stacks of hay scattered over the intervale—which is made still more pleasing by the half-shadowed cottage and the spire of the village church. In winter, when the water is covered by a thick garment of ice, the route of the steamboat is taken up by sleighs and sleds of every description, and the river seems to be the scene of amusement.

The Parish of Waterborough extends along the east side of the Grand Lake, and has a road from the Gemsec to Cumberland Bay. At the outlet of the lake, there is a pretty village with a neat church. The chief part of the inhabitants, however, are scattered about the shore,

and in the neighbourhood of Coal Creek. The whole country northward is almost in a wilderness state, and the lands are ungranted: the forests are thick, but not altogether unbroken; opening rather at some places into tracts of wild meadow, or grounds relieved of underbrush. Canning embraces the lands of the opposite shore, which, at its lower part, is settled by a number of Scotch families, who are fast increasing in numbers and property. There is also a village, near the entrance of Newcastle River, where a stratum of coal has been worked for several past years. Although the soils are fertile, the northern extremity of the lake is but thinly settled, and the back lands are ungranted. The lake supplies salmon, shad, bass, and gaspereau, during the months of May and June. Upon its borders there are two Episcopal Churches and three Meeting-houses. Almost every stream is occupied by a saw-mill, and there are plenty of logs to keep them in operation. It has been proposed to run a line of railway between this inland water and Richibucto, or to convert the Salmon and Richibucto Rivers into a canal by the construction of locks: partial surveys have been made for those objects; but the contemplated railway between Halifax and Quebec will materially change the prospects of such an enterprise.

Maquapit Lake is about five miles in length, and two in breadth. During the floods of spring and autumn, it overflows; and French Lake, a mile farther west, with the Grand Lake, and all the intervalles that separate them from the St. John, in the drier months of summer are covered by water. The passages between those lakes are sufficiently deep to admit large boats and rafts of timber. The channel, called the thoroughfare, between Maquapit and French Lakes, is three miles long, and wends its way through a grove of large elm, birch, and maple trees. The white oak that formerly grew on the shores of these lakes has been cut down, and almost wantonly destroyed. The uplands are light and sandy, or in the low spruce ground the soil is too wet for general cultivation.

The Parish of Brunswick contains the few settlers at the north-eastern extremity of the county, whose number by the last census was only 220. Almost the entire surface of this parish is shaded by a trackless forest; and some parts of it have not been visited even by the lumbermen. At the sources of the streams there are patches of inter-

vale and large swamps: the higher grounds, so far as they have been examined, appear to be a mixture of alluvial clay, loam, and sometimes sand. The timber grows in alternate belts of the hard and soft woods: of the former, there is much yellow and white birch; the latter consists of pine, spruce, hemlock, larch, &c. The swamps abound in black and white ash and elm.

From the abundance of wood, the scattered inhabitants of the remote divisions of the county are principally engaged in felling and transporting squared timber and logs, for which the number and extent of the rivers and lakes afford great facilities. This kind of industry is always opposed to agriculture, which is much neglected in such districts. It is only along the main St. John, and upon its rich alluviums, that the husbandry of Queen's is pursued with much care and skill. If the capabilities of the soil in the newer settlements can be judged of under an imperfect system of clearing and tillage, it must be very productive, as it seldom fails to return a good crop when the seed is planted at the proper season. The fresh-water fisheries afford luxuries rather than objects of traffic; and although cariboo deer and other kinds of game are plentiful, the best farmers are neither fishermen nor hunters. The great tracts of intervale and other grass lands in the county fit it for the breeding of cattle and sheep, and some pains have been taken to improve the breed of those animals. It will appear from the foregoing descriptions, that the situation and physical resources of this part of the Province are highly favourable to agriculture, and other kinds of industry; but it is here as elsewhere—too much is expected to be performed by a scanty population, which, were it increased tenfold, would be more wealthy in proportion to number, and happier in regard to the institutions necessary for moral and mental improvement.

County of Sunbury.

Sunbury, the most limited county in the Province in regard to area, is situated between Queen's on the south-east, and York on the north-west, and, like them, crosses the St. John. Its parishes are Maugerville, Sheffield, Burton, Lincoln, and Blissville. It contains 782,080 square acres, of which about 12,800 acres are cleared. The population by the census of 1840 was 4,260. Maugerville is the oldest English set-

tlement on the St. John. In 1766, a number of families emigrated to that place from Massachusetts, and obtained a grant of the township from the British Government. Their number was afterwards increased by the addition of several families from New England and a few Loyalists. The Commission for holding a Court of Common Pleas is dated in 1770; but after the arrival of the Loyalists in 1783, the Supreme Court was removed to St. John, and finally to Fredericton, the present seat of Government.* Maugerville and Sheffield, on the north side of the river, contain a large tract of very rich intervale, and embrace a district of luxuriant fertility. In this county, the St. John washes Oromucto, Middle, Ox, Mauger's, and other Islands. Mauger's Island is three miles long; and its well-cultivated farms and neat cottages, shaded by forest-trees, afford some of the most delightful scenery of the river. The muddy banks near Ox and Oromucto Islands render the navigation of the stream somewhat intricate in the driest time of summer. Excepting only a few of the highest knolls, all these intervalles, and those of the outlets of Grand, Maquapit, and French Lakes, with the islands and river borders above and below, are overflowed by the spring freshets, and the whole valley of the St. John is overspread by the flood. In extraordinary risings of the river, trees, logs, rubbish, and sometimes stacks of hay and barns, are floated away. A boat or canoe is attached to every house; and to visit the cattle in their stalls, the pig in the sty, and even the wood-pile, a water excursion is necessary. Instances have frequently occurred when the inhabitants have been compelled to flee to the high lands in order to escape the threatening deluge; and families sometimes live in the upper stories of their dwellings until the water is withdrawn from the lower apartments. The wood employed for fences is collected in the autumn and secured to trees; but the inconvenience produced by these periodical inundations is abundantly compensated by the rich, muddy sediment, spread annually over the land, which, like the borders of the Nile, is periodically irrigated; and although the labours of the farmer are sometimes retarded by the presence of the water until June, yet so beneficial is the effect of the flood, that in a few weeks the whole surface is mantled

* Notitia of New Brunswick.

with exuberant vegetation. The islets that stud the river-bed are also enriched; and from the abundance of grass and hay thus produced by them, the land proprietors feed large stocks of cattle and sheep, which, like all their domestic animals, are well practised in the art of swimming.

At Maugerville there is an Episcopal Church and Baptist Chapel. The Church of the Seceders at Sheffield is the oldest house of worship in the Province: it was erected at the former place, and afterwards removed on the ice to its present site. The Methodists also have Chapels in these parishes.

French and Maquapit Lakes are separated from the St. John by a belt of intervale, through which there are openings that give passage to boats, and the produce of the country. At French River there is a settlement of thirty families, with a Church and Schoolhouse; and clearings are in progress at the mouths of the lesser streams. Gaspe-reau, or alewives, and bass, are abundant in these waters. Salmon are now rare; but trout of excellent flavour may be caught at any season of the year. The northern portions of these parishes are in a wilderness state—only a few small tracts have been granted. Much of the soil is good, and well covered with pine, spruce, and other kinds of timber.

The principal river or tributary of Sunbury is the Oromucto, which empties itself into the St. John twelve miles below Fredericton. At its mouth it is deep and sluggish, affording thereby an excellent site for shipbuilding. The stream takes its rise from two lakes in the County of York, being navigable for small vessels to a distance of twenty miles, and for canoes much farther. Being divided into several branches, it waters a large tract of country, and affords many facilities for the transportation of the natural productions of the wilderness. In other seasons, the before-mentioned kinds of fish are plentiful.

At the mouth of the Oromucto, there is a large village, which is one of the oldest permanent settlements in the country. The place was originally a resort of the Indians, whose graves, with the relics they contain, are sometimes exposed by the operations of the plough. Ships of heavy burthen are built at this place, and the erection of a bridge across the river, on the line of the main post-road between St. John

and Fredericton, with the consequent increase of traffic, has greatly added to its importance.

At the lower part of the river, there is a tract of low intervale not uncovered by the water until the middle of summer. It yields great quantities of wild grass, and supplies extensive grazing for cattle in times of drought.

The south branch, near its sources, passes through a broad expanse of high intervale. That this intervale was once the site of a lake, is satisfactorily proved by the strata of fluviatile shells found in the soil and underlying marly clay, which for their fertility are equal to any in America. In and bordering upon this beautiful spot, there are upwards of 160 farms, that seem like a little colony whose inhabitants have been taught the art of self-government, and who, if not disturbed by the petty political jarrings of the world beyond the forests around them, will long enjoy rural happiness and contentment. A rude path extends from this settlement between the Nerepis Mountains to the main post-road, and in its course passes a waterfall of one hundred feet. The rugged alpine cliffs are piled up on every side, and dark and deep gorges, overhung by leaning trees, render the pass one of exciting interest.

Between the south branch settlement and the Nerepis Road, there is a large tract of wild land, in part surveyed, and which might be conveniently intersected by a cross road, and thereby opened for settlement. A part of the woods has been destroyed by fire, and, from the gloomy appearance of the surface, it has been shunned by settlers: nevertheless, the soil, of medium quality, has been fairly tested at the Geary settlement. Between the south branch, through the Rushagonis and Maryland settlements, to Hartt's Mills, and thence to Fredericton, there is a good road, and agriculture is beginning to succeed the more precarious business of lumbering. From Hartt's Mills there is an obscure path through the wilderness to the Magaguadavic. The high mountainous ridge previously noticed is here very conspicuous. At its base there were formerly fine forests of pine; but these also have been destroyed by fire, and the lofty trees now stand leafless, decayed, and ready to fall to the ground. A light growth of birch and

elder is succeeding them. Thus the district has suffered irreparable loss, and much of its original beauty has faded away before the devouring element.

The south-west branch, with its pretty lake, has a fine settlement; but the remote parts of the southern parishes, like those of the north, are still shaded by the indigenous forest.

The fine farms that slope towards the principal streams, and the rich intervalles attached to them, are favourable for pastures; hence the produce of the dairy, with beef, mutton, and pork, are sent in considerable supplies to the market of St. John. A more extended notice of this country would be but to repeat observations already supplied for other places, and there is a sameness in the features of the district not to be improved by minute description.

County of York.

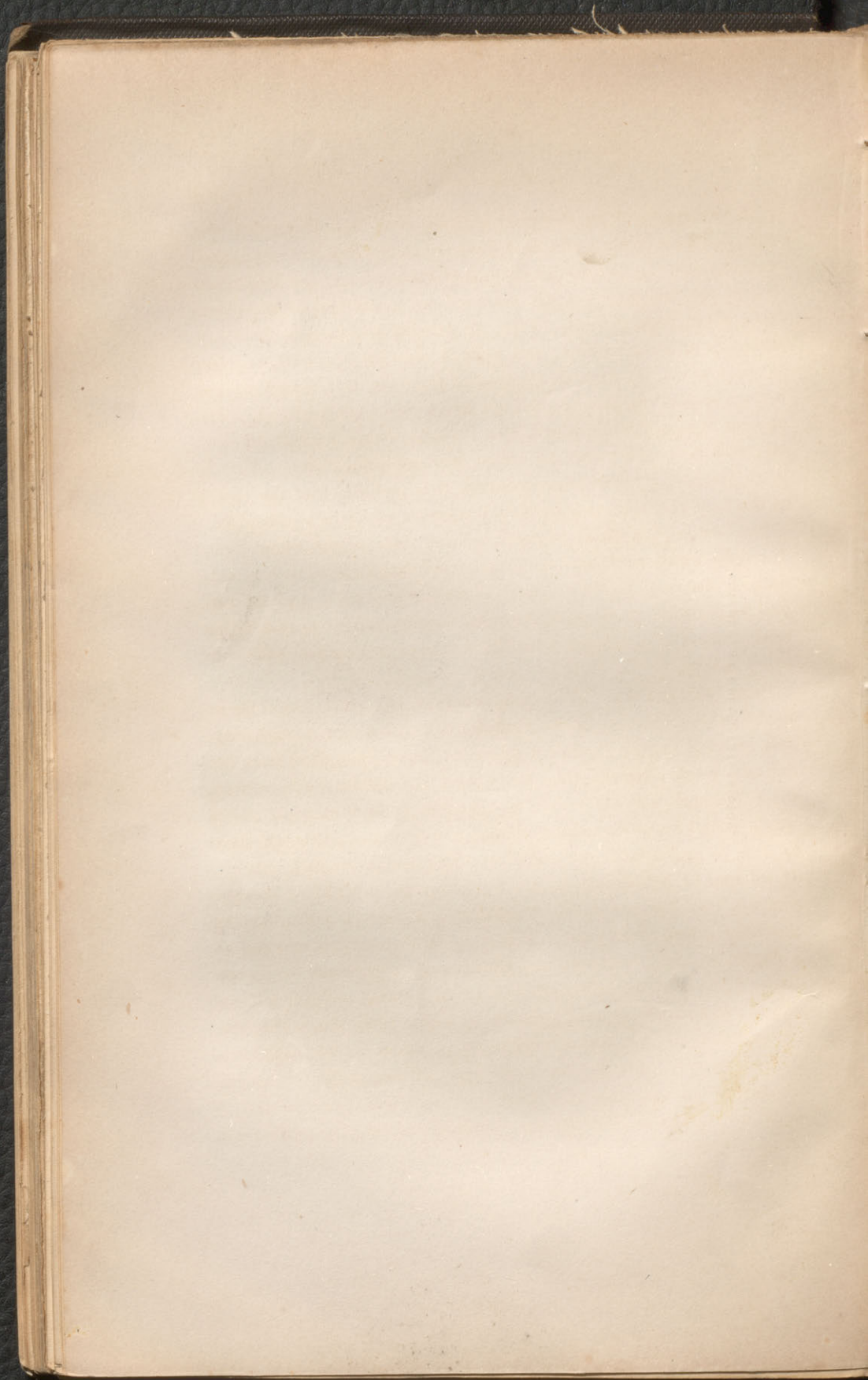
Still ascending the river, we come to the County of York, a more extensive district than either of the two last described. It is bounded on the south-east by Sunbury, south-west by Charlotte, north-west by Carlton, and north-east by Northumberland. Its parishes are Fredericton, St. Mary, Douglas, Kingsclear, Queensbury, Prince William, Southampton, and Dumfries. Notwithstanding a part of this county is rather level, the valley of the St. John passes across it with a diminished breadth, being flanked by higher hills than those below. The features of the country are ruder in their outlines, and a thinning off of the population is manifest on the banks of the river.

Fredericton, the capital of New Brunswick, is in the parish of that name, which reaches from Kingsclear to the boundary of Sunbury, embracing a few scattered settlements in its vicinity. It was formerly called St. Ann's, and was made the seat of Government by Sir Guy Carlton in 1785. It is eighty-five miles from St. John by water, and was supposed to be at the head of navigation. Fredericton is extremely pleasantly situated upon a beautiful level and obtuse point of land, formed by a bold curve on the south side of the stream, commanding a view of the river and the Nashwaak. A range of moderately elevated hills bends around the southern side of the plain, two miles long and half a mile wide. Thus encircled by the river and high

ground, a fertile and well-cultivated tract is occupied at its northern extremity by the capital. The streets are wide and parallel to each other, and space is afforded by the abundance and cheapness of land to favour the cultivation of gardens and the planting of ornamental trees, which have added much to the natural beauty of the situation. The inclined surfaces of the hills to the south are also partially cultivated, and occupied by the College and a number of handsome cottages. From these hills there is a fine view of the river, its intervalles, and the fields bordering upon the evergreen forest. Several of the public buildings are of the best class. The Government House, the residence of the Lieutenant-Governor, is a spacious stone building, situated at a beautiful spot on the bank of the river, at the western extremity of the town. King's College is also a substantial building of freestone, and of a chaste architecture. It is 170 feet long and 60 feet wide, containing 22 rooms for students, a chapel, two lecture-rooms, and apartments for the accommodation of the Vice-President and two Professors. The Province Hall, in which the different legislative bodies assemble, is a plain wooden structure, yet very commodious. The Chamber of the Legislative Council is finished in good taste, and by no means with a very scrupulous regard to economy. The Offices of the Provisional Secretary and Crown-lands departments are built of stone. Besides these, there are an Episcopal Church, Scotch Church, Methodist Chapel, Baptist Chapel, Roman Catholic Chapel, Collegiate and Madras Schools, Baptist Seminary, three Banks, an Hospital, Almshouse, Court-house, Gaol, and Market-house. The principal Barracks are situated on the bank of the river, in the town; they will accommodate one thousand infantry and a company of artillery. The quarters of the officers open into a pretty square, surrounded by stately trees. Fredericton has been visited by several conflagrations; in 1825, the Government House, with one-third of the town, was laid in ruins. The public institutions are three Banks, a Fire Insurance Company, two Mill and Manufacturing Companies, Public Library, Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, Church Society, Bible Association, Wesleyan Missionary Society, Temperance and Abstinence Societies; Societies of St. George, St. Andrew, and St. Patrick; Savings' Bank, Infant School, and other charitable associations.

GOVERNMENT HOUSE, FREDERICTON.





It was supposed by Governor Carlton, after New Brunswick was separated from Nova Scotia, that Fredericton, from its central position, was the most eligible site for the seat of Government, and head-quarters of the military; but the contemplated advantages of the places have never been realised. From its peculiar situation, it is almost incapable of being fortified; and while it offers little protection against invasion across the frontier, its distance from the coast would prevent it from sending succour to repel an attack upon the seaboard. The opinion is yearly strengthened, that St. John should now be the capital; and if the Provinces be united into one principality—which is most desirable for their future security, it is probable that the centre of the local administration for New Brunswick would be at this place.

St. John will continue to command the trade of the whole river. The lumberman, when once fairly embarked on his raft of timber, continues to descend the stream until he reaches its mouth; and the surplus agricultural produce of the rural districts will be carried to the brisk market of a seaport town, whence exportations are made with every facility.

From such and other like causes, St. John is rapidly advancing in wealth and population, while Fredericton remains almost stationary, and in some degree dependent upon the money that flows from the military chest. Remove from the capital its warlike establishment, the Legislature, and the public functionaries of high salaries, and it would soon be a plain country village, whose inhabitants would have to look to agricultural and manufacturing pursuits for their support. If columns of British infantry are terrible on the fields of an enemy's country, they are also to be dreaded in a Provincial village among their friends and countrymen. It is true that their officers may impart a degree of taste, etiquette, and gentlemanly deportment to certain classes; but more frequently are their errors imitated, and habits introduced unfavourable to that industry by which alone a new Province can be redeemed from a wilderness state, or rendered a fit abode for a civilised people. The growth of the imperial, moustache, or copious whisker is but too often cultivated by those whose better interest it would be to bring to perfection the nutritious and valuable productions of the country.

The merchants of Fredericton obtain their chief supplies of goods from St. John. They are brought up in steamers plying daily upon the river—except during the winter, when the communication is maintained by sleds drawn by horses over the ice. The large supplies of provisions required by the lumbermen during their encampment in the woods are also chiefly purchased at the same place; and the preponderance in favour of lumbering pursuits is so great, that the laborious agricultural population, under the present system of husbandry, are unable to supply their own wants and those of the timber-gaugers employed in the wilderness.

Fredericton stands upon beds of diluvial sand and gravel, which, although several feet higher than the alluvial intervalles, are not altogether free from the danger of inundation. A partial overflowing took place on the 11th of April, 1831, from the occurrence of an ice-dam* in the river below, by which the front streets were submerged. The whole plain had been swept by the water and ice a short time before the Loyalists landed in the country.†

From the capital, roads diverge to St. John, Nova Scotia, Miramichi, Madawasca, St. Andrew's, and other places; and, by the aid of legislative grants, internal communication has been greatly improved of late. Stage or mail coaches ply on the above roads, whereby the traveller finds a ready conveyance to any part of the Province. A steamboat has ascended the river to Woodstock, sixty-four miles farther up the stream; but until some large rocks are removed from the Meductic and other rapids, the extension of steam navigation to the upper country will not be considered safe. Provisions and merchandise of all kinds are towed upwards in large boats drawn by horses; the more domestic trade is carried on in canoes, which are exceedingly numerous on the stream. The ferry-boats between Fredericton and the opposite side of the river are also propelled by horses.

The principal settlements in the rear of Fredericton are scattered along the road running thence through the wilderness to St. Andrew's.

* Ice-dams, or "ice-jams," as they are frequently called, are common in many of the rivers of North America.

† Notitia of New Brunswick. St. John, 1838. H. Chubb & Co.

It first passes the Hanwell settlement, containing about twenty Irish families, who, from the stubbornness of the soil, are compelled to labour hard for their support. Near Irina Lake the quality of the land is better, and a few settlers are making improvements. The land is generally of the hemlock and spruce kinds, being interspersed with swamps and plats of almost barren sand. Tracts of Crown land have been surveyed, and successful efforts made by gentlemen residing at Fredericton to settle parts of them with poor Irish emigrants. The Harvey settlement, still farther south, was made by English and Scotch emigrants, who were unable to succeed under the system of the New Brunswick and Nova Scotia Land Company, and were established upon their present lands by the Government, as an experiment in colonisation. After having endured many hardships, they have redeemed the soil, and now live in comfort and prosperity. The Harvey settlement borders upon a fine tract of hard wood land of good quality; but it is owned by absentees and rich land proprietors, who will doubtless let it remain in its present state until its value is increased fourfold by the roads and surrounding clearings of the poor backwoodsmen.

The St. Andrew's Road passes near the Oromucto Lake, a pretty sheet of water abounding in trout and other kinds of fish. The side of this lake was chosen by a Mr. Ensor, an eccentric English gentleman, for a farm and residence; but his clearing and house have been abandoned. There is a scattered but striving little band of forestmen on the upper part of the Magaguadavic at the Brockway settlement, and a few families from the North of Ireland are established farther down the river. Scattered clearings are also seen on the roadside to the Digdegush and Warwig, in the County of Charlotte. Tryon and other tracts have been surveyed, and hundreds of lots are for sale; still, there is a lack of settlers, and the work of removing the forest and introducing cultivation advances at a tardy rate. Excepting the intervalles of the stream, it is necessary to speak with circumspection in regard to the general quality of the lands. Many tracts are fit for little else but pasturage. The ranges suitable for tillage are less common than may be found in other parts of the Province.

Returning again to the St. John, it will be observed that the road from Fredericton to Woodstock is on the south side of the stream,

which, with its islands and borders of intervale, affords a number of rich views. At the mouth of the Keswick Creek, on the opposite side, there are several beautiful islets, adorned by nature with lofty trees and low coppices. In the Parish of Kingsclear, first settled by the New Jersey Volunteers, the uplands rise to greater height, and the valley of the stream is less expanded. At the place called the French Village, there is a very fertile bed of alluvium. This is the site of an Indian encampment and a Roman Catholic chapel. The lands of Prince William, first settled by the King's American Dragoons, are very hilly, and the intervales more limited in their extent. The parish contains several inland basins of water. The largest of these is Lake George. The settlement at the lake contains two saw-mills, a flour and oat mill. From it descends a rapid stream called the Pokiok. Having passed over a rocky bed, this rivulet plunges into the St. John through a chasm twenty-five feet wide, seventy feet deep, and a furlong in length. The water falls over a perpendicular ledge, and bounds from step to step to step, through a dark channel, until it is lost in the more tranquil water of the main river, which glides along unruffled, by its noisy tributary. Lake George has clearings upon its borders. In this quarter there are also two other thriving settlements, Magundy and Pokiok. Still farther south, the whole surface of the country over a wide expanse is in its natural state, and since the destruction of the beaver it is seldom visited, even by the Indians. Moose, cariboo, Virginian deer, bears, and wolves, are plentiful. The district is interrupted by the chain of high and broken lands; yet there are fine valleys and slopes among the mountains and hills, to which agriculture might be successfully applied.

Opposite Fredericton, there is a considerable stream, known as the Nashwaak, and a lesser one, called the Nashwaaksis. The St. John is here about half a mile wide, and on its left bank there is a small encampment of Indians. The branches of the Nashwaak extend to the northward, and nearly meet the tributaries of the Miramichi. At its lower part, it passes through fine intervales, and is navigable for canoes and rafts to some distance in the interior. The uplands are occupied by a tier of farms on each side of the valley, which presents one of the prettiest views in the Province.

A few years since, an Association was formed at Fredericton, and incorporated, under the name of the Nashwaaksis Manufacturing Company, with a proposed capital of £50,000. The operations of the Company were devoted to the creation of an extensive brewery, an iron-foundry, opposite Fredericton, and mills for the manufacture of flour and for sawing. The enterprise has not been successful, and some of the works are falling into decay. Extensive mill establishments on the Nashwaak have also failed in returning any profit to their proprietors. The main road from Fredericton to Miramichi follows the deviation of this stream, and crosses on the line of an old Indian portage to the south-western branch of that river. On the northern side of the tributary called the Pennyauk, there is a great tract of wilderness country, which is decidedly superior to many of the wild lands of the southern parishes.*

The Parishes of Douglas, Queensbury, and St. Mary are situated on the north side of the St. John. The former is intersected by a stream called the Keswick. It was settled by disbanded soldiers of the New York Volunteers and Royal Guides in 1783, and whose descendants have made very extensive improvements of the tracts given to their ancestors by the Crown. It contains two Episcopal Churches and two Meeting-houses, and new clearings are advancing yearly into the recesses of the forest. Keswick Ridge, and other villages adjacent to the stream, are all in a flourishing condition.

The Nashwaaksis is occupied by grist and saw mills, and upon its borders there is a large Welsh settlement called Cardigan, the country residence of Dr. Jacob, Principal of King's College. This settlement extends to Tay Creek, where the soil has also been improved by a respectable body of inhabitants. At the close of the Revolutionary War, a number of the soldiers of the gallant old 42nd Regiment settled in this quarter. Very few of them are now alive; but the large village occupied by their children and successors commemorates their patience and industry. There are a number of other small settlements and

* Any person who is desirous of examining the wild lands of the middle counties can ascend the river at St. John every day to Fredericton, where information will be supplied by the Crown Lands' Officers.

clearings in this part of the country, but they do not require particular description. The district is steadily advancing in agricultural improvement; the success attending husbandry as practised by a few gentlemen of capital has exerted a beneficial influence over a wide area, and wrought many improvements in the moral and industrial character of the people.

This part of York has been rendered more interesting from being the seat of the operations of the New Brunswick and Nova Scotia Land Company. This Association, incorporated by Royal Charter and Act of Parliament, purchased from the Crown 550,000 acres of land in the County of York. Their tract is chiefly situated between the St. John and South-west Miramichi. It embraces the Cardigan settlement; but over it the Company exercise no control, the land having been granted previously to their purchase. Much of the soil is of a good quality, but there are some light and meagre tracts of little value. Nor is the situation of the district most favourable for extensive industry and traffic. Its distance from the St. John, or any stream of free navigation, is a drawback upon the natural privileges of the inhabitants, as it would be also on the exports of the country after its population has become numerous. Since, however, a railway has been contemplated between Halifax and Quebec, the most favourable considerations may be entertained of its situation. That railway, if constructed, will no doubt cross the lands of the Company, or approach very near them, and thereby open a channel of communication of the first importance to the complete success of their enterprise.

It had been proposed by the Provincial Government to open a road from the district opposite Fredericton direct to the Grand Falls, and a large sum of money was expended in making the survey and in opening its lower extremity; but the site was most injudiciously chosen, and the Royal Road, as it was designated, has been abandoned, a part of it only being completed. The Company have opened a road from the Royal Road, eight miles from Fredericton, to Stanley, the centre of their operations, which is twenty-four miles from the capital. Stanley is situated on the borders of the Nashwaak, thirty-five miles above its confluence with the St. John, where the navigation is limited to canoes or light boats. Excellent saw and grist mills have been

erected. They have also a church and resident clergyman, school-house, and an inn for the accommodation of travellers. The officers of the Company reside on the spot, and the village is well supplied with mechanics. The road constructed by the Company has been extended from Stanley to the South-west Miramichi, seventeen miles, and thereby a large tract has been opened for settlement. Roads have also been made to the neighbouring villages, and the facilities of communication are rapidly improving. The construction of a road from the south-west branch of the Miramichi, near Boistown, to Campbelltown on the Restigouche, would promote internal improvement, and open an immense wilderness to the labour of the farmer; but until a sound and extensive system of immigration, fostered by the Government, is brought into operation, the work is unnecessary, for few of the present scanty population are disposed to remove far from the societies where they are attached.

The early proceedings of the Company were unsuccessful. They brought upon their lands a number of settlers from the Isle of Sky, who were principally fishermen, or persons unacquainted with agriculture. These people finally dispersed, and many of the lots once occupied by them are now vacant.*

From the above and many other untoward circumstances, the prospects of the Association wore a gloomy aspect; but by perseverance their affairs have begun to improve, and ultimate success may be contemplated. The town of Stanley is yearly increasing in population and prosperity. Several very respectable persons from Great Britain have recently taken up their abode upon the lands; an agreeable society is formed; and the settlers are performing the task upon which their future success mainly depends. The extravagant views attending all such enterprises have been corrected, and the Company may look forward with encouragement to the progressive settlement of the tract, and a favourable result of an undertaking upon which they have expended £100,000.

The Parish of Queensbury was laid out for the Queen's Rangers.

* The Agent of the Company at Stanley will sell lots of 100 acres, with small clearings, for 3s. 6d. to 6s. currency per acre.

Its uplands are hilly, but nevertheless produce good crops of wheat, oats, and Indian corn. Within its bounds there are several fine islands of intervale. Almost the whole surface of the parish is occupied by flourishing settlements. Two small streams, the Mactaquack and Nackawick, are occupied by mills.

There is yet another place on the extreme limits of the County of York, where it meets Northumberland, that deserves notice. On the south bank of the Miramichi, and main road between Fredericton and Chatham, a village has sprung up called Boistown. It consists of a meeting-house, school-house, inn, stores, saw-mill, mechanics' shops, and about twenty dwelling-houses. This village was founded by a Mr. Bois, an enterprising American, whose labours, for the benefits they have conferred upon the country, are worthy of praise and imitation.

We have been thus brief in the description of York for reasons already mentioned. Viewed generally, it must be considered as a part of the Province that is admirably fitted for agriculture and manufacture. Taking Fredericton, the most improved and cultivated part of the county, for the centre, the progress of settlement has not been rapid, owing only to the scantiness of the inhabitants. From the parent town, and the old military villages planted in the forest around it, settlements have gradually expanded, and spread themselves in almost every direction. Still, a stranger, in making a hasty visit to the St. John, would imagine that on every hand the country, excepting its shores, was an impenetrable wilderness, alike gloomy and inhospitable. The history of the county would afford a practical refutation of some fanciful theories now cherished by high authorities. We have here a flourishing county, originally settled by soldiers and Loyalists, whose early habits of life were not favourable to subduing the forest. It is admitted that these were not the best men to engage in the improvement of a new Colony. Sixty years ago, almost the entire surface of New Brunswick was an unbroken wood, and the first settlers carried a musket in one hand to protect themselves from the assaults of the Indians, and an axe in the other to clear away the trees. If the results already noticed have followed the military settler, what may be expected from the introduction of a respectable class of British farmers upon the

vast tracts of wilderness land to be found in every quarter of the Province? If the imperfect human materials first employed in colonising New Brunswick have been successful, much may be fairly looked for from a class of emigrants who have been trained to steady labour and the cultivation of the soil. For such there is still abundant room, and it is only by the influx of willing industry from the mother-country that the forests of New Brunswick can be subdued, and the Province be made to rank with the neighbouring States.

At present the industry of the county is applied to the opposite and different branches of labour, agriculture and lumbering. The system of husbandry, although gradually improving, is still imperfect. It is true that, from the example and by the influence of a few individuals, a better mode of culture than ordinary makes its way among the farmers; yet they are slow to forsake established customs, and to take advantage of modern discoveries. The principal minerals of the county are iron ore, coal, and ochres. In the valley of the Keswick there are mineral springs which evolve sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

County of Carlton.

The county of Carlton at present includes all the upper part of the St. John, so far as it flows through British territory. The old Acts of the Government made the southern boundary of the Province of Quebec the northern line of Nova Scotia, but that line has never been defined. Since the settlement of the North-western Boundary of the Province by the Ashburton Treaty, disputes have arisen in regard to the line between Canada and New Brunswick, which line should be speedily determined. Accordingly, Carlton is bounded on the north by Canada, on the west by the State of Maine, east by York, and north-east by Gloucester and Restigouche. Much confusion exists in regard to the divisional lines between the counties and parishes of the Province, and no map has ever been published on which they are all delineated. Carlton contains nine parishes—Woodstock, Northampton, Kent, Brighton, Perth, Wicklow, Wakefield, Andover, and Madawasca. By the last census (taken in 1840) it contained 13,381 inhabitants. It is estimated to embrace 2,592,000 square acres, of which there are 52,000 acres of cleared land.

A range of high land stretches across the northern part of the State of Maine, and enters New Brunswick between Woodstock and the mouth of the Aroostook. Within its borders, near the St. John, are Mars Hill, Bear and Moose* Mountains, and the hills of the Monquart.

Bold and rugged in its outline, the country has a wild and romantic aspect; but although much of the surface is elevated and rises into lofty eminences, it is not extensively broken by abrupt precipices, and the slopes are not too steep for cultivation. Near the Meductic Rapids, the St. John changes its direction, descending from the north towards the south, and leaving a narrow strip of land between its waters and the American boundary. The banks of the river, heretofore closely populated and skirted by broad intervalles, begin to approach each other, and to be shaded by the native woods; while the belts of intervalle become more and more narrow, being beautifully terraced by successive deposits of alluvium. Cultivation seems to have been driven in from the green forest, and the settlements are chiefly confined to the banks of the stream, except at Woodstock, or on the roads leading into the Boundary State.

Commencing with the streams below, and describing their settlements as we ascend the main river in the county, the Shogamock may be seen coming in from the westward five miles above the Pokiok. This small stream takes its rise near the Palfrey Mountains, on the border of the Great Cheputnecticook Lake. It also communicates with Megadawgawagum or Loon Lake, at the head of the Magaguadavic. It is navigable for light canoes, and runs through some belts of good land, separated by low swamps and small lakes. A large clearing has been made between this stream and Eel River, called the Howard Settlement, which contains upwards of forty families.

Eel River is about thirty-five miles in length, and descends from a beautiful lake; between it and the North Cheputnecticook the distance is only three miles. The river is navigable for boats, excepting at the rapids near its mouth, and the Ledge Falls near the Lake. The land

* This eminence, viewed at a distance, has a perfect resemblance to the body and hornless head of a moose—whence its name. Bear Mountain also resembles the head of a bear.

separating those lakes is well covered with birch, maple, and other kinds of hard wood, intermixed with pine and spruce. The soil appears to be strong, but has not been tested by tillage. Farther south, the land at many places is partially occupied by boulders of granite, and several tracts are too rocky for cultivation. The river, abounding in trout, perch, and eels, runs smoothly from the lake at its outlet, but is shortly interrupted by a fall of six feet. From the Fall downwards, to the distance of twelve miles, there are some good intervalles. Finally, Eel River rushes through a rocky and broken channel into the main stream.* Vast tracts of excellent land still remain ungranted in this part of the county. The fears that were entertained by the first settlers upon the river in regard to early frosts have been removed. Indian corn ripens well; and all kinds of grain, potatoes, and garden vegetables, grow luxuriantly.

The Meduxnakeag,† a rapid stream, takes its rise within the American territory, and, after passing through Jacksontown, a fine new farming village, is discharged into the St. John at the town of Woodstock, where it is crossed by a dam and bridge. Its mouth is occupied by excellent saw and grist mills. The lands on the sides of the river have been granted, and being of an excellent quality, they are now

* From the distress that prevailed at St. John in the winter of 1841, in consequence of destructive fires and a sudden prostration of business, twenty tradesmen and labourers, most of whom were penniless, encouraged by the benevolence of Sir William Colebrooke, the Lieutenant-Governor, embarked for Eel River. Fifty acres of Crown land were offered to each man on credit, and fifty more were reserved to be granted to each settler when the first fifty should be paid for, at 3s. 3d. currency per acre. The Legislature also granted a small loan to supply provisions and seeds, until a crop could be raised. The Writer accompanied the little party to their lands, and erected camps amidst the deep snows. To them the wolves made nightly visits, howling in terrific discord. Through many difficulties, lands were cleared, and produced a good crop in the ensuing season, and the settlement has been in some degree prosperous. It has not proved, however, that advances of land or provisions are advantageous to the Government or the settler, as they are apt to induce idleness and tempt the profligate. Other tracts have been surveyed in this quarter, and are being slowly filled up. The quality of the soil is unexceptionable.

† Miductsiniciek of the Indians.

under cultivation to the distance of several miles above the town. The river is navigable for canoes and rafts of timber twenty miles, and it forms a water communication from Houlton, a small town and military post twelve miles west of Woodstock, on the American side of the line.

Woodstock embraces three villages, which are very advantageously situated on the west bank of the St. John. Of these, the upper one, containing the Court-house and Gaol, is known by the singular name of Hard-scabble.* The town contains an Episcopal Church, Presbyterian Church, Methodist Chapel, Roman Catholic Chapel, a Bank, Grammar-school, and a number of handsome private buildings, with a population of two thousand inhabitants. From being situated at the extremity of the road to Houlton, in the State of Maine, and from its advantageous position in regard to the local timber traffic, it has rapidly grown into a place of importance, and, from being surrounded by a fine agricultural country, its steady advancement is certain. The villages of Jacksontown and Richmond, with the clearings extending from them in every direction, give this parish a venerable aspect; but, thirty years ago, its surface was covered by a dense wilderness. In the former village, and two and a half miles from Woodstock, there is a valuable bed of iron ore, the total thickness of which is seventy feet. This river is situated in a very fertile district, near the State of Maine, where it has a communication with New Brunswick by the Houlton Road. Its proximity to the St. John, where it will hereafter be navigable for steamboats, and the abundance of wood to supply fuel for smelting and manufacturing purposes, will render it valuable hereafter to this part of the Province.

The soil in this quarter is a calcareous loam, interspersed with argillaceous and silicious knolls and hollows. It produces abundant crops of wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, Indian corn, potatoes, turnips, and all kinds of garden vegetables. It is also well adapted to horticulture;

* Any difficult and laborious work in the Province has received the appellation of a "hard scabble." Just below the village referred to, there is a rapid in the river, which can only be ascended but by a hard scabble: hence the village has obtained its characteristic name.

but fruit-trees have scarcely yet been cultivated. Directly below the town there is a large tract of high terraced intervale of a superior quality. This intervale and the uplands adjacent are in a good state of cultivation. Opposite the town, also, there are rich alluviums which might be rendered highly productive.

From Woodstock there are roads to Fredericton, Houlton, the Grand Falls, and all the neighbouring villages; and a mail-coach runs three times a-week to the capital and the upper territory. From the rapidity of the current, transportation downwards is easy; but British manufactured goods and other merchandise are towed up the river in large flat-bottomed boats drawn by horses. Rafts of timber descend to Fredericton (sixty-four miles) in a day, and an excursion on one of these floating masses of wood, or in a canoe, is by no means unpleasant, and affords an excellent opportunity of viewing the scenery of the river.

In consequence of disturbances that took place upon the frontier previously to the settlement of the Boundary dispute, Woodstock was made a military post, and barracks have been erected for the accommodation of a regiment of soldiers; but since the final Treaty of Lord Ashburton, by which a valuable part of the Province was assigned to the Americans, the necessity of maintaining a warlike force at that place has been rendered unnecessary, so long as there is peace between the two Powers.

Both banks of the St. John are partially settled from Woodstock to the mouth of the Tobique, fifty miles above. A number of the settlements are, however, only in their infancy, and there are distances of several miles where clearings have only been commenced.

A few miles above the town, the intervale becomes narrow and scanty. It is terraced along the whole course of the stream: sometimes five different steps are seen on the shores, whereby the same number of changes in the level of the river are clearly indicated. The valley through which the stream passes is diminished in breadth, and it runs between banks of sand and gravel from thirty to fifty feet in height. Great numbers of logs and pieces of pine timber are collected during the winter, and piled upon the brink of the water. In the spring they are launched into the river and floated to market.

The village of Wakefield, twelve miles above Woodstock, is very beautifully situated. It contains and is surrounded by excellent farms, and roads have been opened to Jacksontown and other new settlements remote from the river. The soil is of the most fertile kind, and its cultivation is rapidly improving. The river, with its wooded islands and high terraced border, surmounted by cultivated uplands, is well calculated to strike the eye of the traveller after he has ascended from the tamer scenery below. The St. John is here a furlong wide, and the stream runs smoothly along at the rate of six miles an hour. The timber on the uncleared lands consists of spruce, fir, cedar, and pine, intermixed with birch and maple. The islands are covered by the different varieties of hard wood and butter-nut. The ungranted lands are situated from three to six miles from the river, and they are generally of an excellent quality.

Restricting our observations to the west bank of the St. John, the above description will apply still farther upwards to the Parish of Kent. The Presqu' Isle is a considerable stream; but, from the number of its rapids, it is scarcely navigable for canoes. It is useful in affording a channel wherein timber is floated down to the main river. One of its branches bends around the base of Mars Hill, and receives the brooks descending from the side of the mountain. It was formerly a military post, and the lands adjacent were settled by disbanded West India Rangers and New Brunswick Fencibles.

River Des Chutes is a small stream. Excellent saw-mills have been erected at its mouth, where, at some former period, there was a fall of sixty feet. The water and frost have worn down the rocks, so that a fall of only ten feet remains.

Mars Hill, celebrated for being on the Boundary line claimed by the British, is five miles from the St. John—southward of Des Chutes River, which passes along its northern base. As the whole surface of the country is here shaded by a thick growth of lofty trees, the hill cannot be seen at any great distance from the valley of the river. Notwithstanding the sides of the mountain are steep, they are covered by a heavy growth of white and yellow birch, beech, and sugar maple. The top of its highest peak was cleared by the Commissioners under the Treaty of 1794, but is now covered with an undergrowth. Frag-

ments of the old observatory still remain, having engraved upon them the hostile expressions of the borderers.

The soil is a rich loam, containing lime. In consequence of the large grants made to individuals, these grounds remain uncleared, and the general improvement of the country is greatly retarded; for few settlers will approach a large grant whose proprietor will not improve his land, nor contribute to the opening of roads, by which the value of such property is greatly increased.

The mountain chain of which Mars Hill is only an insulated point pursues its course to the northward, leaving within its range Bear Mountain and Moose Mountain. Blue Mountain, near the Tobique, is the next eminence of any considerable altitude in this division of the Alleghany chain.

The surface of the country between the River Des Chutes and the mouth of the Aroostook, and from thence to the Grand Falls, is very uneven, being traversed by the long parallel ridges common to the flanks of the chain alluded to. Notwithstanding the high undulations of the surface, the lands are of a substantial quality, and the admixture of lime in the soil fits them for the raising of wheat and other kinds of grain. There is still a large quantity of ungranted land in the rear of the river lots, whose fertility, under proper cultivation, would not be surpassed by any in the Province.

On the east side of the St. John, the Pekagomik enters from the north-east, ten miles above Woodstock. Upon its branches there are a few tracts of good intervale, and the stream is skirted by flourishing settlements. Canoes may ascend this river to the distance of sixteen miles. In the rear of the improved lots the land is yet ungranted, and the whole district to the north would be an eligible site for population.

The Shictabank is twenty-two miles from Woodstock. Its sources spring near the South-west Miramichi. The river runs through an unsettled and ungranted tract, and is only frequented by lumbermen. At the close of the last war, a number of disbanded soldiers settled between its mouth and the Tobique, where they have cleared fine farms, and by their industry redeemed a considerable tract from its primitive unproductive state. The Monquart resembles the latter

stream; its borders near the St. John are inhabited, and such of the lands as have been examined are worthy of cultivation.

The Tobique River has been described in a previous chapter. The red and white pine growing upon its borders and along its tributaries have for some years past attracted the attention of the lumbermen, who, aided by the stream and its contributing branches, bring down immense quantities of timber annually. The intervalles and uplands now unoccupied would sustain a very numerous population, whose main channel of transport would be to the St. John. The mouth of the river is at present occupied by an encampment of Melicete Indians, who have a claim to 16,000 acres of land at this place. The site of their huts and wigwams would be most advantageous for a town, and the contiguous rapids offer every inducement for the erection of powerful machinery: but it would be necessary to protect these people by an exchange of land, which should be effected before any attempt is made to improve their district; and before any town or place of manufacture and traffic could be established there, the wilderness country above must first be improved by the industry of settlers, which cannot be supplied by the Province in the next century. There is here sufficient space for a new county; but until a district shall be inhabited, it has not been considered necessary, heretofore, to make any very extensive surveys. The constant changing of county and parish lines at present is extremely inconvenient for the purposes of description, and until some general plan is adopted, it is better that they should remain in the new districts under their present almost undefined limits.

The Aroostook, also before briefly described, descends through the once-disputed territory, having its mouth within the British line two miles above the *débouchement* of the Tobique. This river, its branches and contiguous lakes, will afford a water communication equal to four hundred miles in extent. In the wide area thus opened, by natural channels of transport, there are vast tracts covered with pine and other kinds of valuable timber. Its agricultural capabilities also, so far as an opinion can be formed by the kinds and size of the forest-trees, and a few tried clearings, are great. The timber, the first article of export of the Aroostook country, must pass down the St. John, and hereafter its agricultural produce will follow the same course. Aware of the

resources of the district, American settlers are fast hovering on the borders of the streams, where they prepare the great supplies of timber yearly floated into the St. John. At present all the produce raised by the agricultural part of the inhabitants of the Aroostook, as well as of those of the whole Upper St. John, is insufficient to supply the lumbermen, and importations of provisions are made upwards against the currents at a great expense. Being much farther advanced towards improvement than the Tobique, this stream will speedily supply the elements of a town, at the site where it enters the main stream. This result has been hastened by the termination of the Boundary dispute, since which period the Americans have advanced with great ardour to occupy the lands gained by their calculating diplomacy.

The St. John, at the mouth of the Tobique, runs at the rate of eight miles an hour, and is broken a little way below the Falls by two powerful rapids. The lands on each side are hilly; the soil is nevertheless fertile. Extensive surveys have recently been made in this quarter, in order to facilitate the settlement of the wild surface.

Fifteen miles above the Tobique, and five below the Falls, another small stream enters the St. John from the eastward, called the Salmon River. It traverses some fine table land, and a few families are settled at its mouth. Salmon were formerly very abundant in this rivulet; at present they are scarce: but trout and whitefish are still numerous.

A sudden turn in the river at the Grand Falls forms a little peninsula, at which there is a very pretty village, whose scenery is rendered extremely wild and romantic from being on the border of the cataract. Mills were constructed on the side of the Fall by the late Sir John Cauldwell, formerly Receiver-General of Lower Canada; and a wooden railway was laid across the peninsula to transport the lumber from the saws, and to avoid the boisterous rapids of the stream, in which it was in its descent much injured: but the establishment has not been successful. A town has recently been laid out at this place, which, from its peculiar situation, commands the trade of the upper country; and a canal* cut across the little peninsula, to complete the navigation of the

* A survey of this canal has been made, and it is presumed that the Government will have a work completed which will greatly add to the strength of the fortifications now in progress.

river, would confer many advantages upon the inhabitants, and greatly facilitate the trade of the district above. The isthmus of the Falls is one of the oldest military posts in the Province; and since the settlement of the Boundary strife, the Government has commenced the erection of fortifications and the clearing of land, in order to protect this part of the frontier.

Having noticed the principal features of the lower parishes of Carlton, we now enter the District of Madawasca, or Upper St. John. About twelve miles above the Falls, Grand River enters the main stream from the north-west. This is a quiet rivulet, navigable for inland transport twenty miles. It passes through narrow belts of alluvium, and some good upland. After ascending the stream about twenty miles, and one of its branches called the Waagan a short distance, there is a portage of three miles to a branch of the Restigouche also called by the Indians Waagan. The portage is over a somewhat elevated ridge which divides the waters flowing into the St. John from those that fall into the Restigouche. The wilderness here has been overrun by fires, and the surface presents a very gloomy aspect. The Shiegash and Squisibish are small streams. Green River, so called from the green colour of its water, makes its *débouchement* twenty-five miles above the Falls. This stream is settled several miles from its mouth, and will float canoes and timber thirty miles from its sources. Green Mountain, near its border, is an eminence of considerable altitude.

The principal settlement of Madawasca borders upon a river of that name, and on both sides of the St. John, from the Grand Falls to the mouth of the St. Francis, upwards of forty miles. There are a few groups of farms and clearings beyond these limits, and the population is rapidly thickening and expanding. There is, however, far from being a dense population even in the more advanced parts of the district. The tract around the Madawasca River is the chief seat of business and cultivation. The population of the whole district in 1840 was 3,963: it will now probably exceed 4,500. There are three Roman Catholic Chapels in the parish: one of them is opposite the mouth of Green River, one four miles below Madawasca River, and the third at the Chataguan settlement, still higher up. The left bank of the Madawasca River is occupied in twelve miles' distance; and to

Lake Temiscouta, twenty-five miles, there are scattered improvements. Before the American claim was extended to the St. John, it was intended that the post-road should proceed from Woodstock, on the west side of the stream, to Green River, thence from the opposite bank to Trout River, whence it now proceeds to the Lake, and is continued over a portage of thirty-six miles to the River Du Loup, emptying itself into the St. Lawrence. The extremities of the parish have no roads, and the mail and passengers to and from Canada are poled and paddled along the St. John and Madawasca Rivers in canoes, which advance against the currents at a tardy rate. Her Majesty's Government has recently made a survey of this part of the country, in order to open a road from Quebec to the Grand Falls, and onward to Nova Scotia; but the construction of the railway now contemplated between Halifax and the St. Lawrence would at once consolidate all these isolated villages, and pour into the forests thousands of emigrants. The report of Sir James Alexander, R.E., who was engaged in the above service, is favourable to the enterprise.

The extreme branches of the St. John glide through a dense wilderness; but since the Americans have obtained the west side of the river along the Madawasca settlement, they are rapidly advancing to the pine-timber districts, and immigrating to the banks of the principal rivulets. Between the River St. Francis and the Merumplicook, the St. John washes a number of beautiful islands, and intervalles are common on all its upper tributaries. Fish River enters from the westward a few miles above the Merumplicook. Here the Americans erected a small fort, and maintained a military establishment, during the disturbances on the border. The State of Maine also commenced the opening of a road from the Mattawamkeag, a branch of the Penobscot, to the mouth of the above stream. The Americans have commenced a settlement about twelve miles above Madawasca River; and the river-shore, now confirmed to them by the late treaty, will soon be occupied by enterprising farmers.

The Madawasca District is separated into three divisions: the upper, called St. Emelie; the middle, St. Basil; and the lower, Bruno. The lands in general are level or gently sloping; abrupt heights are rare. In the soil there is some diversity; but where it has not been worn

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out by continued or imperfect tillage, it is fit for the plough. It is well watered, and the tributaries, with their branches, present numerous sites for machinery.

The inhabitants are French Acadians and Canadians, among whom are mixed a few Provincials and Americans. After the former had been driven from Nova Scotia, they commenced a settlement along the St. John in the neighbourhood of Fredericton. From that place also they were destined to be exiled; and on the arrival of the American Loyalists in 1783, and the disbanded soldiers of the Revolutionary War, they were compelled to retreat; and finally, they found a resting-place at Madawasca, where they are now established. The national relations of a part of these people have again been disturbed by the Ashburton Treaty, which, by granting to the Americans the west side of the St. John along the whole of the above district, has placed them under two different Governments, and thrown a considerable population of British subjects into a Republican State. If the forefathers of these people were considered as neutrals, it can scarcely be expected that the present generation would be very loyal to a Government by whom they have been driven from forest to forest, and finally, after fifty years of uninterrupted good feeling towards the Crown, a part of them are unceremoniously disposed of to another nation. The social condition of these people will be noticed in another chapter.

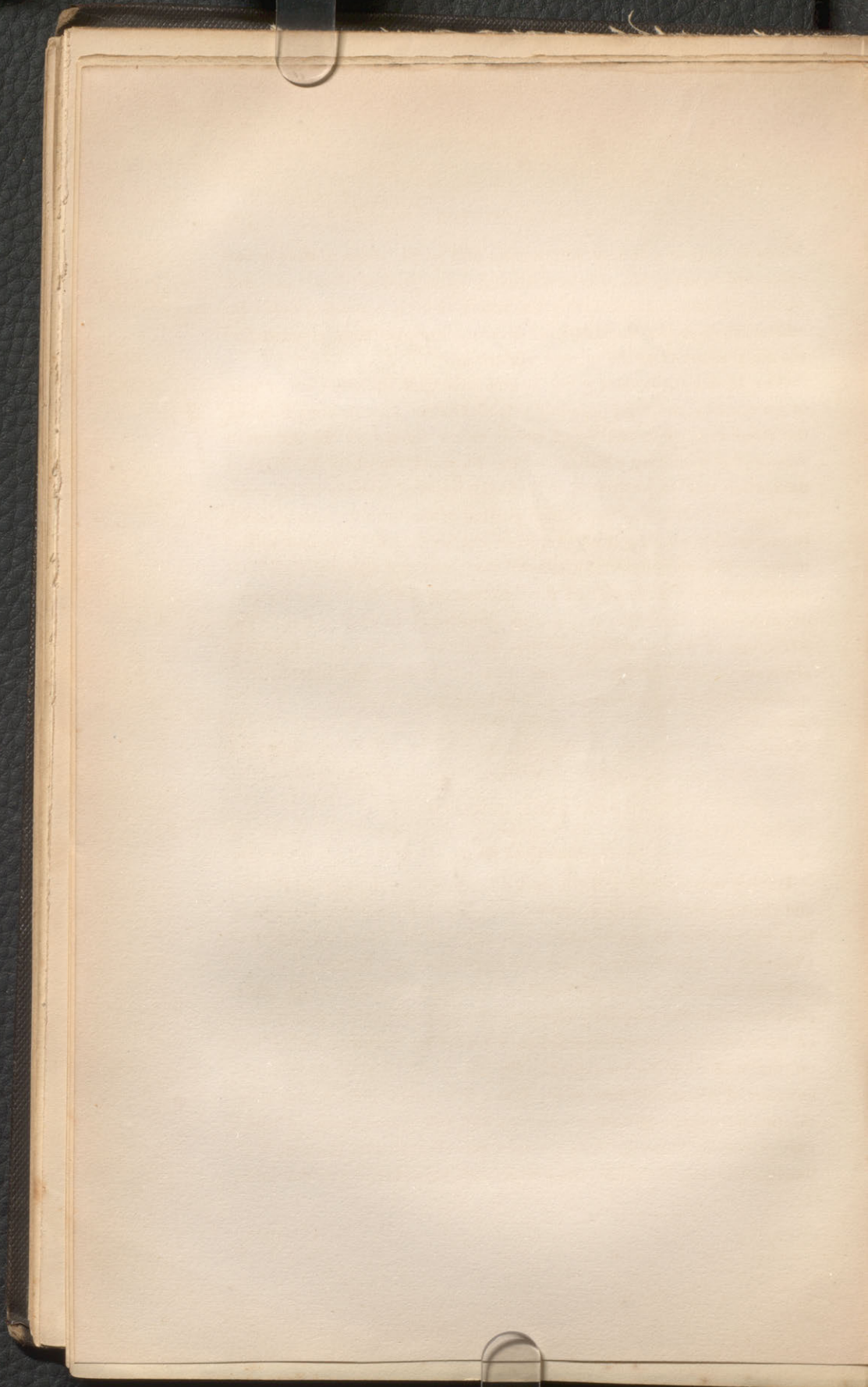
Notwithstanding the parish produces excellent Indian corn or maize, wheat, barley, oats, and other kinds of grain, the system of tillage is imperfect, and there is a lack of agricultural enterprise seldom seen among English settlers. The exports of the district consist of timber, a small quantity of wheat, furs, and maple sugar. Of the latter article several tons are made annually for home consumption. The trade is with Quebec, Woodstock, and Fredericton. To the latter places the *habitans* travel in batteaux and perogues,* which are transported over the isthmus at the Falls, and poled against the rapids with much dexterity.

The inhabitants of Madawasca are mainly its own offspring, among

* Canoes made by hollowing out large pine logs, which are shaped according to an approved mode. Some of these log canoes will carry twenty persons.



MADAWASCA PEROQUE.



whom if there is a lack of information and polish, there is an easy and agreeable manner not always met with in original settlers; and it is pleasing to observe that among the young there is a growing desire for education, and the engrafting of greater enterprise than characterises the early pioneers of the remote wilderness.

The Madawasca country has begun to attract the attention of men of enterprise, and small trading establishments are introduced among the Acadians. The timber of the immense forests on the American side of the boundary will descend the St. John, to which the right of navigation was yielded, with the valuable tract of country on its western sources. Much of the British portion of the territory also abounds in marketable wood, and offers a wide and inviting field for new settlements. The abundance of fish in all the rivers and lakes is of no little importance to the pioneer of the backwoods, and the sugar cheaply obtained from the sugar maple also contributes to his comfort. The advantage of having moose and deer is not so manifest, as a hunter is always neglectful of the soil, and does not cherish the steady habits necessary for every adventurer in a new country.

NORTHERN COUNTIES.

County of Kent.

Having now surveyed the counties bordering on the Bay of Fundy, and the long line of settlements upon the St. John and American frontier, we proceed to the coasts of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Bay Chaleurs, to describe the counties of that part of the Province.

Kent, formerly a part of Northumberland, is a small county when compared with the adjoining districts. It comprises fifty miles of coast on the north-east, being bounded on the west by Northumberland, and on the south by Westmoreland. On the coast, it reaches from the entrance of Miramichi Bay to the haven of Shediac, and contains several fine harbours. Its area embraces 806,400 square acres, of which only 5,000 are cleared. The parishes are—Richibucto, Carlton, Wellington, Dundas, Weldford, Huskinson, and Harcourt. The two latter

parishes are without inhabitants. The population of the county is now about 9,000 souls. Its earliest settlements were made by the Acadians, who had a village at the Harbour of Richibucto, and another at the mouth of the Aldoine River. It appears that the extremely savage character of the Richibucto Indians, who were formerly very numerous, retarded the occupation of this part of New Brunswick by European inhabitants.

In the latter part of the year 1787, Mr. Powel, an American Loyalist, settled at Richibucto. There were then only six families of Acadians in the county, and eleven families between the Miramichi and Bay Verte. Since that period, the district, when compared with other parts of the Province, has advanced but slowly. The county is watered by a number of fine streams, whose branches are extended in every direction, so that there is scarcely a tract of a thousand acres that has not its brook or rivulet.

Liverpool, the shire town of the county, is situated in the Parish of Richibucto, on the western side of the river of that name, and four miles above its mouth. It contains about one hundred dwelling-houses, a Court-house, Gaol, and several mercantile establishments. A Presbyterian Church stands on the bank of the river, a mile and a half from the principal village, which is built upon a low and level tract that scarcely commands a view of the harbour. The whole population of the parish, including the inhabitants of the town, in 1840 was only 2,088. The exports of Liverpool are mainly lumber and fish, and shipbuilding is pursued to considerable extent. The fisheries on the shore are not carried on with spirit, notwithstanding they are capable of affording an ample return for the industry of the inhabitants. Agriculture has received more attention, and a number of farms are well cultivated. On the east side of the harbour, there is a settlement of Acadians, consisting of upwards of seventy families, who have a handsome Chapel and Mission-house. The desire to settle in compact villages, and to cultivate small farms, is as manifest in this village as in others occupied by the French generally. The inhabitants are employed in the different pursuits of fishing, farming, and lumbering. The soil, although light and rather sandy, yields good crops under proper tillage. About three miles farther up the river, there is a

respectable mercantile establishment owned by Messrs. Jardin—also the Custom-house, Grammar-school, and a cluster of dwelling-houses, with ship and lumber yards. The river on this side is skirted by farms, whose proprietors appear to be in comfortable circumstances.

The main road from Shediac to Miramichi crosses the river by ferry between the town and upper villages. From the latter place, new roads have been opened to Buctouche, fifteen miles, and to a few flourishing new settlements in the rear. Among these is the Galloway village, containing forty families. About twelve miles farther up the stream is the termination of a road that was surveyed a few years ago, from thence to the Peticodiac. It was proposed by Colonel Cockburn to open a communication through the forest from the Richibucto across the Buctouche, Cocagne, and Shediac Rivers, and thereby prepare the way for a little colony of British settlers; but it is to be regretted that the enterprise failed. The land is of good quality, bearing a mixed growth of hard and soft woods. A few settlers and squatters are slowly advancing upon the line of the intended road; still, many years will elapse before the present population will reach the centre of the tract. A road has also been laid out from this stream to the Grand Lake, in Queen's County; but, without the aid of inhabitants, such routes cannot be kept free from windfalls, nor broken through in the deep snows of winter.

The Richibucto is navigable for ships fifteen miles, and the tide flows inland twenty-six miles. In that distance it is a sluggish stream. It has five branches,—the St. Nicholas, South branch, Aldoine, Molus, and Bass. The three latter streams flow from the north, and wash fine level tracts of good land. The Indians have a tract reserved for them at the mouth of the Molus River, where they have a small encampment. Being unable to maintain themselves by fishing and hunting, many of the males have put on the dress of the lumberman, and employ themselves as labourers in the common industry of the country. There is a flourishing settlement on the South branch, and a few scattered clearings are also seen near the mouths of the other tributaries; but the rear of the parish, although favourable for agriculture, is in a wilderness state. Great quantities of timber and sawed lumber are yearly floated down the Richibucto, and thence shipped to Great Britain.

All the streams in this quarter abound with salmon and trout; and cod, pollock, haddock, herrings, and other kinds of sea-fish, with lobsters, are plentiful beneath the tide. Pine and other kinds of valuable timber have been abundant; yet the large exports of wood from the river, during a few past years, have reduced the quantity, and compelled the lumbermen to extend their operations into the more inaccessible forests. As much of the timber is only squared before it is shipped, saw-mills are not very numerous, and the flatness of the country is unfavourable for great water-power, except near the sources of the rivulets, where the descent is more considerable.

The Parish of Wellington adjoins Richibucto. Its coast is indented by the beautiful harbour of Buctouche, which is twenty miles from Liverpool. This estuary receives two streams, Great and Little Buctouche Rivers. The tide flows up the larger one twelve miles. The sides of the harbours and mouths of the rivers are thinly inhabited by a mixed population of Acadians and English. The lesser stream, called by the Indians Mehalawodiak, at the head of the tide turns mills, and upon its banks there are a few fine farms. The harbour affords an excellent site for shipbuilding, and from it vessels of the largest class are despatched laden with timber and sawed lumber.

In the Parish of Dundas, Cocagne is also a safe harbour, with a wide mouth. Its exports, as usual, are ships and timber. The river of the same name is occupied by mills, and the scanty population are chiefly English. A number of the settlements along the coast are intersected by the main road from Shediac to Miramichi and Restigouche. The number of inhabitants on the immediate seaboard is very limited.

The rivers of these parishes also afford salmon, bass, alewives, and other fish: oysters are abundant near the harbours. The interior and unsettled districts have contained noble groves of red and white pine, with other kinds of timber; and notwithstanding much valuable wood has been removed, there still remains a good supply at a distance from the streams hitherto employed to float down the produce of the forests. There are several outcroppings of coal in this part of the country, yet mining forms no part of the industry of the population.

We may now proceed to notice the parish of Carlton, situated to the north, and then take a more general view of the agricultural features of

the county and its industrial resources. The Kouchibouguacsis takes its rise from a lake upwards of fifty miles in the interior, and empties itself into the Gulf thirty-six miles southward of the Miramichi. It meanders through a low and level tract, having its banks towards its mouth thinly settled. The largest village on its banks is situated about ten miles from the outlet of the stream, and contains upwards of seventy families of Acadian French, who devote their attention chiefly to husbandry. They have a large Chapel, and visiting Roman Catholic Missionary. There is a valuable unimproved fishery at the mouth of the river.

The mouth of the Kouchibouguac is six miles northward of the Kouchibouguacsis, and admits the tide to the distance of seven miles, and to the place where it is crossed by the great road of the north coast. There is here a small village, with saw and grist mills. This stream extends into the country upwards of forty miles, and is pretty well settled from its mouth to the great road, between which and the shore there is a convenient ship-yard, where a number of fine vessels have been built by Messrs. J. Cunard & Co. of Miramichi. The lands along the upper part of the stream are ungranted. Timber of the kinds before mentioned is still plentiful, and the lands are equal in quality to those of the southern parishes.

From the foregoing descriptions, it will be observed that only a very limited part of the county has been disburdened of its native forests, and brought under cultivation.* The unoccupied parishes of Huskinson and Harcourt, together with the whole rear of the county, is a close wilderness, in which there is yet to be found much excellent timber. It is true that fires have overrun some tracts, and destroyed the best wood upon them; yet there are wide fields that have been protected by the evergreen plants, and still contribute to the resources of the district. The principal kinds of soft timber are white and red pine, larch, or, backmatack, spruce, hemlock, and fir: of the hard varieties, there are birch, sugar maple, soft maple, ash, and beech.

* In almost every part of the County of Kent, good wild land may be purchased from the Government or individuals for 3s. 3d. currency per acre. By the latter a liberal credit is generally given to the steady and industrious settler.

The whole county is remarkably level, and, upon an average, its elevation above the sea will not exceed twenty feet. Every acre of its surface is upon the great coal-field of New Brunswick, and the coal itself appears, at numerous localities, accompanied by sulphureous springs. Being derived from the red and grey sandstone beneath, the soil partakes of the character of the rocks, and the description of one square mile would nearly apply to the whole surface. In general, it is a red marly or sandy loam, interspersed with gravelly patches, and beds of friable or stiff clay. The marly and silicious loams are capable of most successful cultivation; and also the gravelly soil, when mixed with a due proportion of vegetable matter, produces good crops. With these fertile tracts, there are many low alder plats, capable of being made good grass lands—and, again, swamps and peat-bogs, which can only be redeemed in an advanced state of husbandry. The numerous streams abound in usual fish; about the harbours, there are oysters, lobsters, eels, flatfish, smelts, &c. The coast affords very valuable fisheries of cod, pollock, haddock, halibut, herring, alewives, and mackerel. Herring and lobsters are sometimes so abundant, that they are very improperly taken and employed as manure for the soil.

But, to improve these numerous and valuable resources far exceeds the powers of the present limited population; nor will their descendants a hundred years hence be sufficiently numerous to bring them into active operation. This part of the Province has heretofore only been known as a lumbering district; but, far from being its most valuable object, lumbering has retarded the safer employment of agriculture, and led to the neglect of the fisheries, which of themselves are sufficient to sustain a population a hundred fold greater than that now scattered about the bays and rivers.

County of Northumberland.

This county formerly included Kent and Gloucester; but even since the separation of these two districts, it is one of the largest counties in the Province. Northumberland is bounded on the south by Kent, King's, Queen's, and Sunbury; on the west by Carlton, north-west and north by Gloucester, and north-east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Its shape is very irregular, and quite characteristic of the imperfect

division of the Province into counties, which have been laid out without much regard to regularity or the general convenience of the inhabitants. It contains nine parishes,—Newcastle, Chatham, Ludlow, Northesk, Alnwick, Blissfield, Glenelg, and Nelson. The area is 3,200,000 acres, of which only 27,000 acres are cleared. The population in 1840 was 14,600: that number has since been increased to about 18,000.

The chief river of this county, already briefly described, rises in numerous branches in the northern wilderness of Carlton, being separated from the St. John and the Tobique by short portages. In descending, its tributaries water a vast tract of country. Two of them unite about fifty miles above the harbour; and lower down, a larger branch from the north-west forms a junction, and the united streams become navigable for large ships.

Forty years ago, the resources of this part of the Province were almost unknown, except along the seaboard. The banks of the main stream, and those of its branches, were found to abound in groves of red and white pine, of which very extensive shipments have been made to the mother-country. Much of the valuable timber has been removed, and a still greater quantity was destroyed by an awful conflagration in 1825. Some of the timber on the burnt country has been, and still continues to be, manufactured into deals, shingles, laths, &c.; and, from the vast extent of the pine tracts, great exports are still made in squared and sawed lumber.

The principal ports of shipping are situated at the head of Miramichi Bay, or on the sides of the river near its mouth; yet there are several very important mercantile establishments as high up as the division of the stream into the North-west and South-west branches. The advantages afforded for ship-building have been improved, and a great number of merchant-vessels of the largest class are launched, laden with timber, and despatched annually to Great Britain. The salmon-fishery also was formerly of much consequence; but the erection of saw-mills prevents the fish from ascending the streams to deposit their ova, and they are rapidly declining in numbers.

It will appear from this outline, that the county forms a most valuable part of the Province. Its situation on the sea-coast, its fine bay

and navigable river, its facilities for the timber trade and numerous streams for machinery, render it a district of much importance. But to these there is the drawback of having the waters frozen up in winter, whereby navigation closes; yet, at that season, the lumbermen are actively employed in the woods, in preparing the timber for spring exportation, and drawing the logs over the snow to the numerous saw-mills.

Viewing the mouth of the Miramichi as the chief seat of business and population, we shall proceed to describe the different sections of the county more particularly. The first that naturally strikes our attention is that on the south shore of the bay, and river on the lower part of its course, embracing parts of the parishes of Glenelg, Nelson, and Chatham.

Entering Miramichi Bay from the southward, we find, inside of Point Escuminac, two indentations, known as Great Bay des Vents, and Little Bay des Vents. Bay des Vents River, and Black River, two small streams emptying themselves into the former, are occupied by saw-mills. At the mouth of Bay des Vents River, there is also a pretty village: Black River has a large Scotch settlement. The lands are remarkably low, but by no means unfit for cultivation. The great road already mentioned crosses these streams about seven miles from the shore, being thinly settled. The road along the margin of the river also passes through scattered clearings to the villages above mentioned.

The town of Chatham is situated on the south bank of the river, about ten miles above its junction with the bay, and upon ground that slopes gently towards the stream, the channel of which runs close to a chain of wharves and timber-booms, where the largest ships are laden with ease and safety. Chatham contains the usual accommodation in houses of worship, a printing-office, post-office, market-house, public seminary, and iron-foundry, with a number of respectable mercantile houses and ship-yards—also a superior stone steam saw-mill, owned by the Hon. Joseph Cunard. The population of the town and parish will probably exceed 4,000.

Nelson, in the parish of that name, is a snug village, fronted by wharves, shipyards and stores, and contains a Roman Catholic Chapel.

Between it and Chatham the border of the river is occupied by fine farms and handsome cottages. Two miles above the latter place, on the opposite side of the river, stands Douglastown, a compact village, containing the stores and other buildings of the extensive trading depôt long known under the firm of Gilmour, Rankine, & Co., to whom the place owes its existence. The sawing machinery below Douglastown, owned by Alexander Rankine, Esq., and the establishment of Wm. Abrams & Co., are also worthy of some notice. Still farther up the stream, in the parish of the same name, is Newcastle, the shire town of the county, standing on a level point of land at the base of a declivity. It also comprises a number of mercantile establishments, storehouses, a Presbyterian Chapel, Methodist Chapel, Court-house, Gaol, Record Office, Bank, &c., and is a place of active and general business. From it there is a good road to Fredericton, and another to Bathurst. The population of the parish is about 3,500.

The banks of the Miramichi in this quarter are pretty well settled, and agriculture has not been neglected. Cargoes of timber are also shipped from landing-places near the mouth of the stream. At Beaubair's Island, at the bifurcation of the river, was the commercial depôt of D. Fraser & Co., the oldest trading establishment in the county, and for many years the most extensive of any in the Province. All these places are encircled by wharves, timber-ponds, warehouses, and saw-mills; and the shore is frequently lined with piles of timber, deals, and other kinds of lumber.

It is much to be regretted that the towns and villages on this part of the Miramichi had not been united, whereby a large and respectable town would have been formed, which would have been equally advantageous to the inhabitants on both sides of the river, between whom serious feuds and jealousies now often arise. Such a town would also have afforded greater convenience to the lumbermen, and the shipment of the vast supplies of wood brought down from the interior.

In treating of the early history of the Province, some account has been given of the first settlements made by Europeans on the Miramichi. Its early traffic in furs and fish had declined, and it was not until 1814 or 1815 that the trade in lumber became profitable. From that period the whole district advanced in prosperity, and the exports

rapidly increased until 1825, when the northern side of the river, with its towns, villages and settlements, was doomed to be consumed by a fire that swept over the face of the country, and spread devastation and ruin far and wide.

The forests of pine, spruce, fir, and other resinous woods in America, are very liable to be consumed by fire, and there is scarcely any part of the Northern Continent that has escaped conflagration, either before or since the Continent was taken possession of by a civilised people. The different tribes of Indians have traditions of fires even more destructive than the one it is now our painful duty to record; and the charred forests buried in peat-bogs or alluviums bear testimony to the occurrence of those vast surface burnings, that are more to be dreaded than the floods of liquid lava that buried the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii. The great heat and frequently dryness of the summer months cause the resinous juices to exude from balsamic plants, whereby they are rendered very inflammable; and were it not for the almost universal admixture of the hard woods, whose juicy leaves resist the spreading of the lashing flame, such catastrophes would be more common, and far more general in their operations.

In every American State and Colony, laws have been enacted to prevent the firing of the woods in the summer and autumn; but where the clearing of land by burning the timber is an essential occupation, it cannot be surprising that accidents will happen, or by carelessness the devouring element gains the mastery, and rushes forward with devouring energy. Again, dry trees are sometimes fired by lightning; and the fire remains unextinguished until the moisture of the passing shower is dried, when it spreads abroad, being fanned into fury by the summer breeze.

The summer of 1825 in North America had been unusually hot and dry, and fires had raged with more than ordinary violence in Lower Canada, the State of Maine, and Nova Scotia. In the northern part of New Brunswick also there had been but little rain, and almost every vegetable substance lacked its usual degree of moisture. Fires were raging in the woods at Oromucto, near Fredericton, and at other places; but from them little danger was apprehended. On the 6th October the heat had greatly increased, and the atmosphere was clouded by

smoke, which rose in dense columns from different parts of the horizon. On the 7th the heat was still unabated, the heavens had a purple tint, and clouds of black smoke hovered over the devoted district. There was during the day a perfect calm and a peculiar sultriness, which is said to have thrown the inhabitants into a state of great lassitude. The cattle on the pastures became terrified, and collected in groups; and the wild animals of the forest rushed out and sought refuge among the tamer breeds. These fearful signs gave little alarm to the people, who, although warned by a few individuals, confided in their distance from the forest and the tranquil state of the atmosphere. Little preparation was therefore made for the approaching calamity. At seven o'clock P.M. a brisk gale sprung up, and the greatest darkness prevailed, except over the line of the fire, the light of which could be seen at times flashing among the clouds of smoke. At eight, the wind increased to a swift hurricane from the west; and soon afterwards a loud and most appalling roar was heard, with explosions and a crackling like that of discharges of musketry. The air was filled with pieces of burning wood and cinders, which were driven along by the gale, igniting everything upon which they fell. The roaring grew louder, and sheets of flame seemed to pierce the sky. It was then the agonies of the distracted inhabitants appeared, and horrors of the most awful description were seen in every direction;—the screams of the burnt, burning, and wounded; men and women carrying their children, the sick, aged, and infirm, through clouds of smoke and showers of fire that threatened instant destruction. Many believed that the day of final judgment had arrived, and gave themselves over to despair. The piercing cry of "To the river!" was not unheeded. Some plunged into the water, others collected in boats and scows or rafts, or floated on logs, for protection. Domestic and even wild animals, uttering mournful cries, mingled with the people, the former dragging their half-burnt bodies through the cinders of their burning stalls. The whole surface of the earth was on fire, and everything of a combustible nature united in sending up the last broad flame, that laid the country, with its towns, villages, and settlements, in heaps of smouldering ashes. In the space of a single hour, Newcastle, Douglastown, and the villages along the northern side of the river were consumed; of five hundred buildings

only twenty-five remained. The Barracks, Court-house, Presbyterian Church, Hospital, and upwards of 240 houses and stores were destroyed at the former place. Three ships with their cargoes were burnt in the harbour, and two more upon the stocks. But the great fire had not been confined to this district; it had swept over the whole country from the Bartibog to the Nashwaak, a distance of more than one hundred miles. It had rushed across the mountains of the Upper Tobique, upwards of a hundred miles distant, in another direction, and wrapt in flame an area of more than 6,000 square miles; and it is still painful to reflect upon the horrors experienced by many new settlers and lumbermen, who with their families perished in the burning wilderness, and whose remains were afterwards found in those attitudes of filial and paternal affection that are so fully exhibited in the hour of affliction and danger. A number of lumbermen preserved their lives by wallowing in the brooks until the fire had subsided, and a few families were preserved by similar expedients. So intense was the heat at places where the forest hung over the streams, that thousands of salmon and other kinds of fish were killed and cast upon the shores. Great numbers of wild animals were also destroyed; and it is stated by an eye-witness, that birds were drawn into the flames by some singular fascination.

A more melancholy scene can scarcely be imagined than this part of New Brunswick presented on the following day. The whole forest was a blackened mass of leafless and still-burning timber. Every vegetable, including the crops of the husbandman, was burnt up, and the entire surface of the cleared land was shrouded in a black mantle. Along the northern borders of the Miramichi, groups of half-naked and houseless inhabitants were to be seen bewailing the loss of husbands, wives, children, and friends. With them were the burned and wounded, receiving the kind aid of those who had escaped unscorched. The sufferings of these people were indeed of the most painful character; but they were promptly relieved by the inhabitants of the opposite side of the river and the Province generally, whose charitable associations and benevolent ladies supplied money, clothes, and provisions; and, by generous contributions, the losses sustained under a painful dispensation of Divine Providence were greatly reduced.

The amount of loss incurred by the great fire, according to an account laid before Sir Howard Douglas, then Lieutenant-Governor of the Province, and made up at Miramichi, was £227,713 13s. 6d. That sum only included personal property, goods, buildings, crops, &c. destroyed. £39,259 7s. 10d. was nobly contributed in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Canada, the United States, and Great Britain, and applied to the immediate relief of the sufferers; but the calamity had extended almost beyond the bounds of calculation, and the Province sustained an irreparable loss in her forests of timber, which has been estimated at £500,000. The towns and villages destroyed have since been recovered, and are now more extensive and better built than they were before the conflagration.

It is not a little remarkable, that on the same day the District of Miramichi was laid in ruins, fires broke out in the County of York, and near the Oromucto. At the former place, while the inhabitants were engaged in subduing the devouring element a mile from Fredericton, a fire took place in the town, and consumed eighty-nine buildings and other property to the amount of £50,000. Twenty houses and barns were also burnt in the neighbourhood of the Oromucto. The number of persons burnt and drowned at Miramichi was 160; buildings destroyed, 595; cattle destroyed, 875.—But we turn from this painful record to describe the remaining part of the county.

The South-west branch of the river receives a number of minor streams. Of these are, Barnaby River, extending into the parish of Glenelg; the Renous stream has a pretty settlement near its mouth. The Etienne reaches into the Parish of Blackville, where there are several flourishing new clearings, occupied chiefly by Irish emigrants. The banks of the main stream are also thinly settled from Newcastle to Boistown; and even above that place a number of families have established themselves upon the wild lands. There is much good soil in this quarter—although some tracts have an uneven surface, and are rather stony. Between the main South-west branch, towards its sources, and the St. John, will be found an immense tract of land whose soil is better than ordinary, and few places in the Province offer greater encouragement for extensive agricultural operations.

About a mile above Newcastle, the North-west (Minagua of the

Indians) joins the Southern branch. It takes its rise near the Tobique Lakes, and high lands at the head of the Nepisiguit. Between the two streams there is a portage to the Falls of the latter. The North-west branch is perhaps eighty miles in length, and its chief tributaries are Tomoganops and Sevogle. All these rivulets are navigable for light canoes, unless at the places where they are broken by falls; and they are very useful in affording a passage for the provisions required by the lumbermen, and for floating down the timber. A few adventurers have commenced the clearing of land on their lower banks.

The main branch is well populated on both of its sides to the distance of twenty miles from its mouth; and at a short distance from the stream there is a thriving settlement of Welsh Methodists, who, with the Roman Catholics and the Baptists, have commodious chapels in the principal villages. The mouth of the North-west branch is navigable for ships, and the tide flows up its channel fifteen miles. Saw-mills are very numerous, and the stream sends down great quantities of manufactured lumber annually.

A small river called the Bartibog empties itself into Miramichi Bay. It runs through an Irish settlement containing about forty families, and turns several saw-mills. It was formerly well timbered; but its pineries were destroyed, and the surface presents a gloomy aspect since the occurrence of the great fire. From Newcastle to Burnt Church there is a passable road, bordered by a succession of farms. This place, formerly called Neguac, is an ancient camping-ground of the Indians, who still occupy a reserve of several hundred acres, and resort to it in the fishing season. The lands are light, and but imperfectly tilled by the few inhabitants scattered along the shore. Extensive sand-bars have been driven up along the coast; but beyond these there are some excellent fishing-grounds, which are seldom visited by the inhabitants, who prefer lumbering to almost any other pursuit.

Taboosintac,* the only remaining river to be noticed in the county, springs from numerous branches in low tracts of land remote from the shore, and wends its way through some good belts of intervale and upland, covered by the pines, birch, and maple. It finally makes its

* Indian—"The place of two families or persons."

débouchement into a lagoon opened by a channel of seven feet water at common tides. Timber is prepared for market in this quarter, and transported hence to the Miramichi. It has a village of about sixty families, with saw and grist mills; but the occupancy of the lands has been retarded from the existence of an Indian reserve at the mouth of the tributary called Cowwesiget, which includes five miles of the river's bank. In spring, the mouth of the stream supplies plenty of alewives; and in August, salmon, herring, and mackerel frequent the coast—although few of them are taken, and little advantage is derived from the fishery. From this place there are bad roads to Tracodie and Neguac. Old Indian portages are still travelled between the rivers. Along these streams, and at their sources, there is a wide and advantageous field for the introduction of emigrants, thousands of whom might enter upon the lands with advantage to themselves, and benefit to this part of the county, which at present is almost destitute of roads.

Almost the entire area of Northumberland is within the limits of the great coal-field of the Province. At several places coal has been discovered, and at others there are indications of its existence. The lands along the coast, like those of the eastern districts, are very low, and at the distance of fifty miles from the seaboard they are scarcely raised forty feet above the tide level. This observation will not, however, apply to the wilderness country at the sources of the North-west Miramichi, where there are mountains of considerable altitude. In the soils there is considerable diversity. The intervalles along the streams are chiefly fine dark-coloured alluviums, which produce good crops of grain: the higher terraces contain more sand and gravel, and produce excellent grain of different kinds, also potatoes and garden vegetables. Having resulted from the disintegration of the sandstones beneath, many of the upland soils are of a dark, red, or chocolate colour, and the marly varieties will endure several croppings without the application of manure. With these are the gravelly and sandy loams most frequently reposing on thick beds of *detritus*. They are more porous and less fertile, and do not retain their moisture in seasons of drought. Independently of its timber and fisheries, the county, under a general view, must be considered favourable for agriculture, fishing, and the ultimate introduction of general manufacture.

County of Gloucester.

The County of Gloucester was divided by an Act of the Provincial Parliament in March 1837, and all its former western part, from Belle Dune River, now constitutes the County of Restigouche. It therefore joins Northumberland on the east and south, Restigouche on the west, and the Bay Chaleurs on the north. It contains 1,037,440 square acres, and the latter has a population of about 9,000 souls on 12,000 acres of cleared land. The parishes are, Bathurst, Beresford, New Bandon, Caraquet, and Saumarez. From the great extent of the sea-coast and the number of its rivers, Gloucester possesses great facilities for navigation, fishing, and lumbering.

Bathurst (formerly called St. Peter's), the shire town and a flourishing sea-port, is situated at the head of a beautiful bay of that name. This place was the boundary between the Mohawk Indians of Canada and the Micmacs of Nova Scotia, and several sanguinary conflicts have taken place between those tribes in its vicinity. It is supposed to have been occupied by Monsieur Jean-Jacques Enaud as early as 1638.

The town is built upon two somewhat elevated points of land, which are separated from each other by a shallow estuary. Across this estuary a bridge has been constructed upon piles, whereby a ready communication is afforded between its opposite sides. The east side of Bathurst Point is washed by the mouth of the Nepisiguit. The site of the town is one of the most beautiful spots in the Province. It commands a view of the bay and islands, and the villages and clearings on their borders, being more than ordinarily healthy. The town is laid out in a regular manner, and contains a number of handsome dwelling-houses, warehouses, mercantile and ship-building establishments, an Episcopal Church, Methodist Chapel, Custom-house, Court-house, and Gaol. At the western extremity of the bridge are the mercantile houses of Francis Ferguson, Esq.; and a cluster of buildings are stretched along the base of a hill, which is surmounted by a spacious and handsome Roman Catholic Chapel and Missionary residence. The little basin is also bordered by good farms and comfortable cottages. The town plat at its eastern side is the principal site for ship-building, and frequently from five to ten merchant-ships of the largest class rest upon their

stocks with only sufficient space between them for the workmen to pass from the timber-yards to the shore. The front of the town is often occupied by rafts, and piles of squared timber and deals. A number of ships are annually loaded in the harbour and at the bar for the British market, and during the summer season the whole scene is enlivened by active industry. The great road from the Southern Counties is continued across the Nepisiguit at Bathurst by a ferry. A bridge over this stream is still a desideratum.

Four rivers empty themselves into Bathurst Harbour. Of these the most important is the Great Nepisiguit.* This river (which, with its falls, has been briefly noticed in a former chapter) is computed to be one hundred miles in length. The main trunk, and its branches, the Laskoodic, Parbooktic, and Pabineau, descend from the western wilderness, and through dense forests of white and red pine, interspersed by belts of beech, birch, maple, and other kinds of hard wood. It is thinly inhabited to a short distance from its mouth. Timber may be floated down this stream from a great distance, although the Falls, twenty miles from Bathurst, present an obstacle of no ordinary magnitude. Timber in descending this cascade is frequently hurled into the air and broken by its fall, or, being forced against the projecting angles of rock, is much splintered and otherwise injured. Probably a sluice might be constructed wherein it would pass endwise over the precipice, and fall in the same position into the deep water beneath.

Middle River and Little Nepisiguit are small rivulets partially occupied by settlers on their lower borders. The Tootoogoose † is a pretty stream flowing from a lake twenty-five miles distant. At its mouth there is an extensive and valuable farming estate, the property of Hugh Munroe, Esq. Seven miles above, there is a flourishing Scotch settlement gradually expanding itself into the forest.

In 1837, the Provincial Government granted a lease for fifty years to a Company, called the Gloucester Mining Association, of all such mines and minerals as they should discover, open, and work in the

* Called by the Indians, Winkapiguwick; signifying, "boisterous or troubled water."

† Tootoogoose, "Fairy River" of the Indians; corrupted by the French into Tête-à-gouche, and frequently called Tattygouch.

term of five years from that date. In the latter period, the Company expended much labour and money in searching for copper at the mouth of the Great Nepisiguit, and in boring for coal, at the Capes, eighteen miles below Bathurst. In both of those undertakings they were unsuccessful; but in exploring for copper on the Tootoogoose River, an ore of manganese was discovered, and proved to be of good quality. The mine is situated in the bank of the above stream, eight miles from Bathurst, in the side of a cliff 150 feet high. The river at this place falls twenty-five feet, and the water has been ingeniously turned to propel the machinery required for cleansing the ore, several hundred tons of which have been shipped for England. The Company have expended upwards of £10,000 in the enterprise; but, unfortunately, they have not yet received any interest from the outlay, notwithstanding the zeal and ability of William Stephens, Esq. their Agent, and the undertaking is likely to be abandoned.

All these rivulets descend through tracts of good soil; but at their sources the land is rather broken and hilly: yet even in such situations there are many tracts worthy of cultivation. The soils in the neighbourhood of Bathurst are generally productive, and agriculture has advanced rapidly during the last few years. Francis Ferguson, Esq. has upwards of eighty acres under cultivation, and by applying compost manure, formed chiefly of lime and peat, he has raised abundant crops of wheat and other kinds of grain. That gentleman and others in the town have done much to improve the agriculture of the county, and the district may now be looked upon as a proper resort for a large population.

Leaving Bathurst, we may return to the coast, and examine the Parish of Saumarez, which embraces the headland, with its islands, situated between Miramichi and Bay Chaleurs.

At the mouth of Tracadie Rivers, there is a lagoon twelve miles long, with an average breadth of a mile. Through the sand-bar forming the basin, the channel is too shallow to admit large vessels; and from the constant shifting of the shingle beaches, the pilotage is rendered difficult. These are small sluggish streams, and the lands are rather sandy. Red and white pine are still to be obtained in considerable supplies. There are here several large and compact settlements of Acadian French, containing altogether not less than one thousand souls.

About fifty boats and shallops are employed in fishing; and cured fish are annually shipped to the markets of Miramichi, Halifax, and Gaspé. Agriculture is pursued by a part of the population. At Great Tracadie there is a handsome Chapel, and many of the inhabitants are in very independent circumstances.

Pockmouche is a broad and shallow stream, not exceeding thirty miles in length. Its borders have been well timbered, and there are some intervalles near its sources. Small plats of salt marsh at its mouth produce wild hay. The uplands are very low, and often light and sandy. The population of Pockmouche is about five hundred persons, Acadians and Irish, who are chiefly employed in fishing, hewing timber, and farming. The principal village has its Chapel and School, and mills have been erected on the stream.

The Harbours of Shippegan and Caraquette have been already described. From their peculiar situation at the extremity of a cape projecting deeply into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, they afford many advantages for fishing, and ample security to the trade and shipping of the coast. The Islands of Shippegan, Miscou, and Poksudie, also, from being indented by numerous small coves or bays, are especially adapted for fishing stations. The former of these is twenty miles long. The soil, where it is sufficiently elevated to be tilled, is a light sandy loam, not unfavourable for cultivation with sea-manure. It produces small birch, fir and spruce, with cranberries, whortleberries, and other wild fruits.

On the western shores of the island there are two settlements, called Big and Little Amacque. The oysters of this island are considered excellent, and cargoes of them are annually shipped to Halifax and Quebec.

Miscou Island, forming the extremity of the cape, is twenty-one miles in circumference. Its northern point is in lat. $47^{\circ} 58'$, and in long. $64^{\circ} 30'$. Previous to the conquest of Canada, the French had an extensive fishing establishment at this place, owned by the "Company of Miscou." The remains of their buildings are still to be seen. It was afterwards occupied by Campbell, a disbanded Highland soldier, and his family, three of whom were drowned in an attempt to cross to Shippegan in a boat. Mall Bay, a convenient indentation on its

southern side, is bordered by tracts of marsh and meadow, which produce wild hay abundantly. The fishing season is between the 1st of June and the 10th of July, at which time the boats and vessels of Caraquette, Shippegan, and Gaspé hover around the shores, and take from fifteen to twenty thousand quintals of cod, pollock, and haddock annually.

These islands, with those of Poksudie, Miscou, and Caraquette, are inhabited by foxes; and upon them wild geese and ducks bring forth their brood. The Americans fish in these waters with impunity.

Opposite Big and Little Amacque, on the main land, is the settlement of Shippegan, whose population, with that of the island, will exceed 900 souls. The inhabitants are chiefly Acadian French, who devote their time almost exclusively to the cod-fishery, in which they employ upwards of fifty boats and a number of small shallops. The latter craft also fish in the Gulf, and on the banks of Prince Edward's Island. The soil of Shippegan might be successfully cultivated; but, until of late, its capabilities have not been tested by experience. Rafts of timber are sometimes *poled* along the shore to Miramichi. The exports of fish and lumber from this place have increased rapidly during the last few years, and now amount to £20,000 per annum. The principal business has been transacted by the Agents of Messrs. Robin & Co., and Le Boutillier & Brothers, of the Island of Jersey, and who are also extensively engaged in the fisheries of Gaspé.

The settlement of Caraquette stretches along the shore to the distance of twelve miles. At its head is the site of an old Roman Catholic Chapel, one of the most beautiful spots in the Province. On one of its sides, a stream of water gushes from the rock; and on the other is a plat of greensward, surrounded by a rich forest of birch and maple. It also commands a view of the bay and harbours below, and the distant mountains of Gaspé. The present chapel is a handsome stone building, of dimensions suitable to contain 800 persons, and its interior is highly decorated with paintings and sculpture.

The land is fertile, and, under careful culture, produces grain and the vegetables common to the country in abundance. The population will amount to 1,500. They are nearly all Acadians—among whom may be observed the complexion and features of the Micmac Indians, who

during the early settlement of the country married with these people, such a union being encouraged by the French Government from motives of policy. They send upwards of a hundred boats and a number of schooners to the fisheries, and from them derive their domestic supplies, and a surplus for exportation.

About thirty families are scattered along the shore to Grand Ance, where there is also a chapel and several mills. Still farther westward, there is a group of upwards of eighty families, chiefly Irish from Bandon near Cork : hence their village is called New Bandon.

The whole of the lands forming this cape, with its adjacent islands, are very low, being seldom elevated above the sea more than sixteen feet. Its level is only interrupted by the channels of the river and brooks, many of which have their beds but a little lower than the surface. The drier tracts are not the less fertile on that account ; but, from the lack of a quick drainage, bogs and swamps are more common than they are in higher districts. The soils are not dissimilar to those of other parts of the coal-field, and on many of the wilderness tracts they will be found strong and well adapted for wheat and other kinds of grain.

We have seen that this tract of country, containing at least a thousand square miles, is only occupied by clusters of inhabitants at the mouths of the rivers and sides of the harbours : even along the borders of the coast, the native green forest extends to the brink of the sea, being but partially indented by clearings. In general, only the first tier of lots has been granted ; the remaining part of the soil the Government is ready to dispose of to industrious cultivators. All the streams abound in trout and eels at all times : salmon, bass, gaspereau or alewives, and other kinds of fish, are readily taken in their season. In the deeper waters, are cod, pollock, haddock, halibut, &c. ; and oysters and lobsters are remarkably plentiful. Wild geese, ducks of various kinds, curlew, plover, partridges, and other birds, are still numerous.

This part of the county may be considered to be still in a wilderness state, and almost without any facilities of communication except by water. A road is marked on several maps as running along the whole coast ; but it has no real existence, nor are there any bridges across

many of the numerous streams of the parish. The making of roads and the introduction of agriculture would lead to the more vigorous prosecution of the fisheries; but until there are settlers to occupy the lands, the opening of roads in the wilderness is of doubtful expediency.

Proceeding along the south shore of Bay Chaleurs from Bathurst to the mouth of the Restigouche, a distance of seventy miles, we find a few scattered villages and settlements upon the immediate border of the sea. The interior country is but little known, except by a few Indian hunters and lumbermen. It abounds in lakes and rivulets. The latter descend from the mountainous chain already noticed, and which terminates at the sources of the principal tributaries of the St. John, and the rivers falling into the Gulf and Bay. Much of the soil is evidently good, and there are tracts of table land admirably adapted for the plough. The surface is greatly diversified by hill and valley, and presents a scene of unusual wildness and solitude.

A few miles northward of the Nepisiguit, there is a settlement called Petit Roche, comprising two hundred families of French Acadians, whose ancestors fled from Nova Scotia during its early troubles. The farms and buildings of these people are small, and lack the neatness sometimes seen in French villages. They have a large Chapel. The threefold objects of farming, fishing, and lumbering, pursued by the inhabitants, are sufficient to account for their slow advancement. Limestone is calcined in this village, and shipped to Prince Edward's Island.

At Belle Dune there are some good farms. The wild lands are chiefly covered with beautiful groves of birch, and other kinds of hard wood. Cedar and spruce are common on the lower tracts; limestone is abundant; and caplin and herring come in such multitudes, that they are caught and carted upon the soil for manure. The application of fish for manure should not be tolerated; and it has been discovered, that although they increase the growth of a few crops, the lands are ultimately injured by them, and require annually the unnatural stimulus. The settlers are chiefly Irish Roman Catholics, who have a Chapel and the occasional services of a Missionary. Francis Guitan, one of its earliest inhabitants, was one of the dragoons who conducted Robespierre to the guillotine, and served with Bonaparte at Marengo and Lodi.

County of Restigouche.

Still advancing along the coast, we enter the District of Restigouche. This county is bounded on the south-east by Gloucester, south-west by wilderness lands, and north by the Bay Chaleurs and Restigouche, or the boundary between New Brunswick and Canada. It contains 1,266,560 square acres.

Jacquet River, about nine miles from Belle Dune, descends from the mountains to the south. It is a rapid stream, scarcely navigable for canoes. The lands near its mouth are of good quality, and may be rendered very fertile by the application of lime and marl, of which there is an abundant supply on the shore. At a short distance from the seashore they are still ungranted. This part of the Bay-side is sheltered by Heron Island and Black Point, which form a safe harbour. The population is scattered.

It is very desirable that the new road between Bathurst and Dalhousie should be completed, and the erection of a bridge over Jacquet River is necessary to a safe and comfortable conveyance between those towns. In 1842 the road was a series of swamps, partially filled by short logs, or projecting masses of rock, ever threatening a capsizing to the passenger. The traveller is sometimes relieved of these obstacles by being driven along a narrow path to the very brink of the sea-wall—or among the soft sand, and slippery kelp, and driftwood of the shore, where both horse and driver are sometimes greeted with a shower of spray from every wave. The bridges across the gullies are like those built by children, after a heavy shower, except that some of them are upon a larger scale, and more deserving of the appellation of horse-traps. To add to these impediments, the inhabitants, where the ground is level, have encroached upon the pathways, leaving only the length of a cart-axle between the fences for the accommodation of the *voyageur*, who at almost every step is saluted by the kind "*Prenez-garde*" of the watchful Acadians.

At Nash's Creek, there is a small settlement a mile and a half inland: from it to Dalhousie the distance is nineteen miles. Benjamin River, North and South Rivers Charlo, are small rapid streams.

New Mills, formerly called Merloguish, was first occupied by a

Mr. Rumpoft, a Dutch merchant, who for many years was engaged in ship-building and fishing at that place. The establishment was since occupied by Wm. Fleming, Esq., who erected grist and saw mills upon the stream. Heron and a cluster of smaller islands afford good shelter for vessels, and the inshore fishery is still valuable.

The margin of this part of the Bay is very thinly settled. The population consists of Provincials, Scotch, Irish, and Acadian French, who appear to live together in great harmony. Some fine fields have been cleared; and since the attention of the inhabitants has been directed to husbandry, their labour has been rewarded by substantial crops. Wheat, although late in ripening, often yields from twenty to thirty bushels per acre; oats produce a certain crop; and all kinds of vegetables may be successfully cultivated.

Across the mouth of Eel River the sea has thrown up a bank of sand a mile in length, and the site thus offered for a road has been improved. A bridge has been erected to connect the sand-bar with the opposite side of the stream. The remainder of the distance to Dalhousie is four miles, and the road passes over three sharp ridges of trap rock.

Eel River is a long, narrow stream: it commences near the Upsalquitch, and traverses a fine level district of fertile land almost surrounded by mountains. An opening has been made upon a tract recently surveyed, called the Colebrooke Settlement, in honour of Sir William Colebrooke. There are also settlements on each side of the river near its *débouchement*. Still, a great quantity of these lands are ungranted, and there are few localities where a respectable class of settlers would meet with greater encouragement.

The Indians have a grant at this place of 400 acres, and they resort to it during fishing and shooting seasons. Their land, however, is very low and swampy, and scarcely fit for tillage. The sea-wall thrown up across the estuary has formed a large shallow basin, with a muddy bottom, which affords one of the best fisheries for eels in the Province. The eels are taken by the Indians at all seasons of the year, and supply them with an important part of their food. When they are skinned and dried, they are by no means unpalatable; and when fresh, they are considered by many to be very delicious.

It is rather singular, that cod-fish in quest of food enter this and

other shallow estuaries along the coast during the winter season. The Indians cut holes through the ice, and strike them with spears. Eels are taken in the same manner. Trout, smelts, and flatfish are also numerous; and in spring and autumn the little bay is the resort of wild geese and other kinds of water-fowl.

The shores, bays, and inlets between Bathurst and Dalhousie afford excellent fisheries for cod, pollock, haddock, halibut, herring, sea-trout, smelts, eels, and other varieties of fish. Caplin are so numerous, that they are often applied to the soil for manure. This destruction of the small fish reduces the quantity of food intended by nature for the larger ones, and, if continued, will greatly injure the fisheries. Providence never intended that any of her gifts should be thus abused; and in a district where limestone and marl are abundant, the practice is inexcusable, and should be prevented by law.

Seals of different kinds are frequently seen in considerable numbers in the Bay. They were taken by the first inhabitants of this part of the Province, who carried on a considerable trade in seal-skins and oil. At present the seal-fishery is not attended to.

Whales of the *humpback* variety frequent the coasts, and are taken at the mouth of the St. Lawrence and in the Gulf. They also visit the Bay Chaleurs; but the inhabitants are not prepared to encounter them, although they are readily captured by export whalers.

These waters abound in wild geese and ducks of various kinds. Of the former, flocks containing thousands feed upon the shores during the autumn, until the season of their migration arrives, when they depart for warmer latitudes.

The County of Restigouche is divided into five parishes,—namely, Dalhousie, Addington, Durham, Colbourne, and Eldon. The population in 1840 was 3,161, exclusive of about 1,200 persons who were supposed to be engaged in the woods, in lumbering, at the time the census was taken. At that period, the Parish of Eldon contained only eight dwelling-houses and twenty-seven acres of cleared land. The whole quantity of cleared land in the county at the present time will not exceed 6,500 square acres, and therefore a particular account of each parish is unnecessary.

The Restigouche is a majestic and very beautiful river, falling into

the spacious harbour at the head of the Bay Chaleurs; and its tributaries irrigate more than five thousand square miles of territory. The main river springs from a lake in Lower Canada, and through branches that approach Lakes Temiscouta and Metis. Sixty miles from its *débouchement* into the bay, the river turns from a south-west to a north-west course, and receives a large branch that nearly approaches the St. John. A large tributary, called the Upsalquitch, also enters from the south-east, about forty miles above the head of the bay. The whole length of the main stream is about two hundred miles, and the waters that are navigable for canoes and rafts will exceed a distance of four hundred miles.

The river and its tributaries descend through a tract of country of varied resources and beautiful scenery. They drain a part of that spur of the Alleghany Mountain that crosses the St. John, and occupies the central parts of the District of Gaspé. Its appendant tributaries rush from the mountain ravines with great impetuosity, and throw themselves into frightful rapids, or over falls, until they reach the narrow valley of the main stream, whence they are sufficiently tranquil to admit of being navigated in safety. Upon the borders, and remote from these water-courses, red pine, white pine, and other kinds of valuable wood are abundant; and, by the skill of the lumberman, the timber is launched down the steep declivities and perpendicular cliffs, through the rapids and over the falls, until it floats in the tide.

This part of the Province has been spared from those devouring fires which have been so destructive to the timber in the District of Miramichi, and other parts of New Brunswick; and a century will elapse before the forests of Gaspé and Restigouche will be exhausted of their timber resources. The valuable fisheries of the Bay, under proper management, would supply the elements of a very extensive trade; and the valleys, slopes, and table lands of the interior wilderness are capable of being advantageously cultivated. In the centre of this great theatre of offered industry and employment, is the splendid Harbour of Restigouche, which is sufficiently spacious to contain the whole navy of Great Britain, and rivers upon which the first produce of the country can be cheaply transported.

The entrance of the River or Harbour of Restigouche is between

Magashua Point on the north, and Bon Amie's Rock on the south. The distance between these two headlands is three miles ; and there are nine fathoms of water, without a bar or shoal to interrupt the navigation of the port's mouth.

Dalhousie, the shire town of the county, stands at the base of a high ridge of trap rock on the south side of the river, a little above its mouth. It contains about one hundred and thirty buildings, among which are the usual number devoted to religious worship, a Court-house, Gaol, and Grammar-school. The principal mercantile establishments front the river, which is lined by wharves, ship-yards, and timber-booms. The site of the town is on an inclined plane ; but the entrance to it from the eastward, by land, is over a steep hill, which might be avoided by giving the road another direction.

In the harbour there are two small islands, surrounded by deep water, and affording shelter for vessels of the largest class. The opposite side of the river, which is uninhabited, expands into a beautiful bay, bordered by high cliffs of red sandstone. A very extensive timber trade is carried on from this port to Great Britain ; fish is also an article of traffic. The supplies of provisions are chiefly received from Quebec. During a decline of the timber trade, the attention of a number of the inhabitants was directed to agriculture ; and the Agricultural Society of Restigouche has given an encouragement to husbandry which will not lose its effect now that commerce has again revived.

The scenery of the town, with its harbour and islands, is very interesting ; but it is tame when compared with a more extended view. The whole District of Gaspé presents bold and precipitous eminences, flanked along the shore by perpendicular cliffs of brick-red sandstone and other rocks, which are cut through where the streams make their exit into the bay. Upon these cliffs there is a long tract of table land, which skirts the shore, while in the rear it rises into mountains of the most striking and picturesque character. From the hill in the rear of Dalhousie, the Tracadegash and other mountains of Gaspé are seen rising in great grandeur ; and the whole country northward is covered with majestic cones, which are wooded to their very summits. Between the sharp alpine ridges, walled in by cliffs, there are narrow valleys,

washed by the collected mountain torrents in their rapid descent towards the sea. This, the north-eastern extremity of the Alleghany chain, maintains its bold features to its termination near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and offers to the eye a view of an unknown mountain wilderness.

The Restigouche is navigable for large ships eighteen miles; in that distance its average breadth is nearly two miles. Its southern bank is occupied by a scattered population. The soil is of medium quality; and the surface, a little remote from the river, is broken by closely-wooded hills and ravines.

Point Aninnipk, eight miles, and Point Le Garde, twelve miles above Dalhousie, on the Gaspé side, are bold prominences, and were military stations during the struggles of France to regain the Colony. Battery Point, two miles higher up, was also occupied by a French fort. Several pieces of cannon have been found in the sand; and muskets, pistols, swords, and culinary utensils have been dug up from the remains of this fortification. A few years ago, a bottle of molasses and a small case of wine were also recovered from among its ruins.* This fort was destroyed by Captain Byron in 1760. It is now covered by a growth of forest-trees. The Gaspé side of the river at this place also is uninhabited.

Campbelltown is situated sixteen miles above Dalhousie. It is a compact village, with several trading-houses, docks, and timber-ponds. A number of ships are annually loaded at this place, and it maintains a brisk trade with the lumbering parties in the forests. The lands on each side of the river are rather broken and rocky. There is, nevertheless, a narrow flat of good soil along the edge of the stream, which still continues wide and navigable for ships.

In the rear of the town there is a conspicuous eminence called Sugar-loaf Mountain. It is 844 feet high, and nearly three miles in circumference at its base. The side fronting the river is a perpendicular cliff, from which a collection of enormous boulders extend around the eminence. It can only be ascended in safety on the east

* Mr. Cooney's work on New Brunswick and Gaspé, 1832.

side.* At other places, boulders weighing several tons are easily put in motion, when they roll down the side of the mountain, crushing the trees at its foot. From its top, it appears to rise from a valley like a lofty tower. The view from the summit of this hill is extremely grand and beautiful. The chain of mountains, with lofty peaks, running through Gaspé, indents the horizon to the north-east. The Bay Chaleurs and Restigouche, with their infant towns and villages, fill up the scenery below. To the north, there is a wide area of table land, covered by a living mantle of evergreens.

Three miles above Campbelltown, there is the large estate of Robert Ferguson, Esq., one of the first British settlers on the Restigouche. His establishment is situated upon a tract containing two hundred acres of intervale, the chief part of which is under cultivation. Mrs. Ferguson was the first English child born in this part of the Province. The sons of the above gentleman are still engaged in the timber trade of the county. The example and industry of this family, and a few others, have mainly contributed to the improvement of this part of the Restigouche.

The lands on the Gaspé side of the river at this place are high and broken. The stream is skirted by a few level plats, and small collections of marsh alluvium. The largest of these level tracts is Mission Point, the former residence of the Roman Catholic Missionary to the Micmac Indians. It contains upwards of one thousand acres of good land, which reposes upon a coal-field, and at an admirable site for a town. The Point belongs to the Indians, two hundred families of whom are settled upon it. They have a large Chapel and Mission-house, and small parcels of land under cultivation. These people are visited annually by a Commissioner of Indian Affairs from Quebec, from whom they receive an allowance granted by the Government. In general, they are honest and industrious, and derive a living from lumbering, fishing, and agriculture.

At Point-au-Bourdo, three miles higher up, there is also a tract of

* We reached the summit of the Sugar-loaf in 1842 by its western side; but on returning it was necessary to descend over some of the cliffs on the decayed and partially-fallen trees—by no means a safe expedient.

level ground. This was the site of the French town Petite Rochelle; and the shores above and below that place were occupied by French villages, until they were destroyed by Captain Byron. They are now shipping-places, and the margin of the river is skirted by a number of large and very valuable estates.

The entrance of the Metis or Kempt Road is about a mile above Point-au-Bourdo, and twenty-four miles above Dalhousie. This road was intended to open a communication between the settlements on the Bay Chaleurs and Canada, and to form a part of the military route between the Provinces first proposed by Sir Howard Douglas; but it has never been opened to any great extent, notwithstanding it is the only land communication between the Bay and the St. Lawrence. The mail was formerly carried up the south-western branch of the Restigouche, and across a portage to Grand River and the St. John. It now passes once a week over the Gaspé Mountains. The mail-carrier rides on horseback about sixty miles, from the Restigouche to the Patapédia Lakes, where he feeds his horse on wild hay; he then walks upwards of forty miles, to the Metis River. This route is uninhabited, and the path followed by the postman is over a mountainous and broken tract of wilderness country.

The distance between Campbelltown and Fredericton, along the present circuitous road, is upwards of two hundred miles, while on a direct route it would scarcely exceed one hundred miles. The necessity of opening a communication between those two places is yearly growing more urgent, and a free opening between the Bay Chaleurs across the country to the St. Lawrence is equally desirable.

Since it has been proposed to construct a railway between Halifax and Quebec around the head estuaries of the Bay of Fundy, the inhabitants of the southern border of the Lower St. Lawrence have expressed an earnest desire to run the line across the Restigouche, and thereby unite the towns and settlements of the Bay Chaleurs with those of Canada. It is certain that such a line must necessarily pass through the mountainous districts already described; it may nevertheless be quite practicable. The opening of the railway as already proposed, to approach the Grand Falls of the St. John, would materially change the sites of the common roads between these two Provinces; but, at the

same time, it would confer advantages upon the inhabitants that can now scarcely be anticipated. From its excellent harbours, numerous rivers, fisheries, timber, and other resources, the northern part of New Brunswick is rapidly rising in importance. The opening of the railway, or the roads already alluded to, would render accessible to the emigrant and settler vast tracts of valuable country, and bring into operation much of the natural produce of the districts at present unoccupied. The upper part of the Restigouche and its tributaries, all flowing through wild forests, have been described with the other rivers of the Province.

For many years after its first discovery, the Restigouche afforded a most profitable salmon-fishery; but since the waters have been visited by crowds of lumbermen with their rafts, tow-boats and canoes, and saw-mills have been erected on the smaller rivulets, it has declined: and there is an annual decrease in the number of salmon that frequent the stream.

On the Gaspé side of the Bay Chaleurs, there are a number of flourishing settlements: among them are the villages of Nouvelle, New Richmond, Tracadegash, and Caspediac. The inhabitants are a mixed population of Acadians, Irish, and Americans, many of whom are occupied in the different employments of fishing, lumbering, farming, and hunting. The remoteness of their situation from the seat of Government, and the want of a land communication to the St. Lawrence, have retarded the advancement of their civil and moral institutions; and too frequently there is a reckless disregard of the laws of the country, which heretofore have been very imperfectly administered among them.*

The facilities of communication by water had a material effect upon the construction of roads in the Province during its early settlement—and, indeed, until a few years ago, a good road could scarcely be found

* It is necessary that emigrants, or persons in any part of Great Britain who intend to settle in the northern parts of New Brunswick, should embark on board vessels bound to Miramichi, Richibucto, Bathurst, Restigouche, or some port on the south side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence or Bay Chaleurs. If they take shipping to any of the ports on the Bay of Fundy side of the Province, they will incur the expense of travelling over a land route of perhaps two hundred miles, which is very considerable.

in New Brunswick. Steamers, sloops, batteaux, and canoes traverse the principal streams in summer. In winter, sleds and sleighs, drawn by horses and oxen, pass over the ice, and transport ponderous loads of wood, hay, and agricultural produce to the markets, returning with all kinds of merchandise into the interior country. Many of the roads used in summer are abandoned in winter, and the inhabitants prefer travelling upon the ice rather than on roads liable to deep snow-drifts.*

Excepting the lines between Bathurst and Dalhousie, Fredericton and St. Andrew's, St. John and Shepody, there are tolerable roads during the summer between all the towns and principal villages. In spring, when the frost is escaping from the earth, and during the late autumnal rains, some of them are rendered almost impassable, and no established system of road-making has yet been introduced, even upon the post-roads. In the first settlement of the country, the pathways, which were afterwards improved as roads, mounted some of the highest hills, and, to avoid bogs and swamps, the routes taken were frequently very circuitous. The altering and levelling of such roads, and the construction of new ones, have required the expenditure of large annual grants by the Province, which, although not always economically applied, have greatly improved the country.

By the settlement of the vexed question of the payment of the Civil List in 1827, the Crown surrendered to the Province its future revenues from ungranted lands and timber, and a sum of no less than £171,224 was placed at the immediate disposal of the Legislature. From that time, the opening of new roads, the improving of old ones, the construction of bridges and other public works, continued until 1842, when it was discovered that the treasury was exhausted, and the Province involved in debt. A flourishing revenue has since relieved the embarrassment in some degree, and grants of money for every object are now made with more inquiry and caution. During the "golden days," as they were called, expensive surveys were made in laying out roads across the forests in all directions, and in many situations where

* Accidents frequently happen in the spring when the ice becomes unsound, and whole teams sometimes break through into the water. Compared with the risk and danger, the loss of life is rare.

the best turnpikes would, from the lack of population, have remained untravellered. Large sums were expended on routes that were afterwards abandoned, and a system of reckless extravagance prevailed that was unprecedented in the history of the Colony.

The roads are divided by the Legislature into two great classes—Great roads, and Bye roads, as they are termed. The former, from extending between towns through the principal settlements, and by giving passage to the mails, are the most important. A number of them are travelled by mail-coaches, or carriages, at a rate but little inferior to the ordinary rate in England.* The management of these roads is entrusted to supervisors who reside in different counties.

The bye roads extend from the great roads to the remotest settlements and clearings, being opened, improved, and repaired by legislative grants of money and the labour of their inhabitants. Those grants are from £5 to £100 and upwards, and their whole number, and for similar objects, in some years has exceeded six hundred. For each grant or appropriation a Commissioner is appointed, and the patronage for office is altogether in the hands of the Members of the House of Assembly, who exert it to no small extent for electioneering purposes. It therefore happens that the most active partisans of the successful candidate are duly honoured by Road Commissions, and for appropriations greater or less according to their ability in canvassing, rather than for road-making. Besides the grants of money made annually by the

* The following are the principal great roads, with distances, and the fares required from passengers who travel upon them by post:—

- From St. John to Fredericton, 65 miles; fare, 20s. currency.
 „ St. John to St. Andrew's, 65 miles; fare, 20s.
 „ St. John to Miramichi, *via* Bend of Peticodiac, Shediac, and Richibu
 206 miles; fare, 60s.
 „ St. John to Miramichi, *via* Fredericton, 172 miles; fare, £3.
 „ Fredericton to St. Andrew's, 60 miles; fare, 20s.
 „ Fredericton to Woodstock, 60 miles; fare, 20s.
 „ Woodstock to Grand Falls, 72 miles; fare, 30s.
 „ Grand Falls to Point Levi, Quebec, 220 miles; fare, £5.
 „ Miramichi to Bathurst, 48 miles; fare, 20s.
 „ Bathurst to Campbelltown, 71 miles; fare, 30s.

Legislature to improve the roads, the whole population from sixteen years and upwards are compelled by law to perform statute labour personally, or to pay an equivalent in money. The amount is from two to twenty days, including the labour of oxen and horses, according to the circumstances, property, or income of the individual.

The whole system of road-making is decidedly objectionable. In the swamps of many of the new roads, large logs are cut, from ten to fourteen feet in length, and rolled into the mud and water, and left uncovered by earth: these are called "cross-ways" (causeways), better known to the traveller in America as corduroy bridges. Draining is much neglected, and often the centre of the road is covered with wet clay, peat, and rotten wood, through which it is next to impossible for a horse to draw a pair of wheels, should he not stick fast in the attempt. The statute labour is generally performed in June; and for several weeks after it is completed, travelling is greatly retarded, and sometimes rendered dangerous. Stones, rush-bog, masses of hard clay, heaps of earth, and mud from the bottoms of the ditches, are often thrown upon the turnpike roads. The maxim of the workmen is, "We will throw on the materials, and leave the levelling thereof to the public." The result is, that, to avoid such impediments, the traveller turns from side to side, and along a straight line of road the path is a serpentine track, with a ditch on one hand, and heaps of rubbish on the other. Many of the "bye" roads are intolerably bad, especially in the spring, when the frost is escaping from the earth. Yet, with this representation, it is proper to remark, that at almost every season there are some good roads, and during the summer a great number of them may be travelled with ease and satisfaction.

Hitherto the bridges have been very imperfect in their construction, being often washed away by the freshets produced by the melting snow. The building of a bridge is frequently let by contract to the lowest bidder; hence the work falls into the hands of persons totally unacquainted with civil engineering; and if it fall down or is swept away by the floods, the contractor is looked upon as an unfortunate rather than an unqualified bridge-builder.

There is a very general post communication throughout the Province. Mails are carried upon the principal "great" roads in passenger

coaches, and to the chief settlements there are post-riders.* The rate of postage is high, and very generally complained of. The news from England by the Atlantic steamers arrives at St. John from Boston earlier than it does from Halifax, where they touch and land the New Brunswick Mail before they proceed to the United States. The Legislature and the Chamber of Commerce at St. John have endeavoured from time to time to promote the more speedy despatch of the Mails, for which the Province pays liberally; but their labours have been baffled, and so long as the highest office of the Post service is made an hereditary endowment, regardless of ancestral embezzlement and defalcation, rather than a gift to merit, intelligence, and activity, the cause of the present complaints will scarcely be removed.

Halifax and Quebec Railway.

The first proposition to construct a railway between any part of the Atlantic or Bay of Fundy and the St. Lawrence had its origin at St. Andrew's, and a Company was formed and incorporated, called the "St. Andrew's and Quebec Railroad Company," at that place, with a proposed capital of £750,000. The distance between the two places is 270 miles, chiefly through a wilderness country, a part of which is not very favourable for cultivation. In 1836, the sum of £10,000 was granted by the Government, and expended in making the survey. After leaving St. Andrew's, the line was to run almost direct to the River St. John, between Woodstock and Houlton; it then made a curve until it reached the valley of the Aroostook—thence, with several deviations, to the St. Lawrence, opposite Quebec.

Since the above survey was made, a part of the country over which the line was to pass has been given to the Americans by the Ashburton Treaty, in the settlement of the Boundary dispute. If a new line were

* The sums granted by the Legislature for the improvement of the roads in 1846 are—

For the Great Roads	£ 13,500
Special Grants	3,070
Bye Roads	13,500

Total	£ 30,070

to be established upon British ground, it would be objectionable, on account of being very near and running parallel to the American frontier, whereby it could be readily interrupted in the event of any collision between the inhabitants of the borders, or in time of war between the two countries. Nor could such a line form a continuous route between Great Britain and Canada, as the harbour of St. Andrew's is sometimes ice-bound in the winter season; and were every other circumstance favourable, Nova Scotia and the chief part of New Brunswick would derive no advantage from it whatever.

The construction of a canal between the head waters of the Bay of Fundy and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, at Bay Verte or Shediac, had been in contemplation many years, and in 1843 a survey of the country was made by Captain Crawley, R.E.; but the report of that engineer was unfavourable to the enterprise, and of late the undertaking is seldom noticed.

The idea of opening a free channel of communication through the Lower Provinces to Canada, and thence onward to the Pacific Ocean, presented itself to MacTaggart. The report of the late Lord Durham contains a similar suggestion. Dr. Rolph, in his work on Emigration, has also detailed some of the leading advantages of a railway between Halifax and Quebec. In 1845, a Provisional Committee was formed in London, in order to undertake the great work; prospectuses were circulated in the Provinces, and a general interest has been excited in favour of the undertaking. Persons deeply interested in the welfare of the Colonies have brought the subject to the notice of the Home Government, and the Colonial Legislatures have expressed a willingness to promote the noble national enterprise. Surveys and examinations of the country are already in progress, and thousands of Colonists are looking anxiously forward to the time when the work shall be commenced.

The original proposed line of railway communication was between Halifax and Quebec, passing around the estuaries of the Bay of Fundy, that the route might be rendered continuous or uninterrupted. The Chamber of Commerce and inhabitants of St. John have made objections to such a line, as it will not approach their city. They propose to lay a railway between St. John and Fredericton and the Grand Falls, and

to continue the route across the Bay of Fundy by steamers to Digby Strait, whence a railway may proceed to Halifax. In the present state of the country, such a line, when constructed, would remove all necessity for a railway in the other direction.

In reference to the western route, it is practicable to run a railway from Halifax to Digby Strait, the only accessible point for a steamer in the winter season. From Digby to St. John, across the Bay of Fundy, the distance is forty-five miles. From St. John to the Grand Falls, the continuance of this line must be on the west side of the river; on the east side it would be almost impracticable, from the extent of Kenebecasis, Belle Isle, and Washadamoak Bays, and their intervening high and broken lands. The line, therefore, would run from Carlton, opposite St. John, in the direction of the present post-road to Fredericton. From Carlton to the Grand Falls, by this route, there are no insurmountable difficulties. From some point near the Grand Falls to the River du Loup, and thence to Quebec, the routes of both lines would be the same.

From Carlton to the Oromucto, a distance of fifty-four miles, the railway would pass through a thinly-populated tract of country, the soil of which is rather below medium quality, and the inland transport inconsiderable. Several blocks of wilderness land have been surveyed in this quarter by the Government; but the good tracts that could be obtained to meet the objects of emigration are very limited, compared with those that would be intersected by the eastern line. From the Oromucto, through Fredericton to the mouth of the Aroostook, the borders of the St. John are well populated, and there are a number of settlements a little remote from the river. Between the Aroostook and Madawasca there are only a few inhabitants, except at the small village of the Grand Falls—a military station. The distance from Halifax to Quebec, by the present mail route, along the proposed western line and across the Bay of Fundy, is 614 miles: estimated distance by the railway, 575 miles.

The objections that may be made against this route are, the risk of crossing the Bay of Fundy at certain periods in the winter season, and the delay of embarking and disembarking passengers and goods from

the trains to a steamer, and from the steamer to the trains of a railway.*

Should the magneto-telegraphic wires be laid the whole distance, the Bay of Fundy, in the present state of science, presents an insurmountable difficulty, and one that does not exist in a route altogether overland. The western line must necessarily pass a long distance near the boundary of the Americans, who, by the Ashburton Treaty, have a right to navigate the St. John. The eastern line would be separated from the boundary by the river, and therefore it would be safer from interruption in the event of any outbreak or disturbance upon the border.

There is another consideration in regard to the actual profits that would be derived from a railway between Halifax and Quebec. A line from St. John to the Grand Falls would run by the side of a fine navigable river. The traffic between those two places is in British manufactured goods and provisions upwards, and great quantities of timber and agricultural produce downwards. From the speed of railway travelling, the chief part of the upward carriage of passengers and light goods, during the winter season especially, would be upon the rails; but in summer that carriage would be divided between the trains and the river steamboats which now ply between St. John and Fredericton. Again, from the facilities offered by the river for transporting lumber downwards with the current, the old, cheap, and natural channel of transport of all wood kind would be on the water, and not upon the rails. Yet, a railway to St. John and the Grand Falls would cross a

* If both lines were laid and in perfect operation, and locomotives, with trains attached, start at the same instant from Halifax, in each direction, with an equal velocity, at the moment the western trains would be at Digby, 148 miles from Halifax, the eastern trains would be at a point within twelve miles of the Bend of the Peticodiac. Now, five hours would be the least time that would be required for a steamer running ten miles an hour to cross the Bay from Digby and make a landing at St. John. During those five hours, the trains on the eastern route would have advanced at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour, or 175 miles. By having run a more direct course, they would be 200 miles in advance of the western cars, or be at Madawasca when the western trains would be ready to leave St. John. Time is distance in railway travelling, and the difference of time in favour of the eastern route is of much importance.

portion of the great New Brunswick coal-field, and approach beds of iron ore at Coot Hill and Woodstock; other minerals might also be developed by its construction, and promote its successful operation.

The eastern line between Halifax and Quebec would follow the almost level line of the abandoned Shubenacadia Canal, from Halifax to Truro, the distance being sixty-five miles by the post-road. It would pass through a settled country, and form the main channel of transport from and to Pictou, and all the eastern settlements of Nova Scotia. Besides the ordinary objects of traffic of the above place, coal, limestone, gypsum, sulphate of barytes, and other minerals, might be transported to Halifax advantageously. The line would then pass through the populous and thriving villages of Onslow and Londonderry, and having passed through a gorge in the Cobequid Mountains, it would enter the County of Cumberland. I have recently examined an immense deposit of iron ore recently discovered at the Londonderry Mountain:* it is one of the most extensive iron beds in America, and the ore, of the richest variety, is situated at a spot where there is abundant water-power to propel machinery, and both wood and coal for fuel. Fortunately, this valuable site for the manufacture of iron is not embraced by the monopoly of the General Mining Association, who have prevented the opening of mines in Nova Scotia, and is so peculiarly situated that it would supply all the iron required for the railway. In Cumberland the railway would approach Tatmagouche, Wallace, and Waterford Harbours; and before reaching the Bend of the Peticodiac, it would pass through the fine agricultural districts and populous villages of Amherst, Fort Cumberland, Sackville, Dorchester, and Memramcook. The coal-field of Cumberland would be intersected at points where it is productive, or near the outcroppings of Springhill and River Philip. At the former place, one of the coal strata is twelve feet in thickness; the coal being of a superior quality. There are also in this district inexhaustible supplies of limestone, gypsum, freestone, and grindstone, with salt springs. The population of the County of Westmoreland is now equal to 20,000. In that county and in Cumberland there are 10,000 acres of diked marsh yielding wheat and hay. The whole face

* This is called a mountain, although its altitude seldom exceeds 400 feet.

of the country between Sackville and the Bend of the Peticodiac is occupied by flourishing settlements. The number of passengers and amount of railway traffic to and from this wide area would be very great.

The railway would run directly from the Bend to some point northward of the Grand Falls (140 miles), touching Boistown on the Miramichi, and in the direction of the military road surveyed by Sir James Alexander and a party of Royal Engineers in 1844. In that distance it would cross the coal-field of New Brunswick to the distance of 120 miles, and would be over a country remarkably level and favourable for the enterprise. Excepting only a few new settlements and clearings, this part of the line would be through vast tracts of ungranted land. The surface in general is very level, or gently undulated. At the sources of the streams there are belts of intervalle, and other exalted lands; the higher grounds have a red loamy soil, interspersed by spots of sand and gravel. The tillage surface is variable in regard to quality: swamps, bogs, and patches of almost barren sand are not uncommon; but they bear a small proportion to the quantity of surface fit for cultivation, and which is frequently covered by fine belts of hard wood, spruce, pine, and other kinds of timber. In moist situations grow the ash and elm, and the swamps are occupied by white maple and alder. The whole of this woody region is watered by the branches of the rivers, a part of which empty themselves into the St. John, and the others into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, or Bay Chaleurs. The main South-west Miramachi and the Tobique are navigable for boats and rafts of timber far above the sites where they would be crossed by the railway, and it is at the sources of the streams that the best timber in the Province is now obtained: the groves that stood near the most navigable rivers having been felled and shipped to Great Britain, the railway would, therefore, give a new impetus to the timber traffic, and open forests of pine, and other kinds of wood, which have hitherto been considered almost inaccessible. The country between the Peticodiac and Boistown contains coal, iron ore, gypsum, limestone, freestone, marble, &c.; and, excepting coal, these minerals are found as far west as the valley of the Tobique. A geological survey is about to be commenced of Prince Edward's Island, to which isolated province the contemplated railway

would afford many advantages ; and the whole district under consideration is one of great resources and capabilities, and offers comfort and independence to tens of thousands of industrious emigrants. Not less than 5,000 square miles of wilderness land remain unoccupied in this part of New Brunswick, where the physical advantages of the country are equal to any of the other parts of British America.

The Grand Falls of the St. John have been mentioned as being situated on the route of the railway ; but it is by no means probable that the line would touch that point,—it would rather run farther north. Here, again, another vast tract of country, abounding in excellent timber and fine intervale and uplands, would be laid open to the emigrant and settler. The Tobique is navigable for boats and rafts 100 miles from its mouth : all the lands from its *débouchement* into the St. John to the base of Blue Mountain (50 miles), to the north, are capable of successful cultivation, and many of them are superior in quality. From the region of the Tobique the railway may extend to Madawasca, and thence to River du Loup, and the banks of the St. Lawrence ; but the difficulties to encounter in this quarter are greater than on any other part of the line, on account of the elevations and unevenness of the surface. It has been stated that provisions and West India goods passed along this part of the proposed line in 1845, to lumbering parties in the neighbourhood of Lake Metis, to the amount of £50,000. It will then run upon favourable and almost level ground to Quebec, and through an agricultural district containing upwards of 100,000 inhabitants. The whole distance between Halifax and Quebec by this route is stated to be between 500 and 550 miles. The estimated expense of constructing the railway over the latter distance, at £5,000 per mile, is £2,750,000 currency : of that sum it has been proposed that the Government shall advance £1,000,000, in return for the transportation of mails, troops, and military stores ; the remainder being supplied by the Legislatures of Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, and stock taken by an incorporated Company.

On the completion of the great line, branch railways would communicate with it at different points. The most important of these branches would extend to St. John, Miramichi, and from Truro to Pictou in Nova Scotia. In no part of New Brunswick would a rail-

way yield so many advantages to that Province as the one lastly referred to ; it would lay the country open through its centre, and give it all the benefits of foreign and domestic intercourse. Along the whole course of the anticipated route, various kinds of timber are abundant, and may be cheaply obtained, even in the most populous villages. At numerous places it may be felled at the sites where it would be required. Along the entire line as above proposed, the country contains numerous rivers and small streams, capable of affording almost unlimited water-power. The value of those streams would be enhanced if the atmospheric system should be adopted, and they give the cheapest means of carrying machinery for manufacturing purposes. White and red pine, spruce, hemlock, larch, yellow birch, and other trees, still bring remunerating prices in Great Britain : now, the railway would render accessible the timber of the interior, and not only supply a necessary article in its own construction, but, by being carried forward to the commercial ports, its profits would quickly return a part of the great outlay required for the new mode of transit.

In America, there is no branch of industry that receives more benefit from railways than agriculture, to which they transfer a great amount of time and animal strength, and afford a cheap and expeditious conveyance for the surplus produce of the farmer. It is particularly fortunate that the proposed line will pass through a country whose climate and soil are highly favourable for agriculture, and whose timber and mineral resources are not surpassed in America. The line throughout is perfectly practicable for the ordinary kind of railway ; but should the atmospheric system bear the test of experience, it will doubtless be better adapted to the climate and country than any other yet discovered.

A proposition has recently been made to make the Atlantic terminus of the railway at Canseau, in Nova Scotia, instead of Halifax, the former port being nearer Great Britain than the latter.* The terminus at Halifax is very strongly fortified—a circumstance of the highest im-

* The idea was originated by Capt. Owen, R.N., at present engaged in making a survey of the Bay of Fundy, and author of a work in defence of the doctrines and principles of the well-remembered Johanna Southcoate.

portance in the event of a war with any hostile power. It has also one of the finest harbours in the world, and a dock-yard for naval repairs. Canseau is unfortified, and is also liable to be obstructed by ice at certain periods in the winter. It could be taken by a small force of an enemy; and if the military and naval establishments of Halifax were removed thereto, the Government would sustain a loss nearly equal to the expense of constructing a railway between the Atlantic and the St. Lawrence. But at whatever place the railway may commence, it should be viewed as a national work. By the support and aid of the British Parliament and the Colonial Legislature, the enterprise may be rendered perfectly safe both to the Government and individuals, and thereby call forth the capital required for its completion. Its magnitude and objects are beyond the grasp of private speculation, and should be secured against jobbing by legal enactments. Millions of Her Majesty's subjects are already interested in promoting the undertaking, and they now look forward to the consummation of a scheme which would cement the British North American Colonies together in one impregnable mass, alike for strength and durability, and for ever secure their loyal attachment to the mother-country.

CHAPTER VII.

AGRICULTURE.

Climate.

ONE of the most striking peculiarities of the climate of New Brunswick, and indeed of all North America, is its low mean annual temperature, and greater extremes of heat and cold, compared with places in corresponding latitudes in Europe. The changes of temperature are perhaps not more capricious than they are in Great Britain; yet they run to a greater extent, and exert an influence over vegetation scarcely known in that country. Edinburgh is nine degrees farther to the north than Quebec, yet its mean annual heat is six degrees higher than that of the latter place.

The burning sands of Africa, a northern sea, and a vast surface of cleared and cultivated land, all have a tendency to elevate the medium and check the extremes of temperature in the Old World. Between the Pole and the inhabited parts of North America, there is a wide area of land, whose mountains and valleys are covered with almost perpetual snows, by which the temperature of the whole Northern Continent is greatly lowered. The relative quantities of land and water, the positions of continents and islands, altitude and longitude, modify the distribution of solar heat, and exercise important operations in the climates, of which no correct data can be drawn from their mere distances from the polar point. From the great breadth of the American Continent towards the North Pole, a vast surface is overspread by snow and ice, which almost bids defiance to the summer heat. From that cause alone, the winds which blow from the north and north-west are cool even in the hottest months of the year; and in winter they immediately

lower the mercury of the thermometer, and occasion intense freezing. Their influence is manifest from Baffin's Bay to the Gulf of Mexico. From having passed over an expanse of water, a north-east wind brings a damp atmosphere over Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and which is severely chilly rather than intensely cold. Frequently also it brings rain or snow, but never fog.

Along the whole Atlantic coast, and especially in Nova Scotia, a south wind is always warm. The heat imparted to the atmosphere by the gulf-stream which sweeps the southern border of the continent, greatly increases the temperature of the coasts. A south-west wind, from passing along the land of the American Continent, is warm and agreeable, except on the shores of the Bay of Fundy, where its vapour is condensed in thick fogs, which prevail during the summer. These fogs lie along the shores, and do not extend to beyond fifteen or twenty miles into the interior, where, by the increased heat of the air, they are quickly dispersed.

From having a cold continent on one side and a warm sea on the other, a shifting of the wind in New Brunswick produces a great change of temperature, which has been known to rise or fall sixty degrees in twenty-four hours. The clearing of the land of its dense forests greatly mitigates the severity of winter and the heat of summer. The unbroken wilderness woods retard the melting of the snow in spring, and accordingly, as they are cleared away, so will the season for vegetation be prolonged. On the 10th day of June, 1842, there were snow and ice among the mountains of the Upper Tobique, and a few patches remained unmelted at Madawasca; while in the more cleared and cultivated parts of the Province, the meadows and wheat-fields were clothed in green and luxuriant vegetation. On the 11th of the same month, snow fell along the valley of the Aroostook and Upper St. John; at Fredericton and in the older agricultural districts, there was rain without snow: although this snow fell directly upon the newly-risen grain, it did not retard its growth, and the warm weather that immediately succeeded brought all kinds of plants forward with astonishing rapidity.* On the

* These summer snows are called by some of the inhabitants *white poutices*, and are supposed to promote the growth of wheat and other grain.

12th day of September of the same year, while the Author and his son were exploring the sources of the Restigouche River, ice was frozen half an inch in thickness in their canoes during the night; while at the mouth of the stream no frost had been seen, and rich crops of wheat were in full harvest.

The gradual amelioration of the climate produced by exposing the earth to the direct rays of the sun is demonstrated by past experience. In 1783, when the Loyalists landed in New Brunswick, snow was lying on the coasts in June; and during several following winters the cold was excessive, and the snow fell to far greater depths than it does at the present time. In 1816, there was a fall of snow on the 7th of June; and it has been stated that there were frosts in every month of that year.* The later years have been milder, although not free from intense cold in winter, and the vicissitudes common to almost every climate.

There is a considerable difference between the climate of the coast and that of the interior. The former is characterised by humidity, and the latter by a dry atmosphere. The extreme degree at

	Below Zero.	Above Zero.	
St. John is from	23°	to 88°	Coast.
Richibucto .	22	— 94	Coast.
Fredericton .	35	— 95	Interior.

The extreme heat in some situations, and during a few hours in the day, will raise the mercury to 100°. From the 5th to the 20th of July, in 1842, along the Tobique River, the average of the thermometer in the middle of the day was from 90° to 95°; and frequently the mercury would rise to 100° in the shade. There is a great change of temperature in the forest during the night, when the heat will often fall to 50° and 45°.

The severe cold of the winter commences about the 1st of January, and continues until the 20th of March, in which time the thermometric indications in the interior are as low as 20°, occasionally 30°, and rarely 35°. The cold *snaps*, as they are called, are relieved by thaws, and days of clear, cloudless skies, in which the inhabitants, wrapt in furs,

* Notitia of New Brunswick.

turn out for sleigh-riding, and vehicles of every model and colour are put in motion on the rivers and turnpikes. The atmosphere is often loaded with a frosty vapour, which, from shaving keenly, is called the *barber*. This light, frigid powder is spread over the whole face of the country, and clothes the traveller and his team with the most delicate crystals of ice. Then there are the driving storms, piling up the snow into hills, burying the cottage, filling the roads, and covering the earth in robes of white. In calm weather, the buildings and trees crack with the frost, and give out sounds like the explosions of gunpowder. The ice breaks, and sends a long rumbling noise along the river valleys. Every process of vegetation stands still, and nature seems to rest from her labours. In such days of intense frigidity, the population are by no means inactive, and the men are stimulated to acts of gallantry. Nor is the business of the country permitted to languish: the axes of the lumberman and backwoodsman are employed among the brittle woods of the forest, and preparations are made to meet the labours of summer; the farmers are employed in threshing their grain, and cutting and sledging fuel, and poles for the repair of their fences. The snow, of which many Europeans have a great dread, is extremely useful: upon it the heavy timber of the forests is hauled along by oxen and horses to the rivers, and the stacks of hay are removed from the marshes and intervalles. A long winter with a deep snow is viewed as being most favourable for the crops of the succeeding season: it is also considered most healthy, and the snow is said to "*keep the earth warm.*" In the spring following such a winter, there is little frost in the ground, and frequently the grass begins to spring beneath the deepest snow-drifts. Yet, with all its industry, winter is the season of gaiety and amusement: the gentlemen are more than ordinarily attentive to the ladies, and courtships are more frequent than in the sultry months of summer.

From the 20th of March to the 20th of April, the thermometer ranges between 35° and 45° in the middle of the day. From the 15th of April there is a great increase in the temperature: notwithstanding, it sometimes freezes before dawn in the morning.

June, July, and August have very similar temperatures; the thermometer averaging at mid-day from 70° to 85° . After the 15th of September, the mornings begin to grow cool; and from the middle to the

25th of November, it again begins to freeze a little in the mornings. Frost is seen some years at Fredericton in seven months of the twelve, and fire is required in sitting-rooms from 210 to 230 days in the year. Frost frequently destroys the tops of the potatoes about the first of October; but there is a great diversity in the seasons, and in some years the spring opens three weeks earlier, and the autumn is later than in others.

In the latter part of April, the rivers and lakes break up, and the snow is melted; yet the winds are cool, and there is much unpleasant weather, with sleet and rain. The prevailing summer winds are from the west, south-west, and south. In May the weather becomes settled and fine, and the uplands may be planted. The intervalles which are overflowed are not planted until June.

The climate of New Brunswick differs but little from those of the State of Maine, Lower Canada, the northern shores of Lake Huron, and part of the Michigan territory. In the summer, twilight is seen after nine o'clock in the evening, and day begins to break at two in the morning. The aurora borealis is very brilliant at all seasons.

In Nova Scotia the winter usually commences about the last of November, and continues to the 20th of April, which ushers in a cheering spring. From a series of observations made in both Provinces in 1842, we noted that the spring of that year was twenty-one days later on the St. John above Woodstock than it was at Cornwallis and Windsor, in Nova Scotia; and twelve days later than at Westmoreland and Sussex Vale, in New Brunswick. On the 2nd day of May of that year, in Nova Scotia wheat was four inches high, and gaspereau and smelts had entered the river; on the 12th, swallows had arrived; on the 23rd, plum, cherry, and apple trees were in full blossom, and the boblink had begun to sing, which is the signal for planting maize, or Indian corn: on the 14th of June the above trees opened their blossoms, and the songsters had begun their carol between Fredericton and Woodstock.

In consequence of being very cold, and having the border of its Bay-of-Fundy coast covered by fog in the early part of summer, the climate of New Brunswick has been unsparingly condemned by some writers and geographers. The whole country has been represented as being involved in fog during the summer months, the remaining part of the

year being intensely cold ; it has also been stated to be unfavourable to European constitutions and unfit for agriculture : but such declarations have been made without any sound knowledge of the Province, its climate or resources.

From the foregoing account, it might be supposed that the season of vegetation is too limited for the ripening of grain, vegetables and fruit, or that the heat of summer would occasion droughts equally unfavourable to agriculture ; but the shortness of the season is abundantly compensated by the almost miraculous rapidity of vegetation, and the short period necessary for ripening the productions of the country. Only ninety days are required to grow and ripen wheat, rye, barley, and oats, under a medium temperature of 52° : pulse, peas, and a number of garden vegetables, are brought to maturity in a much shorter period. It has also been said that New Brunswick has only two seasons—the hot and the cold—and that the country has neither spring nor autumn. To such as entertain that opinion, the verdure of May, with its early fragrant flowers, has no charms. Even before the ground is altogether cleared of deep drifts, along the lanes and fences vegetation begins to spring, and the trees put forth their leaves. Before June arrives, Nature, in myriads of forms, begins to display her beauties ; the overflowed streams begin to retreat within their summer bounds, and the whole country is enlivened by the music of the sweet songsters of the forest. The beauty and serenity of the autumn in North America are unrivalled in any other part of the world. After a few sharp night-frosts, as the season advances, the boundless verdure of the forest and of the coppice wood on the borders of the rivulets is transformed into every tint of colour : the leaves of the maple are stained scarlet ; the fluttering poplar is of a sombre brown ; and other trees display rich dresses of red, violet, and yellow, glittering in endless variety : the firs, and other evergreens, always prepared for winter, alone resist the change by which the mountain forests appear to be decorated in holiday attire before the period arrives when their trunks and limbs are to be loaded with ice, and their gay leaves scattered to the piercing winds.

Before the frost begins to be severe in November, a delightful interval occurs, called the Indian summer. The weather is calm, the air bland and warm, and there is universal serenity. The Indians, who

have been wandering over the country during the hot months, improve this season by removing to their winter quarters, and are seen upon the lakes and rivers in canoes, with their poppooses,* dogs, guns, camp bark, and the few culinary utensils required in their simple mode of living. A single canoe generally contains a family and all the personal property of the establishment. At this period the aurora is remarkably brilliant, and snipe, woodcock, and other birds of passage, take their flight to the south. No very satisfactory explanation of the phenomena of this peculiar season has yet been given. It is probable, however, that its chief cause is the rapid decomposition of the fallen leaves, and other vegetable matter, hastened by night-frosts and the heat of the sun at mid-day. The great quantity of gases thus evolved doubtless effect important changes in the atmosphere and its temperature. The electricity of the earth, from being greatly increased, may also promote the expansion of the aurora at the time.

Under a general view, the climate of New Brunswick is decidedly healthy, and there is no disease peculiar to the country: still, it is proper to speak of it with some degree of circumspection in reference to the Bay-of-Fundy coast. The humidity of the atmosphere and fogs of this shore induce coughs, influenzas, rheumatism, and pulmonary consumption; yet, those diseases are not more frequent here than they are at New York, where one-seventh of the deaths are from pulmonary complaints. The intermittent fever, an acknowledged drawback on the settlement of Upper Canada, and the terror of the inhabitants of more southern latitudes, is unknown in the Province—indeed, it cannot exist there, and patients who are affected by it are soon restored to health after landing upon her shores.

In the interior, the diseases are few and comparatively simple. Fevers of a typhoid character are most prevalent, but they are generally mild. When the intervalles and marshes of the country shall have been drained, and the rising of miasma thus checked, such fevers will in a great degree subside. From the vicissitudes of the weather, and the exposure of many of the inhabitants, especially the lumbermen, in rafting timber upon the waters, inflammations are not unfrequent; but

* Children.

the agricultural population are remarkably healthy, and there are few country practitioners of medicine who ever obtain more than a comfortable living,—a fact to be ascribed to the salubrity of the climate, rather than to their moderate charges.

The most fatal diseases are those brought into the Province by passenger-ships and vessels from foreign ports, which frequently introduce the smallpox, measles, and other contagious disorders. Vaccination is neglected, except in the towns. Diseases of the alimentary organs (or dyspepsia) are common, although not very fatal: they are induced among the lower classes by a poor diet, bad cooking, and frequently oily food, such as fried fat salted pork, which is much eaten by fishermen and lumbermen. Calculous diseases are unknown among persons who have been born in the country. The free use of ardent spirits has destroyed many; but since the introduction of Temperance Societies, the use of strong liquors is much diminished, and there is an evident improvement in the health and morals of the labouring communities. With a view of the above facts, we agree with Mr. M'Gregor, who considers the climate as healthy as that of England.

Shocks of earthquakes occurred in the Province in the years 1663, 1827, and 1839: of these notice will be taken in treating of the Geology of the Province. The aurora borealis is sometimes extremely brilliant, and rises to the zenith: on the 7th of November, 1835, at seven P.M., it gave a red light, which afterwards changed to a blue, and then to a green colour;—on the 25th of January, 1836, at eight P.M., the sky was of a deep red colour, which lasted until half-past nine. Meteors are common at all seasons of the year.

In Agriculture, under a proper climate, the first and most important objects of consideration are the soil, and the means whereby its fertility can be improved, where naturally meagre, or impoverished by continued cropping. In the topographical description of the Province, we have made some general remarks on the soils of different districts; but to enter into a detailed account of each variety would quite exceed the limits of this work—they are too numerous and varied, and at present they have been insufficiently tested to admit of a full description in regard to their virtues. Some of the most important characters of soils

are, however, discovered by a knowledge of the geology of the tracts upon which they rest—by reference to the sources whence they have been derived, and the agents to which they are exposed.

All the different kinds of soil have had their origin in the rocks—the solid framework of the globe. The rocks may be divided into two great classes—one of which has been formed through the agency of water, and the other by the operations of heat. Each of these classes is divided into groups or formations, which differ from each other in chemical composition, and consequently by disintegration afford different kinds of soil. As the character of the rocks may be ascertained from the soil resting upon or near them, so may the qualities of the soil be discovered by reference to the rocks, each variety of which produces a kind peculiar to itself. Geology is therefore of the first importance to agriculture, and a geological map of every country is a chart of its soils.

The surface of New Brunswick presents an assemblage of apparently heterogeneous substances, thrown together in great confusion; but, upon inspection, it will be found that not only the rocks, but the soils reposing upon them, succeed each other in regular order, and their boundaries may be traced upon a map. First the naked rock will be seen protruding through the soil, or lifting itself into lofty mountain ranges, where its nakedness defies the arm of industry: yet, the operations of heat, frost, moisture, and other meteoric agents, are constantly reducing the flinty mass, and forming a fertile mould, which, if not retained in the shallow basins of the table lands and slopes, is carried downwards to the valleys, to render them more favourable for the production of plants. Then there are collections of rounded masses of rocks, called boulders, as unproductive as the solid mountain cliff. To these succeed extensive beds of gravel, sand, and clay, above which there is a covering, varying in thickness, called the soil, differing only from the general deposit beneath it in being reduced to a finer state, and by containing the remains of plants that have flourished upon it. Again, there are extensive deposits of alluvial matter, which are collecting daily from the disintegration of the rocks and previously-formed beds. These are the most fertile soils; for the more finely mineral matter is divided, the better it is adapted to vegetation—the most recent

productions of the earth's chemical and mechanical agents are best fitted for the support of vegetables.

It is very evident that the whole surface of North America, at some period of the earth's history, has been submerged beneath the ocean, and exposed to violent currents. By the operations of these currents, and ice, the rocks have been transported, in boulders, gravel, and sand. The beds of clay and fine materials have been produced by the falling of sediment in situations where the waters were tranquil.

From the operations of powerful currents, the *detrital* deposits are not always confined to the surfaces of the rocks whence they were derived, but are frequently spread abroad over other rocks, and thus the hard and unyielding strata have been covered by rich diluvial matter. In the districts of the Grand Lake, Sussex Vale, Westmoreland, and other places, the red and claret-coloured soils of the sandstones have been scattered over rocks that would have yielded a covering far less productive or favourable to vegetation. The direction of the currents that have produced these effects can still be ascertained in many situations: in general, they have proceeded from the north towards the south; but there are many local variations from their general course, and consequently in their results.

In North America, the chains of mountains and hills in general run from the south-west towards the north-east, seldom varying farther than north-north-east and east-north-east. Those are also the courses of the stratified formations which lean against the mountain ranges. We therefore find belts or tracts of soil running in those directions, and resting on the slopes or in the valleys. The diluvial currents have scattered the soils of each group of rocks southward of their original sites, but not so far that the belts of those soils may not be traced along the country. We have, then, a geographical distribution of soils, a knowledge of which is highly important in the settlement of a new country.

In the counties of Charlotte, St. John, and King's, large tracts of land are occupied by granite, syenite, and trap rocks. Granite also abounds in the wilderness part of Gloucester, and syenite appears in the southern parishes of Westmoreland. The soil on these rocks is peculiar, and very different from the mellow covering of Kent and Sun-

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productions of the earth's chemical and mechanical agents are best fitted for the support of vegetables.

It is very evident that the whole surface of North America, at some period of the earth's history, has been submerged beneath the ocean, and exposed to violent currents. By the operations of these currents, and ice, the rocks have been transported, in boulders, gravel, and sand. The beds of clay and fine materials have been produced by the falling of sediment in situations where the waters were tranquil.

From the operations of powerful currents, the *detrital* deposits are not always confined to the surfaces of the rocks whence they were derived, but are frequently spread abroad over other rocks, and thus the hard and unyielding strata have been covered by rich diluvial matter. In the districts of the Grand Lake, Sussex Vale, Westmoreland, and other places, the red and claret-coloured soils of the sandstones have been scattered over rocks that would have yielded a covering far less productive or favourable to vegetation. The direction of the currents that have produced these effects can still be ascertained in many situations: in general, they have proceeded from the north towards the south; but there are many local variations from their general course, and consequently in their results.

In North America, the chains of mountains and hills in general run from the south-west towards the north-east, seldom varying farther than north-north-east and east-north-east. Those are also the courses of the stratified formations which lean against the mountain ranges. We therefore find belts or tracts of soil running in those directions, and resting on the slopes or in the valleys. The diluvial currents have scattered the soils of each group of rocks southward of their original sites, but not so far that the belts of those soils may not be traced along the country. We have, then, a geographical distribution of soils, a knowledge of which is highly important in the settlement of a new country.

In the counties of Charlotte, St. John, and King's, large tracts of land are occupied by granite, syenite, and trap rocks. Granite also abounds in the wilderness part of Gloucester, and syenite appears in the southern parishes of Westmoreland. The soil on these rocks is peculiar, and very different from the mellow covering of Kent and Sun-

bury. From the disintegration of granite, silex, clay, lime, magnesia, and potash result; and the syenite yields almost the same constituents. The soil derived from trap rock contains much potash, and almost always produces hard wood, such as beech, birch, maple, oak, ash, and butternut. The granite and syenite are also favourable to the growth of those trees; but, frequently, where there is a sufficient depth of earth and the land is sandy, white and red pine grow to great size. Upon those rocks the soil is frequently scanty, and there are large plats of hard, stony ground by no means productive; yet, wherever the soil is finely pulverised and abundant, wheat, oats, and potatoes grow well, and Indian corn is remarkably successful. Along the coast of the Bay of Fundy, grauwacke, hard, argillaceous, and talcose slates, with limestones, are predominant. These rocks are chiefly covered by groves of cedar, spruce, fir, hackmatack, and small pines, with laurel bushes and cranberry bogs, except where there are deep beds of gravel or sand: their surface is unfit for cultivation, and the best of the soil is soon impoverished, unless freely manured and well tilled. The high and low intervalles on the streams are very fertile.

The coal-field of New Brunswick occupies an area of no less than 10,000 square miles. It embraces the chief part of Westmoreland, the whole of Kent, three-quarters of Northumberland, the northern part of Gloucester, a part of King's, nearly the whole of Queen's and Sunbury, and more than one-half of York—counties along its southern border. Near Studholm's Millstream, at Butternut Ridge, Sussex Vale, Hillsborough, and Sackville, there are thick deposits of limestone and gypsum. The prevailing deposits are conglomerates, red marly sandstones, and shales. The soil derived from those rocks is extremely fertile, and presents much variety, even on a single tract. The clays are of every degree of tenacity, from the plastic mortar to the light and friable mould that crumbles before the plough. Then there is the red marly loam, often deep, and resting on a subsoil of clay, with a good proportion of humus. These soils resist the drought of summer, and produce abundant crops of wheat, oats, rye, barley, buckwheat, flax, potatoes, turnips, and all kinds of culinary vegetables; but they are less congenial to Indian corn than the more light and sandy earths. In the valleys the soil is still more mellow, being of a dark brown

colour, and abounding in humus : with these there are patches of light, fine, red and yellow sand, beds of coarse sand and gravel, and occasionally bogs of peat, and swamps covered by alders, and a stunted growth of other trees, with laurel, uva ursi, and cranberry vines. The alluviums forming the best intervalles are a dark brown mould, from one to twenty feet in thickness, which from being annually irrigated, like the banks of the Nile, are always fertile. Some of these intervalles have resulted from the labours of the industrious beavers, which, until they were destroyed, constructed dams across the rivulets to supply water, in which they were protected from their enemies. They are now called beaver meadows.

It has been already observed, that all the lands upon the coal-field are remarkably low and level, especially so on the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence ; the character of the surface at different places has also been noticed : it may, however, be remarked that the soil on this great tract differs from that of the calcareous and gypsiferous district above described. On the coal-field it partakes of the characters of the rocks beneath, such as the conglomerates, sandstones and shales, and it is evidently less fertile than in those situations where the limestones and gypsums are present. The silicious soils are most abundant in the coal region : there are, nevertheless, beds of red and blue clay, forming a subsoil ; when the latter is uncovered by any other kind of earth, it is quite sterile. The red soil from the red sandstones, and the blue soil from the grits of that colour, are frequently very favourable for cultivation. With these argillaceous beds there are tracts of red sandy loam, red and white sand, collections of gravel and boulders. The blue clay and white sand predominate in the tracts called Barrens, Carriboo, and Blueberry Plains, which, in their present state, are worthless for tillage. With all these drawbacks, the whole area of the coal district, under a general view, offers a wide field of good tillage land, and many tracts are capable of being rendered remarkably fertile. The crops raised upon these lands, so far as they have been cleared and cultivated, do not differ materially from those of the southern division of the Province ; yet the scanty proportion of lime in the soil renders it less favourable for the production of wheat.

Extending from the American frontier across the River St. John,

between Woodstock and Madawasca, in a north-east direction, to the Restigouche and Bay Chaleurs, there are extensive groups of calcareous, argillaceous, and silicious rocks. They embrace thick strata of Silurian limestones, from which the soil has evidently derived a due quantity of calcareous matter, to render it active, and fit it for the cultivation of wheat and other grain. The superiority of this kind of soil has been proved at Woodstock, Wakefield, Belle Dune, and on the banks of the Restigouche, where it bears heavy crops of wheat at its first tillage, and is afterwards readily renovated by manure. The best soils in the Province are those containing certain proportions of silex, lime, alumina, and humus. It is exceedingly difficult to point out the exact proportions of those substances which should be present, under all circumstances, for general productiveness. Those proportions should be regulated by climate, temperature, and more especially by the peculiar nature of the plants the farmer is desirous to grow. The facilities by which some earths absorb water and retain moisture are much greater than others; and as water performs an important office in vegetation, the soils that are placed upon declivities, and are therefore speedily drained, require a larger quantity of retentive clay than such as are placed in lower situations. Sand permits the water to escape by absorption, and more readily by evaporation, than a clayey loam; and if there be anything peculiar in the soils of New Brunswick generally, it is the almost universal existence of an argillaceous subsoil, which is of the first importance in dry seasons.

All the upland soils have been derived from the disintegration of the rocks beneath. Even the alluviums, so often mentioned, can be traced to their birth-places, whence they have been transported by the freshets of spring and autumn; and the terraced borders of the rivers owe their origin to currents of water.

The facilities for obtaining manure are by no means limited in New Brunswick. The shores abound with marine plants, and at many places oyster-shells may be calcined and applied to the soil with great advantage. This kind of lime is employed at Shediac, but seldom at other places. Peat is abundant, and is occasionally used as a manure, under the name of black mud, or black muck; but, in its simple and unfermented state, or when carted from the bog directly upon the land,

in most cases it is worthless. It is only when this substance has been drained of its acidulated water, mixed with other manure, or thrown into composts, that it becomes a stimulus to the soil. Limestone is widely disseminated in the Province, and gypsum may be cheaply obtained in a number of the districts; yet little of the former is used in agriculture, and the virtues of the latter remain almost untried. Excellent marls have also been discovered along the coasts.

A few years ago, marsh mud or sea alluvium was applied to grass lands and sandy soils in Nova Scotia, and proved to be very beneficial. The practice has extended, and found its way into New Brunswick, and fine crops of wheat are raised in both Provinces by mixing it freely with the upland sands. From the great numbers of sea-birds that frequent the islands along the coasts, it was supposed, after its discovery in other countries, that guano could be procured in the Province; but the climate, heavy rains, frosts and snows, prevent the accumulation of that kind of manure in North America.

Great quantities of ashes remain upon new lands after the timber has been felled and burned. Although the first crops of grain are good upon such lands, it is not certain that the ashes are of any advantage, and they are injurious to the quality of potatoes. It is remarkable that those ashes are not manufactured into potash in New Brunswick, in the manner they are employed in Canada.

On many kinds of soil, the burning of timber has a beneficial effect, which may be ascribed to the agency of heat, and the potash supplied from the ashes. I have observed, that granitic soils are not improved by burning, and some of them are injured by powerful fires. Perhaps this may arise from the quantity of alkali being increased beyond what is necessary for the support of vegetation. The burning, notwithstanding, destroys the seeds of noxious plants, and leaves the earth in a state whereby all its energies are devoted to the planted crop. The finest potatoes are raised on new land whose heavy timber has been removed, as it sometimes is, for fuel, and where only the decayed leaves and small branches are consumed upon the ground.

The period is rapidly advancing when agriculture must form the essential pursuit of the chief part of the population of New Brunswick. The demand for timber has heretofore led thousands of the most active

inhabitants into the forests, and saw-mills for the manufacture of wood for exportation have been erected by them upon almost every stream and rivulet. The facilities of procuring timber, the abundance of fish on the coasts and in the rivers, and plenty of game, directed the attention of the early inhabitants away from the tillage of the soil, and agriculture has been considered an inferior occupation. It is natural enough in all new countries, that the objects of commerce most readily obtained without the aid of science or skill, and such as meet with a ready demand, should first employ the inhabitants. The system of industry is only changed by necessity; and no sooner will the pineries of New Brunswick disappear, or the lumbermen be driven so far from the rivers that their employment will cease to be profitable, or an unfavourable change take place in the timber market, than he will leave his occupation and engage in another.

It has been supposed by many, that by drawing the population away from husbandry, lumbering pursuits have been disadvantageous to the country. To certain limits, such an opinion may be in some degree correct: but it should be considered, that the lumbermen have discovered and explored new districts; they have opened the winter roads, cleared the rivers of obstructions, and been the pioneers of many flourishing settlements. From the timber trade, a number of small towns have sprung up, commerce has received its chief support, and the Province derived a large revenue. Any attempt to check the enterprise of the people, or to turn it from one pursuit to another, would be fruitless; they will direct their labours into channels that seem to them most inviting and profitable. Every country has its epochs of industry: the present, in New Brunswick, is the timber period, which will be followed by the agricultural, fishing, and, finally, the manufacturing eras.

The scientific Sir Howard Douglas was among the first to discover that New Brunswick was capable of a high degree of agricultural improvement, and of affording a substantial and comfortable subsistence to a large farming population. In February 1825, that gentleman, who was then Governor of the Province, assembled the Members of the Legislature and other individuals at Fredericton, and addressed them in an eloquent speech, in which he strongly urged the necessity

of extending agriculture and improving the excellent waste lands. Agricultural and Emigrant Societies were immediately formed, a Savings Bank was established, and the most improved breeds of animals were ordered from Great Britain. Ploughs and other instruments of husbandry were also brought into the Province for models; and emulation was excited in ploughing-matches, exhibitions of stock, and the distribution of premiums. The impulse thus given to husbandry has had a lasting effect, and resulted in many improvements. Agricultural Societies are still in operation in each of the counties,* and there are a number of gentlemen who, by their influence and example, are endeavouring to amend the system of tillage, and to improve the different breeds of domestic animals.

A great number of farmers are still firmly attached to the old system of their forefathers, and the Acadian French are not readily moved to adopt modern improvements. Nothing short of the plainest facts will turn such from their accustomed habits. When the crops and stock of any individual are increased by the introduction of a new system, the effect on the surrounding country soon becomes manifest: whatever is gained by observation is immediately acted upon, while the demonstrations of science are disregarded. It is chiefly on this account that experimental farms would be advantageous to the Colony.

His Excellency Sir William Colebrooke, the present Governor of the Province, has made some exertion to promote the settlement of the poor on wild lands, and to infuse a spirit of industry into the humbler classes; and his labours, although performed under many disadvantages, have not been altogether unsuccessful. But New Brunswick still requires a vast addition of industrious emigrants to its population; and before the fertile lands can be very extensively and properly cultivated, there must be an increase of labour and science. Annual grants, from £25 to £100, have been made by the Legislature to Agricultural Societies in different counties; it being generally required that each

* The reports from eight different counties in 1842 show extensive improvements in the raising of wheat, some of which weighed 70 lbs. per bushel; and a Committee of the House of Assembly declared, that the "old cry," that New Brunswick is not a wheat-growing country, was practically contradicted every year by those farmers who pay due attention to the mode of cultivation.

Society shall raise a sum by subscription equal to their grant. Yet the timber interest, as it is called, sometimes operates against the appropriation of the public money to agricultural purposes, and there is a lack of energy among a part of the farming population.

The soil of the Province is well adapted for grass. In many of the low wilderness districts wild hay is plentifully dispersed, and a variety called "blue joint" makes excellent fodder for young cattle. The seeds dropped from loads of hay carried into the forests by lumbering parties spring up, and the track of the forest-men may be traced in the wood by lines of clover. The principal upland grasses are red and white clover, timothy, lucerne, and a few indigenous varieties. The intervalles and meadows that have never been under the plough, and are reserved to supply hay, produce many kinds of wild grass, which on the drier grounds are mixed with the clovers. The different kinds of grain cultivated for bread are wheat, summer rye, winter rye, oats, Indian corn, barley, and buckwheat. The soil in general is well adapted for wheat: even along the Bay-of-Fundy coast its growth is strong; but from the moisture of the atmosphere it is liable to rust, which prevents it from ripening. It is generally sown broadcast, on land ploughed in the autumn, or early in the spring: the produce is from fifteen to thirty bushels per acre. An improvement has been made in Nova Scotia of late in the culture of wheat: the land (either diked marsh or upland) is ploughed in the autumn; in the month of August, when the surface has become starved to the depth of three or four inches, and is in a peculiar dry and crumbly state, it is sowed: by this method the grain yields a better crop, and ripens before the season of rust has approached. The same method might be pursued in New Brunswick generally with success. The application of marsh mud to dry sandy soils is also very favourable to the growth of wheat. Winter wheat is seldom raised, and but few sound experiments have been made in the cultivation of its different varieties. Summer rye is sown in the spring upon the poorer kinds of land, and yields from fifteen to twenty bushels per acre. Winter rye, which is much superior for bread, is seldom cultivated. Upon good old land, or burnt ground, it will return forty bushels per acre. It should be sown about the first of September.

Oats thrive well upon almost every soil, and as the crop is generally

sure, they are extensively cultivated, and give from twenty to forty bushels from the acre. The raising of maize, or Indian corn, has been neglected for several years, notwithstanding it returns a very profitable crop in most seasons. It requires a light, warm soil, and plenty of manure: after the ground has been well prepared, furrows should be run across it three feet apart; a shovelful of stable manure that has been carefully kept over the preceding season, or the same quantity of manure from the hog-sty, should be put beneath each hill, into which six* kernels of corn should be dropped and covered with fine earth to the depth of nearly two inches, according to the dryness or moistness of the soil; it should be hoed three times, and kept free from weeds. Pumpkins are frequently planted with the corn, which yields from thirty to sixty bushels per acre.

Flax and hemp grow well, and are abundantly stocked with the fibrous coating. It is remarkable that they are not more extensively cultivated upon the dry intervalles, which are admirably fitted for their growth.

In the first settlement of the country, flax was raised by almost every farmer, and linens formed an important part of domestic manufacture; but since the introduction of cotton cloth, which is now so cheaply manufactured in Great Britain, the country females have laid aside their spinning-wheels, and the good, durable linen tablecloths of their grandmothers are supplanted by the varnished cotton of their American neighbours.

Buckwheat is sown about the last of June, and the crop is sometimes injured by early frosts. Barley thrives well, yet it is seldom sown.

Almost all the culinary roots raised in Europe flourish in New Brunswick. Different kinds of turnips, beets, carrots, parsneps, mangel-wurtzel, and other roots, are chiefly raised in gardens, and are not yet planted in fields. Of all the nutritious roots, potatoes are of the

* The old American rule is, to drop in each hill of corn—

One for the cut-worm,

One for the crow,

One for the grub,

And three for to grow.

greatest importance, as they supply an important article of food to all classes, and are a most useful auxiliary in the maintenance of cattle through the long winters. They are raised universally both upon old land and new, and always occupy plats in the gardens of the wealthy; they cover the fields of the farmer, and are the first produce of the backwoodsman, who brings them forth from amidst the stumps of his clearing, and treasures them up as his safety-fund in the day of want. Potatoes yield a most certain and valuable crop, and may be considered the most staple article of food, and the best substitute for bread in the Province. The mode of cultivation is by planting cuttings in drills from one to two feet apart. In old ground, the land is marked by shallow furrows from eighteen inches to two feet asunder, and the seed being dropped along each furrow, is afterwards ploughed in, or covered by the hoe. Subsequently, the plough is run between the furrows, and the plants are hoed twice. On new or burnt land, the planter drops the seed upon the surface, and then covers it with earth: the plant is seldom hoed in such ground. At the time of dragging, the potatoes are seen protruding from the earth, and are found even beneath the roots of the trees, which appear to be no impediment to their growth. The potatoes raised on newly-cleared land are of superior dryness and flavour. The produce on old lands is from 150 to 400 bushels per acre; and on new ground, where a part of the surface is occupied by stumps, from 100 to 250 bushels per acre. Eight hundred bushels of potatoes may be raised on an acre of land.

The inhabitants of New Brunswick suppose that the potatoes of their Province are superior to those of Nova Scotia; but there is little ground for their partiality: * Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and Prince Edward's Island are equally favourable to those roots. The crop of the last year (1845) was affected by the same disease that spread itself over the whole American Continent and the chief part of Europe. By it nearly three-quarters of the whole crop were destroyed. The most obvious cause of

* The names of potatoes are as various as their kinds. The old *midkiff* and *Spaniard* varieties have been succeeded by blacknoses and bluenoses: these in their turn have been compelled to make room for the *Boston blues*, *calicoes*, *long reds* and *kidneys*, until the *London ladies* bore away the palm.

the decay was the excess of moisture in almost every kind of the vegetable: careful drying was found to be the most effectual remedy. Potatoes planted on dry and meagre soil in general escaped the malady, while those of rich land were nearly all destroyed. The destruction of so valuable a part of ordinary food is a severe calamity, and one that falls most heavily upon the poor, who have been thus deprived of a substantial article of diet.

The ruta бага, or Swedish turnip, although seldom raised, except for the table, will yield as well as it does in England. Small quantities are grown in gardens; but the abundance of potatoes has retarded the cultivation of that valuable root, which, from its great yield, would be highly advantageous in the fattening of cattle and sheep, and for the support of stock during the winter. The Aberdeen, white stone, and all the European varieties of the turnip, also thrive well. Neither mangel-wurtzel, beets, nor carrots have been introduced into field-culture; yet those roots, onions, parsneps, cabbages, cauliflower, cucumbers,* melons, squashes, and all the common culinary vegetables of the Old Country, are cultivated with success—and are good, provided attention is paid to them. The same remarks will apply to peas and beans in their several varieties.

Horticulture has been much neglected. In Nova Scotia, apples of the best kinds and finest flavour are grown in great quantities, and the ordinary price of the best cider is only eight shillings per barrel. Quinces, pears, peaches, cherries, apricots, and other fruits, including the Isabella grape, are also produced in the open air.† An idea has prevailed that even the interior climate of New Brunswick is less favourable for fruits than that of Nova Scotia; but, from what I have observed, I believe that fruit-trees will flourish and bear as well in one Province as the other. Plums, currants, gooseberries, strawberries, and

* In 1840, the Author observed half an acre of cucumbers in a new clearing on the right bank of the Washadamoak River. They were planted in hills among the stumps of trees, over which the vines had ascended, as well as over-spread the ground. The cucumbers were picked when they were small, and sold for pickles in the market of St. John.

† These fruits, with a number of others indigenous between the Tropics, are raised to great perfection by the Hon. C. Prescott, of Cornwallis, Nova Scotia, who is the father of horticulture in the western part of that Province.

other small fruits, are cultivated in New Brunswick; and at Fredericton, horticulture has received some attention of late.

Floriculture has also been cherished at the above place, and the gardens of Colonel Shore, L. A. Wilmot, Esq., and Mr. Watt, have proved the capabilities of the country and climate in this delightful branch of husbandry. Within a few years, the windows of the cottages throughout the Province have become decorated with beautiful native and exotic plants, and a better taste begins to prevail in the style of the farmers' gardens.

The wild fruits of the Province contribute, in no inconsiderable degree, to the comfort of the new settler, who, with the aid of maple sugar, renders them very palatable. Of these fruits the wild strawberries, which abound in June, are the most delicious. Cranberries, gooseberries, raspberries, blackberries, great whortleberries (*Vaccinium corymbosum*), blue whortleberries (*Vaccinium frondosum*), wild cherries, plums (*Prunus Americana*), grapes (*Vitis borealis*), and other indigenous fruits, are all gathered at different seasons of the year. With these are Labrador tea (*Sedum latifolium*) and chocolate root, with other native plants, that yield by decoction wholesome and pleasant beverages. Butternuts and hazelnuts are gathered at many places; and beechnuts are often so plentiful, that swine maintain themselves upon them in the forests during the winter months; but the pork fattened on these nuts is soft and oily. The fruits natural to the country, with the fish in the streams, and partridges and other game in the woods, all aid the backwoodsman, to whom a supply of provisions is of the first importance, during the growing of his first crop.

Having given a sketch of the productions of the older cultivated grounds, we may, before closing this chapter, notice the clearing of new lands, and the first crops produced from the virgin soil. The system of clearing in New Brunswick differs a little from that pursued in Canada. A tract of ground having been selected, all the under-brush is first cut away—this is most easily done when the ground is frozen—and it is desirable also to remove such small trees as are suitable for making the fences. The large trees are then felled and “junked up” (cut into logs) from ten to fifteen feet in length, the limbs are lopped off, and the closer they lie to the ground, the better will they afterwards burn. The trees

are sometimes felled in windrows (long heaps of fallen timber)—a plan which operates against the equal burning of the surface and the distribution of the ashes.

The time for chopping varies. It is generally admitted that the under-brush should be cut in the beginning of winter, and the large trees in the ensuing spring, before the sap has ascended to the branches. In August or September the chopping is fired, and much labour is saved by obtaining *a good burn*. Most frequently the fire consumes all the brushwood and limbs, and nothing remains but the charred logs and extinguished brands. In the autumn, these are rolled together with handspikes, or drawn by oxen, into large piles, where they are burned. This work is most frequently performed by a number of settlers, who unite and assist each other in the laborious task. Almost every man collects his neighbours, if he have any, and makes a *piling frolic*. After the labour of the day is ended, and the company have partaken of the refreshments prepared by the females, it is not uncommon to hear the fiddle strike up, and the party engage in the merry jig and reel. This system of mutual assistance is considered beneficial; it removes little jealousies in society, and cheers the heart of the settler amidst his struggles to redeem the soil; yet I have observed, that men who plod on alone and single-handed are as successful as those who adopt the other course. After the piling, the heaps of wood are fired, generally in the evening, when the whole surface is in a blaze, and the anxious settler remains up all night to roll the ignited logs together.

In Canada, the ashes are carefully collected while they are dry, and safely stored in water-tight log-sheds until winter, when they are carried to the potash manufactory and sold. There are no *asheries* in New Brunswick, and the alkali is allowed to mix with the soil.

Choppings are sometimes made in the winter, and burned in the spring: in such instances, the labour of "clearing off" is greater, but a crop is obtained in the same season. After all the timber has been consumed, or drawn off to make the fences, the surface of the earth is broken by a crotch-harrow, drawn by horses or mules. The harrow is in the shape of the letter V, with a row of teeth in each side. The wheat, or other grain, is then sown broadcast. About two bushels of

wheat are required for an acre. Some sow the grain upon the unbroken surface. The harrow is again applied, and hacks are employed to cover the grain around the stumps. The price of clearing an acre of land ready for the harrow is from £2 10s. to £4, currency, according to the quality and growth of the timber upon it. The wheat sown as above almost universally yields a good crop. At the time of harvest it is stacked, unless the proprietor has erected a barn for its reception. Two crops of wheat are seldom taken from the same piece of ground in two successive seasons, although potatoes are sometimes planted on the same field two and three years following.

With the wheat, timothy and clover seed are sown; the first crop is therefore succeeded by grass for hay, the value of which is much increased by the demands of the lumber parties, who frequently pay as high as £5 per ton for the fodder of their oxen. The ordinary price of wheat is 7s. 6d. per bushel.

Besides potatoes, these new lands produce turnips, cabbages, and all kinds of vegetables, and also the leguminous plants, without the aid of manure. Over and above paying the expense of clearing the land, the cost of seed, the labour of sowing and harvesting, the first crop yields a profit. Many settlers and squatters, therefore, prefer clearing a new piece every year, to the cultivation of tracts from which the timber has been already removed. In consequence of this propensity to level the forest, large fields are seen in every quarter overrun by raspberry bushes, sprouts, and a young growth of trees, the land having been abandoned as soon as the first crop was secured. These results are also favoured by the cheapness and abundance of land, and, all taken together, have produced a very remarkable class of persons called squatters.

These men will remove their families into the deep recesses of the forest, where, to use their own phrase, they "knock up a shanty," and commence chopping. They are all expert hunters, and at fishing quite *au fait*. Their stock consists of a cow and a pig. The former, during the summer, finds her own living, and wears a large bell upon her neck, to inform the dairymaid of whereabouts in the wilderness she is feeding. When the little stock of provisions is nearly exhausted, deer, partridges, or salmon and trout, are quickly supplied. Maple sugar is exchanged

for flour, which is sometimes drawn over the snow on toboggans* to great distances. The squatter is also a trapper, and, during the winter, collects a quantity of fur. The crop raised by one of these men and family in a season will more than supply them with food for a year; and their clothing is purchased with the proceeds of the furs, maple sugar, brooms, axe-handles, and other articles of their own manufacture. If the owner of the land appear to meddle with his affairs, the squatter looks upon him with cool indifference, or leaves his residence to repeat the same operation in another quarter. The Government seldom interferes with these men when they fix their abodes on Crown lands; and if their clearings are taken up by persons who obtain grants, an allowance is made to them for improvements. Their number in the Province is about 1600, exclusive of persons who have made partial payments for their lands.

Viewed under any light, the squatter is a useful man: he is the true pioneer of the forest—the advanced guard of the agricultural army; and often, from his knowledge of the country, skill, and kindness, he proves to be the benefactor of the disheartened immigrant. We stop not here to inquire into the lawfulness of his pursuits, knowing that they have resulted from the humanity of the Government, and that they will be given up to steady industry when the country shall be widely inhabited.

In seven or eight years, according to the nature of the timber, the stumps are sufficiently rotten to be removed, when they are collected and burnt upon the ground. The surface of the land is frequently very uneven, from the presence of cradle hills,† which should be ploughed lengthwise rather than across. The soil in the hollows is very rich, and care should be taken in the ploughing to keep it on the surface as much as possible. By felling a certain number of acres every year, the settler obtains a crop from the burnt ground, while the lands previously cleared afford pasture and hay until the stumps are decayed, when the plough may be put in operation. It is remarkable that the trees of the forest, whenever they are destroyed by fire, or cleared away by the agricul-

* Hand sleds, with broad flat runners, which do not sink into the snow.

† These are small eminences produced by the roots of the trees and frost.

tourist, and the land afterwards neglected, of whatever kinds they are, do not spring up again; but a new growth of other trees succeeds them. The land, cleared of its lofty pines and spruces, is soon covered by the white poplar, maple, hackmatack, fir, wild cherry, cedar, and blue whortleberries. Sugar maple, beech, and birch, are frequently succeeded by red pine, red and white spruce, sumach, raspberry, and gooseberry bushes. Hemlock land is soon overspread by cedar or alder. The original kind of trees do not appear in the second growth; but after the second growth is removed, they again occupy the ground. This rotation of crops seems to be a law of nature, from which the farmer may derive a valuable hint.

The surface of the earth in its natural state is covered by decayed leaves and seeds; but so long as the earth is shaded by the luxuriant foliage of the forest, those seeds cannot vegetate. The fire destroys the seeds that lie on the surface, or such as have fallen from the pre-existing trees; and therefore, after the grove is removed, it might be expected that the soil would be incapable of bringing forth any vegetables, except such as were sown upon it by the farmer. But the seeds of plants are deeply buried in the soils of North America: these cannot grow until heat and light are let down upon the earth. No sooner, therefore, is the forest taken away and its reproductive powers destroyed by fire, than the deeply-buried seeds begin to germinate and to cover the earth with a new and different crop. To many it has been matter of surprise, that when a clearing is made in the most remote parts of the wilderness, and where nothing is to be seen but lofty trees, the wild berries spring up, and not unfrequently the Canada thistle, sorrel, and other noxious weeds. As bears, foxes, and other animals feed upon wild berries, it is not surprising that their seeds should be widely disseminated. The seeds of the thistle have wings, and are driven along by the winds; and thus the distribution of seeds may be accounted for. Hawks, and other birds, which do not destroy the germs of seeds by digestion, also carry them from one place to another. The feathered tribes have been chiefly instrumental in establishing vegetation upon the newly-formed coral reefs of the Pacific Ocean, and in transplanting many useful seeds and berries over the great North American Continent.

Several writers on Canada have laid much stress on the discovery of

the quality of the soil by the kind of timber growing upon it. It is evident that certain trees are, in some degree, confined to particular districts; but this not only depends upon the nature of the soil, but also upon its dryness or moisture. It should also be remembered, that a growth of one kind of wood, when it has been cut down, or destroyed by fire, is generally succeeded by another of a different kind; and, therefore, in judging of the quality of the soil by the timber standing upon it, it is necessary to consider whether the trees are of the primary, or second crop.

In general, the hard woods, which drop their leaves in autumn, such as the sugar maple, beech, birch, butternut, &c., grow upon dry or well-drained land, and the evergreens upon the more moist grounds. It is a common opinion, that the hard woods occupy the best land; but I have observed that beech frequently covers beds of dry and meagre gravel. Oak is found on a dry, rich loam, and also in soil of a light, sandy description. The intervalles afford the favourite sites of the elm and ash. Of the soft woods, pine not only flourishes on a rich bottom, but also in yellow sand, and frequently among boulders of granite. Tracts bearing larch, or hackmatack and hemlock, have been condemned, until experience has proved them fertile: the former usually grows on flat, sandy soil, underlaid by clay and marl, and which is often capable of being made very fertile.

A mixture of clay and yellow birch is an indication of strong land, and such as is favourable for grass. Butternut and basswood prefer calcareous soils, and such as are esteemed for the cultivation of wheat.

Although it has been denied by some that any indication can be derived from the quality of the timber, yet it is certain that by careful observation, much information of the nature of the soil may be obtained by this kind of inquiry; but persons who have little experience in such matters, and who desire to purchase, will do well to examine the soil and subsoil by opening them at a number of places, and not trust too much to the appearance of the timber.

To the immigrant, the vast forest presents at first a gloomy spectacle. When he enters upon his ground, he finds not a spot where food can be raised, and the entire surface of the earth is covered by innumerable trees, that have stood for ages, and still seem to bid

defiance even to armies of axemen. The axe must be applied to every tree; for every attempt to root them out, except by cutting, and their subsequent decay, has proved abortive. The trunk is cut from two to three feet above the ground—the tree staggers, and falls with a loud crash. The axeman watches the direction taken by the falling wood, calling to his companions, if he have any, to “stand by.” Here “man appears to contend against the trees of the forest as though they were his most obnoxious enemies; for he spares neither the young sapling in its greenness, nor the ancient trunk in its lofty pride—he wages war against the forest with fire and steel.”

To the visitor who has been accustomed to view clean parks and groups of ornamental trees, the cleared part of the country appears naked, as few trees are spared on account of their beauty. The reason of this is, that such as grow in forests are too tall and slender for ornamental purposes, and when allowed to stand away from the shelter afforded by the grove, they are blown down, or they are destroyed by the heat of the fire at the time of burning. Yet, in very many instances, clumps of trees might have been permitted to stand, on account of the value of their timber, shelter, or as being ornamental.

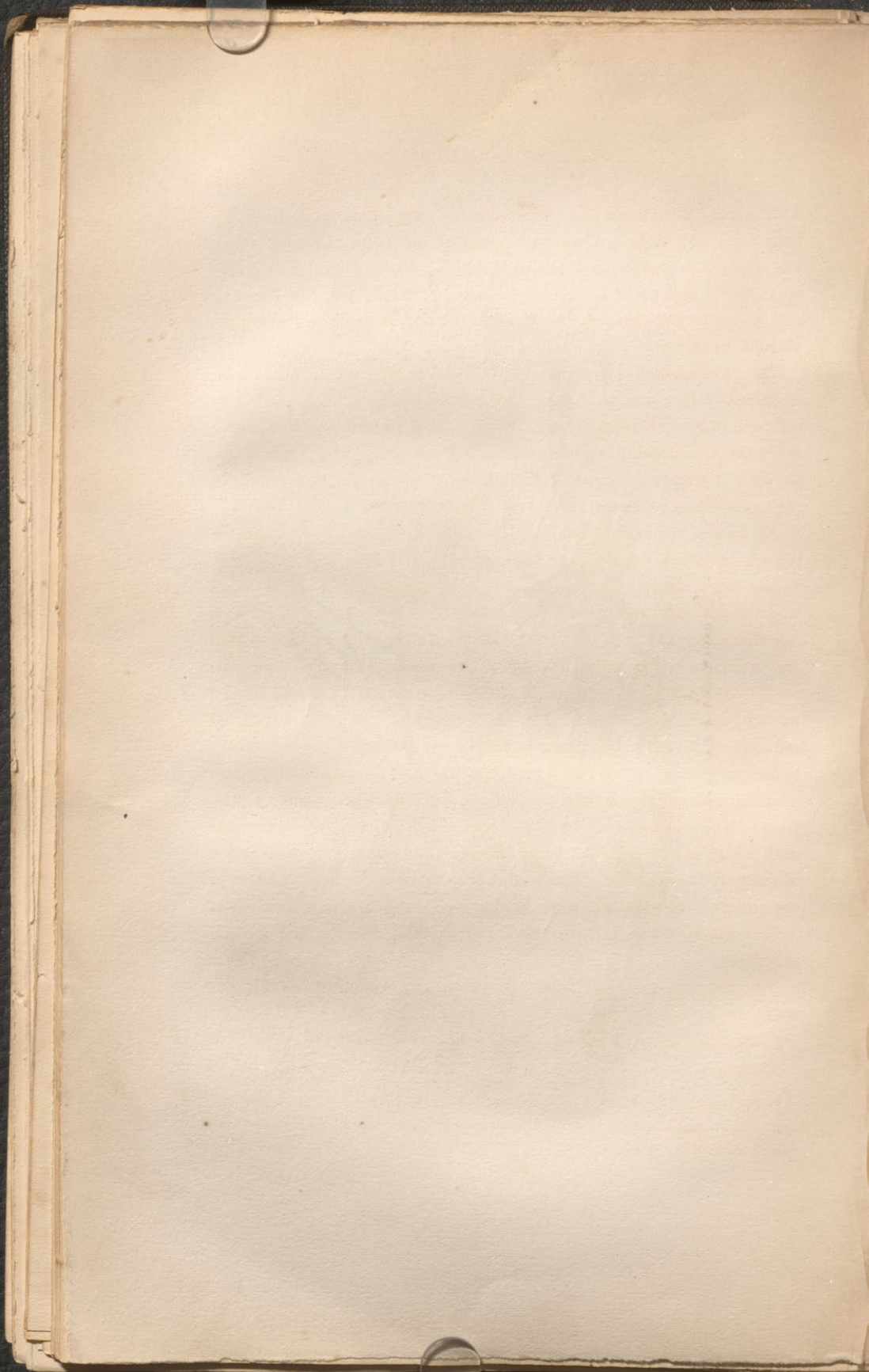
From the great extent of water communication in the Province, much of the common timber on the wild lands is valuable, as it may be readily transported and sold for fuel. The St. John and other rivers are navigated by numbers of wood-boats, which supply the towns with great quantities of cheap wood. The bark of the hemlock tree, extensively employed in tanning, is also an object of some importance.

The erection of a saw and grist mill in a new settlement is always looked forward to with much anxiety, and the inhabitants frequently bestow their labour gratuitously for the construction of the necessary dams. The best pine and spruce are made into shingles, or sawed into boards to cover their houses.

It is interesting to observe the rising of a settlement, and the advancement of cultivation in the wilderness. At first, perhaps, a solitary settler builds his shanty, amidst the stumps, and frequently by the side of a rivulet. The walls of his dwelling are large logs piled upon each other, and dovetailed at the corners, with a square hole cut through for a door, and another for a window: the cracks are stopped

BACKWOODMAN'S SHANTY.





with moss. This fabric is covered with the bark of the fir, secured by long poles and withs. Upon the corner of the house hangs a scythe; and axes, iron wedges, &c. are seen sticking in the logs. The grindstone frame is secured to a stump. A hovel is also built for the cow, and a sty for the pig. A few dunghill fowls and geese are also provided with shelter.

The dwelling-house is sometimes built in better style than has been described. The logs are hewed and carefully jointed, and a substantial roof is covered with shingles; it also contains several apartments; and when the exterior is whitewashed, it has a very pretty appearance. In such a dwelling, occupied by a Colonel of Militia, I once dined most sumptuously, and spent several pleasant hours.

As season succeeds season, so the clearing is enlarged, until the plough is put in motion, and field after field is seen bearing a crop. In the mean time, other adventurers have taken up the surrounding lands, and a wide gap is made in the forest. A log schoolhouse, with a cob chimney,* has been built, and well filled with children: a saw-mill and a grist-mill have been erected. The first log-house is now converted into a pig-sty, its proprietor having removed to a neat framed cottage, covered with clapboards and shingles, and perhaps painted red—a very favourite colour for houses in the country. The log schoolhouse has been succeeded by a more spacious and comfortable building. The roads have been levelled, and a country trader has opened a little shop. The old toboggan has been laid aside, and sleighs or waggons dash along the streets. A house of worship has been erected, and a Missionary is called for. The sound of the post-boy's horn is heard in the village. Finally, the medical man makes his *début*, in the almost forlorn hope of winning a livelihood by a little farming and a little practice.

The time in which all these operations are performed is comparatively short, and the changes they produce in the features of the country seem like the work of magic rather than of ordinary industry. Nor

* The tops of the chimneys in the log cabins are built of sticks, forming a sort of framework, which is thickly covered with clay mortar. These are called cob chimneys.

are the comforts enjoyed by the inhabitants less than the appearance of their lands would indicate. Thousands of those who carried their first supplies into the woods upon their shoulders, now enjoy all the comforts and many of the luxuries of life. Even the once most destitute emigrant, who upon his arrival in the country was unacquainted with its peculiar mode of industry, has gained an honest independence, and many of such have lived to see their children established around them upon valuable farms. By such operations, the forests are levelled, and their solitudes are cheered by the light of day; the swamps and bogs are redeemed to the plough, the scythe and the sickle, and hill and valley resound with human labour and happiness,—until the land is filled with villages, towns and cities; turnpikes, canals and railways succeed, and transmit the rewards of labour for the support of commerce—the command to “increase and multiply” is obeyed, and many of the objects for which man was placed upon the earth are fulfilled.

Wheat and oats are seldom sown in New Brunswick before the 10th of May, and the sowing is continued on the north coast to the 15th of June. Barley will ripen if sown as late as the 20th of June. Potatoes are planted from the 1st May to the 15th June; and in the new settlements, the planting is continued to the 1st of July; but the late potatoes do not always ripen before their tops are destroyed by the frost.

Gardening commences early in May, and turnips are planted through June to the middle of July.

Hay-making commences in the latter part of July, when the weather is generally dry. The hay of the large intervalles and marshes is dried and stacked upon the ground, being afterwards carried to the barns on sleds in the winter. The upland hay is generally put away under cover. The harvest of wheat, rye, and oats commences about the 10th of September; and the grain of the old farms is secured in barns. The reaping is frequently performed by a scythe, attached to a light frame called a *cradle*, which is quite unknown in England. Potatoes are left in the ground until the middle of October, when they are dug and carted to the cellars. Parsneps are most delicious when they are permitted to remain in the ground all winter.

Cows, horses, fat and working cattle, are stabled in November:

young stock remain in the fields until December, when all the animals are collected and housed, except sheep, which pass the winter better in the open air, being protected from the cold winds and snow-drift by thickets, or brushwood, placed against the fences of the barn-yard.

The cattle are of a mixed breed, and in general much smaller than those in England. The common ox weighs about 700 lbs., yet there are a few which sometimes weigh 1,000 lbs. Usually, the beef is good. Almost all the oxen have been worked before they are fatted for market. Now, labour increases the strength and elasticity of muscular fibre; it is therefore not surprising that the beef of such oxen should be less tender than that of the English ox, which is seldom hampered by the yoke, and grazes in rich pastures, or feeds upon turnips. The cattle pastured along the banks of the rivers are good swimmers, and, from the bad state of the fences, are apt to become *breechy*.

Excepting instances where stock has been imported from England and mixed with the breeds of the country, the ordinary run of cows is small; still, they are far from being bad milkers.

The horses are a mixed race from the old Normandy or Canadian breed. The original stock were introduced into the country by the Acadian French, who still retain them. In general they are small, but capable of great endurance, and a lasting spirit during the most protracted journeys. From the introduction of horses from Great Britain and the United States, improvements have certainly been made in the size and appearance of that valuable animal. It is true that occasionally a handsome and swift horse appears in the market; yet the whole race, when taken together, cannot be compared with the horses of Europe, and a good number of them are unsound in wind and limb. The great number of horses required for drawing timber, and for other purposes, has led many farmers to increase their stock; and it is common to see a number of horses, of all ages, and in the most unsightly state, around the farm-yards during the winter. In country places, every man must have a horse, old or young, sound or unsound. Pedestrianism is in disrepute. Horses and dogs seem to be the favourite animals of the Colonial farmer.

The breed of sheep has been much improved by the agricultural

Societies and individuals. Formerly they were small, and the wool was not of the finest quality. The mutton of the present stock is usually fat and tender.

Swine thrive well ; but, until of late, little pains have been taken to procure the most profitable kinds. A great proportion of the hogs have long ears, legs, and snouts ; and during the summer months, they are very lean and mischievous. From their thin and gaunt appearance, they have been called *shad*, and their squeeling propensities are almost insupportable. The general introduction of Berkshires would be a boon to the country. Poultry is raised by all classes of the inhabitants ; and the markets are frequently filled with the finest description of domestic fowls—also partridges, wild ducks, and other game.

With the general advancement of agriculture, there has been an improvement in the implements of husbandry. The importation of a few ploughs, drilling and winnowing machines, from England and Scotland, has afforded models, and the ingenuity of mechanics has been exercised to advantage in the construction of those instruments. Axes, hay-forks, rakes, measures, &c., are imported from the United States, notwithstanding they could be as cheaply manufactured in the Province as elsewhere.

The inhabitants of a number of districts derive considerable advantage from the manufacture of maple sugar. This is obtained from the sap of the hard, or rock maple (*Acer saccharinum*). In the spring of the year, generally in March, when the frost is leaving the ground, and especially at that period when it freezes at night and thaws during the day, an incision is made in the tree—or, what is better, a hole is bored with an auger, and the sap contained abundantly in the trunk is carried off by a small spout into troughs of fir, or vessels made of birch bark : at evening, it is collected and evaporated in pots or boilers, and *stirred off* into sugar. In one of the best *sugaries*, eight hundred trees are tapped, and a ton of sugar is produced annually. It is cast in moulds of bark, and the *cakes* weigh from ten to twenty pounds. Besides a wholesome sugar, a delicious syrup is made, which is usually eaten with pancakes ; and at the close of the season, the sap, by fermentation, produces good vinegar. It is to be regretted that so many groves of sugar

maple have been felled. The tree is very valuable for its saccharine properties, and the sap may be extracted from it without any injury to its growth. In parts of the United States, the inhabitants have begun to plant the maple in orchards, for no other object than its sugar; and almost every settler who has felled those trees in New Brunswick has since been sorry for the act. The sap of the grey birch yields a substance resembling manna.*

The science of agriculture is still in its infancy in New Brunswick. The system of clearing land is in itself very simple, and, from the success of the old and established method, few attempts are made to improve it. In the older cultivated districts the modern improvements of tillage might be readily introduced; but, even here, the first principles of the art are not generally understood. Until very lately, few farmers have had any idea of the rotation of crops. The same kinds of grain or potatoes have been raised from the ground several years in succession, until the soil has become exhausted; and numerous fields have been abandoned, and will remain useless, until by long repose the soil shall be restored to fertility.

Formerly, in the new settlements, heaps of stable manure and rotten straw were allowed to remain from year to year, the owners supposing that the expense of spreading them on the soil would not be repaid in the crop; and instances have occurred where barns have been removed from site to site to avoid the accumulating nuisance of the stable. In other instances, the manure has been thrown into rivers, or disposed of in pits and swamps: even at the present time little pains are taken to prevent it from being washed away by the rains, and the application of liquid manure is almost unknown. It is a common practice to lay the best stable dung in small heaps upon the soil in the autumn; during the long winter it is exposed to alternate freezing and thawing, and ere the spring arrives, and it is spread and ploughed in, its volatile and fertilising matter has chiefly disappeared. But, however absurd such practices may appear to the British farmer, they are scarcely less unwise than many followed by respectable immigrants, who refuse to adopt a somewhat rude and hurried plan of cultivation, and too fre-

* Pic-nic parties frequently visit the sugaries, where they are treated to a kind of candy called "long-lick."

quently devote their labour and money to trifling objects, overlooking the "main chance," so called by the experienced and chary American villager. With these remarks, it is proper to add, that a zeal for improvement begins to appear in the more intelligent inhabitants. Husbandry is getting rid of the odium that was formerly cast upon it, and persons of the first respectability have engaged in the occupation. Agricultural Societies are also doing good; but their usefulness would be greatly increased by the more generous support of the Legislature, and the establishment of a few well-conducted experimental farms would be found highly beneficial in forming a basis for the future industry of the country.

With a correct view of the climate and soil of New Brunswick, it might be supposed that she is capable at least of supplying her inhabitants with food: so far, however, from being able to meet her own wants, the provisions annually imported from Great Britain, the United States, Canada, and Nova Scotia, amount to a sum that far exceeds the yearly revenue of the Province. This great deficiency in the supply of the necessaries of life arises from the timber trade, which sends a large part of the population away from the fields into the forests, and the low state of agriculture, now managed with a lack of its most necessary elements, skill and labour.

Before closing the present chapter, we may be permitted to take some notice of hunting, trapping, and fishing,—not because they form common branches of Provincial industry, but from their relation to the natural resources of the country. Mr. Murray observes, that among the expectations which lure the British settler to America, one of the most attractive appears to be the almost unlimited scope for hunting in a country of wild woodland, where no game-laws embarrass the sportsman, and where he may expect to derive an agreeable addition to his supply of food. But the farmers of New Brunswick well know that the chasing of wild animals through the woods is incompatible with ease, and in general very unprofitable. Hunting is therefore confined to a few individuals in the new settlements, and more especially the Indians, who cherish the pursuits of their ancestors, and follow the chase, by which their pressing wants are sometimes relieved.

It has often been imagined by the emigrant, that deer and other wild animals are so plentiful in America, that the hunter has only to walk into the forest, where he can get a view of them as he would of the animals in a menagerie. But although there is still much game in the wild forests and among the mountains, it is seldom obtained without labour and perseverance, and, excepting the bear, all animals are very shy and timid.

The elk, or moose deer, the mammoth of the Northern Continent, offers the greatest inducement to hunting, the flesh of the animal being as valuable for food as beef. In the winter, when the earth is covered by a white mantle, a drove of these animals forms what is called a "yard,"—which is merely a small tract of ground over which they feed, and beat down the snow with their feet in gathering the herbage. In such a yard they will remain all winter, if not disturbed. Their weight prevents them from travelling through very deep snow; and when it is covered by a crust of ice, escape from the pursuer is impracticable. The hunter, with moccasins and snow-shoes, having discovered the haunt, enters it and shoots down the harmless herd. If any attempt to escape, they are soon exhausted in the deep snow, and, being followed, are cut down by the tomahawk or axe. As the yards of the moose are only found at places remote from the settlements, much of their flesh has been left in the forests. In the early settlement of the country, the Indians, being jealous of the white inhabitants, hoped to drive them away by destroying the game. Nor were the first settlers careful to preserve those valuable animals: thousands were killed for their skins alone, and it is painful to reflect upon the wanton waste of life that once sported over the soil.

In this kind of hunting there is no amusement: it is rather a savage kind of butchery, from which a true sportsman would turn away in disgust. In light snows, when the moose can travel, the hunter follows the track, in the most noiseless manner, until he overtakes his game. The Indians are remarkably subtle on a *moose-walk*. The animal does not always bound away when he discovers his pursuer, but turns round, and elevates his lofty antlers, apparently pleased with the fatal novelty. They have been known to stand a few moments after

the first shot was fired; but, if unhurt, they seldom wait for the second discharge of the gun.

In this kind of forest sport, the hunter carries a gun, axe, blanket, a wallet of provisions, and fireworks. At night, he kindles a fire, makes a bed of spruce or cedar boughs, rolls himself in his blanket, and lies down in repose: but in the morning he is likely to find himself almost in a perpendicular position; the fire having melted away the snow at his feet, allows them to fall, while the head remains elevated. As soon as the dawn appears, he wends his way over hill and valley on the well-known track of his game, ever excited by hope and continued *qui vive*. And certainly all his toil and privation are rewarded by a view of the long-looked-for moose in his stately pride and majesty. At the foot of some great tree, or behind a root or windfall, he watches with steady eye his unsuspecting prey, and creeps upon him with the slyness of a serpent; and, when within range, even the "oldest hands" tremble, and the bosom flutters, as the gun is levelled. If the hunter be a "green one," the moose generally escapes unhurt; but the bullet of the experienced marksman brings him to the ground.

The moose is not a fleet animal, and when alarmed, runs with a shambling gait, striking his hoofs against each other, and frequently stumbling. When hotly pursued by dogs, he will often turn and take them up on the points of his horns and toss them into the air. In the latter part of September and first of October (the running season), they are decoyed by the Indians, who having placed themselves in ambush, employ a rude instrument known as the moose-call, by which they imitate the peculiar looing of the animal, that approaches the decoy without fear, and is shot. They are also sometimes ensnared by a noose in the end of a strong rope.

The ordinary moose weighs about 1000 lbs., and largest ones 1,500 lbs. The moufle or loose muscular covering of the nose is considered by epicures a great dainty.

The reindeer, or cariboo, is a smaller animal, the largest weighing 400 lbs. They are very swift; but when there is a deep snow covered by a crust, they are soon overtaken by men and dogs. And they are frequently caught alive; but, from the difficulty of leading them out of

the thickets, the hunter usually kills them on the spot. The cariboo herds in the beginning of winter, and browses upon mosses and evergreens. They are numerous, and their flesh, which is far less palatable than moose venison, is sold in the principal markets during the cold season.

In different parts of the Province, there are extensive peat-bogs, chiefly covered by moss, bayberry and laurel, and commonly called Cariboo bogs, or Cariboo plains. Upon these wild prairies, droves of cariboo are sometimes seen from ten to thirty in number. They are admirable sites for deer-stalking—an art seldom practised except by the Indians.

There is yet another animal of the deer kind, smaller than the cariboo, and seldom exceeding 100 lbs. in weight. It is a very beautiful and swift creature, of an iron-rust colour on the back and sides. It differs from almost every other variety of the *Cervus* tribe, in having a tail a foot in length. The ears are also long, and stand erect by the sides of a pair of small horns. The animal is called by the inhabitants, the red deer; but in reality it is the Virginian deer (*Cervus Virginianus*). Its flesh is not highly esteemed; yet, the dried venison is very good.

The Virginian deer was not seen in New Brunswick prior to 1818; and it is evident that they have been driven into the Province from the south-west by droves of wolves. In remote and isolated clearings, at twilight, deer frequently enter the fields, and graze and gambol with young domestic cattle.

The skins of the moose, cariboo, and deer are valuable, and they are frequently employed for covering sleighs.

Foxes are sometimes hunted by a single hound or beagle, which often pursues reynard for several days. The fox seldom runs far away, but performs a wide circuit in the forest. The hunter conceals himself on the line of his circle, and fires upon him as he passes; and if he take the ground, he is dug out. The state of the country will not allow hunting with a pack.

Beaver have become very scarce, being only taken by the Indians, at the sources of the Tobique River, and on the branches of the Restigouche.

Notwithstanding the bounties offered by the Legislature for their

destruction, bears are rather numerous. They are hunted occasionally by men and dogs, but most frequently they are caught in fall-traps made of wood. They are not ferocious, except when their cubs are in danger, or they have been wounded.*

Among the carnivorous animals of the Province, wolves are the most destructive, and they are yearly growing more numerous and troublesome. It is now not unusual to hear of a whole flock of sheep being destroyed by these nocturnal depredators; they are not much hunted, and but seldom is a wolf killed.

The lynx, or wild cat, affords some sport; and when any number of them assemble together, they are very formidable. As soon as a cat is discovered, if a good dog be put on the track or scent, the animal will "tree" immediately: he generally selects the loftiest spruce, and climbs to the very summit. I have killed several in such situations, and one of them, a large male, after he had been pierced by a ball from my rifle, and fallen through the limbs upwards of seventy feet, beat off two powerful dogs and nearly killed a fine spaniel: he was finally despatched by another shot. On another occasion, I shot a very large lynx, and supposing that the animal was dead, hung him up to a tree by the hind legs, until I should return and carry him off: in a short time the cat revived, and began scratching the tree with his fore paws. A true Hibernian, who had very recently arrived in the country, chanced to pass the new road where the creature hung, and supposing it to be the great Evil Spirit, fled into the woods: being missed in the evening, a search was set on foot, and the lad was found again; but the poor

* In 1842, Poulcis, an old deaf-and-dumb Indian, had killed a deer among the Nerepis Hills, but being unable to carry the whole of the flesh away at once, a part of it was left, and for which the Indian returned on the following day, when he found that a bear had eaten up a part of the venison. The old man, in returning to his wigwam with the remainder of the deer on his back, suddenly felt a heavy paw upon his shoulder; he immediately turned round and raised his tomahawk: the bear and the Indian stood face to face some time, until the former sullenly retired, but afterwards followed him to some distance. Poulcis and Nuel Gable, an expert hunter, immediately set a trap for bruin, and he was caught and brought to the Writer. He was very old, much scarred, and weighed 400 lbs.

fellow always maintained that he saw a squirrel as large as a horse trying to go up a tree tail foremost.

The *Felis concolor*, panther, painter, or catamount—better known in the Province as the Indian Devil—although a small, is a very dangerous animal: they are very rare, yet sometimes a single skin is brought into the market.

Hares are plentiful; and they are frequently shot, or taken in snares.

Among the birds, the wild geese afford some profitable sporting. In the month of April they arrive in large flocks, and light in the open parts of the rivers. They are very numerous on the coast of the Bay Chaleurs. In the night-time, and during the April snow-storm, canoes are sometimes paddled among them, when the birds are killed by clubs. In fine weather they are very shy, and as soon as the sportsman approaches them, the sentinel, an old gander, sounds the well-known *caa-hoouk*, and away they fly; they are sometimes killed, and the largest weigh from twelve to fifteen pounds each.

The numerous rivers and lakes afford some fine duck-shooting, and in certain seasons pigeons are numerous. To the new settler, none of the feathered tribes is of more value than the common partridge, as it is called, although the bird is the ruffled grouse (*Tetrao umbellus*): another variety, which resembles the quail, is called the spruce partridge (*Tetrao Canadensis*); it is less palatable, and sometimes rendered unwholesome by feeding upon laurel leaves. Both kinds are exceedingly tame, and the latter may be caught in a noose suspended at the end of a long pole. A covey of the ruffled grouse, or birch partridges, in situations where they have not been disturbed, will remain on a tree until each individual is shot: the birds on the lower limbs should be shot first, as the falling of the upper ones will disturb those situated beneath them.

Snipe and woodcock afford some fine shooting in their season: the former are very numerous on the intervalles and borders of the great marshes; the latter frequent close covers of grey birch, cedar, larch, and alder. The Esquimaux curlew are as large as English partridges, but not numerous. Plover are sometimes plentiful in September. Cock and snipe shooting are not much practised, except in the neighbourhood of St. John and Fredericton. In the interior the snipes are

frequently called "mudsuckers." Gulls and other sea-birds are killed on the shores for their feathers.

Notwithstanding game is in some degree plentiful, farmers and settlers on new land are seldom seen sporting. When they sport at all, they shoot for the pot, and not for amusement.

A considerable number of wild animals are taken annually for their furs, by the Indians and a few trappers. The bear is readily taken in a large wooden cage, across the door of which a heavy piece of timber is fixed, with a trigger. Bait is placed in the cage. These traps are dangerous to dogs and other domestic animals, and men have been severely injured by them.

"A trapper went out to catch a bear, where
The trapper was caught, and not the bear, there."

Moose, cariboo, and the Virginian deer are sometimes ensnared; foxes are caught in steel traps; martins, ermines, and minks are taken in "dead falls:" muskrats, or musquashes, which are very plentiful, are generally shot.

There are ample materials for another pursuit—namely, lake and river fishing. The old Indian system of taking salmon is still pursued by the natives, and has been adopted by the whites. To take this valuable and delicious fish, a canoe is launched into the stream, in the darkest hours of the night, having a luminous torch of birch-bark or pine-knots burning over the prow. The fisherman stands in the stern of his bark, or "log," with a long pole, on one end of which is a spear, and with the other end he "poles" the canoe in the required direction. The light afforded by the torch enables him to see the salmon distinctly, which he strikes and secures with great dexterity. Besides what are taken in nets, great numbers of salmon are killed annually by the spear.*

* During the exploration of the Tobique River by the Writer in August 1842, his son and an Indian loaded a canoe with salmon and whitefish in a few hours, and it was with difficulty the natives could be restrained from killing the fish after the whole supply of salt had been applied for their preservation. Salmon are also plentiful in other rivers: they rise freely at a proper fly, and will afford the angler admirable sport.

Trout are exceedingly numerous in almost all the streams, and supply no inconsiderable quantity of food to the backwoodsman. They are taken by children, with a baited hook attached to a piece of twine on the end of a light pole, also in nets. In the month of March, holes are cut in the ice, and the trout are taken in great numbers by hooks baited with fat pork. A warm and mild day is chosen for ice-fishing.

To those who are fond of the piscatorial art, the rivers and lakes of New Brunswick offer abundant and varied sources of sport and amusement. In the Cheputnecticook River, where it runs through the unfrequented forest, the trout are so numerous that they may be swept on shore by seines. I have seen the bottom of the river covered by them; and no sooner does the artificial fly touch the water, especially the red hackle, than numbers of mouths are open to receive it, and the trout frequently spring into the air with the deceptive bait deeply gorged. Their ordinary weight is from half a pound to three pounds: the largest will weigh six pounds, and even more. Among them is a white trout called by the lumbermen "shiners." The Tobique, Aroostook, Miramichi, Nepisiguit, Upsalquitch, and Restigouche abound in trout; and the angler is only perplexed by the weight of his load, and the difficulty of rightly disposing of the produce of his sport.

In the lesser streams, the fish are smaller in size and inferior in flavour to the large and more highly-coloured varieties. Sea-trout may be taken on the north shores of the Province. In the Cheputnecticook Lakes, there is a kind of salmon called "togue," and sometimes "tuladi." It is the *Salmo lacustris*, a large fish weighing from fifteen to thirty pounds. Cuvier supposed that this variety of salmon was peculiar to the Lake of Geneva; but it is found in many of the large collections of fresh water in North America. It is caught with bait in the deepest water, in June and July, and the fishing is performed in canoes.

Whitefish are plentiful in the above lakes, and are annually taken in nets by the Americans, who do not hesitate to cross the boundary and fish in British water. The same fish are also numerous in the Tobique: they are about the size of large herrings, but far preferable for food. Bass, herring, and gaspereau also frequent some of the rivers at certain seasons: their particular resorts have been already mentioned. Stur-

geon are very common in the St. John; and gizzard fish, perch, suckers, chub, and others of the small fry, are also obtained in that river.

It is not probable that these fresh-water fisheries will ever be objects of a peculiar branch of industry; for before markets for their produce will be formed, the quantity of fish will be much reduced. They are rather resources to which the emigrant may direct some attention, in order to increase his stock of provisions; but they should never be pursued to the neglect of the tillage of the soil.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE FISHERIES OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

NEXT in importance to agriculture are the fisheries, which, under proper protection and management, would supply the elements of vast export and wealth. Of all the branches of our Provincial resources, this has been the most neglected. Among the negotiations carried on between Great Britain and foreign Powers, none have been more injurious to the interests of the Northern Colonies, nor displayed less wisdom and judgment, than those that have been applied to this essential portion of Colonial resources. The indiscreet negotiations between Great Britain and the United States of America, and the utter disregard of the existing treaties by the latter, have not only injured the fisheries, but have checked the spirit of enterprise among the Colonists, who turn away from their inherent rights to avoid the insults and depredations of the people of the neighbouring Republic. In giving a sketch of the history of the fisheries, we quote from an able Report of a Committee of the House of Assembly of Nova Scotia, made in 1837, which, with the evidence connected with it, exhibits a system of invasion upon British rights that still goes on unpunished, and is unparalleled in the records of modern times.

“The cod-fishery of Newfoundland and Canso, on the peninsula of Nova Scotia, commenced soon after the discovery of the former by Sebastian Cabot, in the reign of Henry the Seventh, 1497. All nations resorted to the banks and coasts of that island until the reign of Elizabeth, when Sir Humphrey Gilbert took possession, and claimed sovereignty under the right of original discovery: Newfoundland acknowledged that right. The French Government disputed the claim to the fishery of Canso, until Nova Scotia was ceded by treaty in 1749, and

Cape Breton conquered in 1758 ; from which period, British subjects pursued the fisheries on Brown's Bank and the banks of Nova Scotia *exclusively*, and on the banks of Newfoundland in *common* with the subjects of every European nation : the Colonists also, with British subjects only, resorted at pleasure to every part of Newfoundland, and to the Labrador coasts, after the expulsion of the French from Canada in 1759, to which Government Labrador then belonged, leaving the French accommodated with the Islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and the northern side of Newfoundland.* At the peace of 1783, a treaty was entered into between the United States and Great Britain, by the third article of which the people of the former obtained the right 'to take fish on the Grand Bank and all other banks of Newfoundland, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and all other places in the sea where the inhabitants of both countries had been used to fish before, and the liberty to fish on such part of the coast of Newfoundland as British fishermen used (but not to dry or cure fish there), and on the coasts, bays, and creeks of all other British dominions in America.' American fishermen also obtained *liberty* to dry and cure fish in any unsettled bays, harbours, and creeks of Nova Scotia, Magdalen Islands, and Labrador ; but as soon as any of them were settled, this liberty was to cease, unless continued by agreement with the inhabitants.

“ By this inconsiderate article of the treaty † (to speak of it in the

* The encroachments of the French upon the fisheries of Newfoundland have become a subject of general complaint by the inhabitants of that island. Being supported by bounties, the French have a decided advantage over the British, and the supply of bait they receive from the islanders, contrary to the treaty, has made them most successful competitors. From encroachments and violations of the rights of British subjects, St. John, that formerly sent one hundred sail of vessels to the Banks, in 1844 sent only *three*. No sooner is a British vessel anchored on the Bank, than she is surrounded by Frenchmen, who set their bultoes and draw away all the fish.

† The Provisional Treaty of 1783 was framed by Mr. Oswald, the Plenipotentiary of Great Britain, and Franklin and Jay on the part of the United States. On the return of the former to England, the merchants of London waited upon him and remonstrated against the concession he had made, of which it has been said he acknowledged his ignorance and wept. Franklin, in a letter from Paris, stated that Mr. Oswald appeared to be “so good and reasonable a man, that he should be loath to lose him—he seems to have nothing

mildest terms), a source was opened from which flowed a torrent of misfortune to the inhabitants of this Province: by it the harbours of the Atlantic Colonies were thrown open to the vessels of the United States; the native fishermen subjected to a hostile rivalry, with which they were unable to compete, and from which no prospect was afforded of escape; while liberties of no ordinary character were ceded to the United States, affording profitable fields for commerce, and fostering a race of seamen conducive to national wealth in peace, and to defence and glory in war. Writhing under difficulties thus heaped on them, the Colonists, by the declaration of war in 1812, were unexpectedly relieved, and exerted themselves to retain their restored rights. Fishing vessels of the United States were ordered off by British naval forces, or captured and condemned, on the ground that the treaty no longer existed, maintaining that the Treaty of 1783, not having been confirmed by the Treaty of Ghent, was annulled by the war of 1812. At this period warm and energetic remonstrances went from the Colonies, soliciting the protection of their rights; and on the subject of the fisheries, Nova Scotia was foremost. By memorial, on the 8th of October, 1813, she entreated His Majesty's Ministers to guard against the hateful article of the Treaty of 1783, and to exclude the French, American, and foreign fishermen from the narrow seas and waters of these northern Colonies; stating that her inhabitants procured a living by their industry on those shores, which unquestionably belonged to Great Britain. She urged, that if American citizens were to obtain the right of entering the gulfs, bays, harbours, or creeks of these Colonies, there would be no security against illicit trade, and the numerous evils attending such intercourse: that the sentiments, habits, and manners, both political and moral, of the lower order of Americans were dangerous and contaminating: that it was the first and most fervent wish of these Colonies to be completely *British*—their surest defence

at heart but the good of mankind, and putting a stop to mischief. Mr. Oswald, an old man, seems now to have no desire but that of being useful." From these, and a variety of other facts, it is plain that the British Ambassador was completely outwitted by the cunning and crafty course of the American Diplomats, and gave away fisheries to which the Republic had no equitable claim.

and greatest blessing ; and that the intercourse permitted by that fatal article of the definitive treaty was detrimental and ruinous.

“ The United States dissented from the doctrine maintained by Great Britain, and, after protracted negotiation and various proposals, the Convention of 1818, under which the inhabitants of this Colony have been a second time stripped of their natural rights, was agreed on ; and, disregarding the voice of the people, the Minister of that day consented that the United States should have for ever, in common with British subjects, the liberty to fish on the southern coasts of Newfoundland, from Cape Rae to the Raman Islands, on the western and northern coasts of Newfoundland, and from that Cape to the Querpon Islands, on the shores of the Magdalen Islands, and on the coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks from Mount Jolie, on the southern coast of Labrador, to and through the Straits of Belisle, and thence indefinitely along the coast northerly, but without prejudice to the exclusive rights of the Hudson’s Bay Company ; and that the American fishermen should also have liberty for ever to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbours, and creeks of the southern coast of Newfoundland, as above described, and of the coast of Labrador—subject, after settlement, to agreement with the proprietors of the soil. In consequence of the above stipulation, the United States renounced for ever the liberty of fishing within three marine miles of any part of the British coasts of America, or of curing or drying fish on them ; but American fishermen were to be permitted to enter bays or harbours on the prohibited coasts, for shelter, repairing damages, and purchasing wood and obtaining water, and for no other purpose whatever, subject to restrictions necessary to prevent abuses. Thus, in the face of the decisions of our Courts—of petitions from Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the merchants of London interested in the Colonies, the foregoing fatal treaty was proposed, agreed on, and completed with such marked secrecy, that none were apprised of its terms until it appeared in the public prints, and the people of this Province deprived of their most valuable birthright, *the fisheries.*

“ The advantage conferred on the citizens of the United States of America by the foregoing policy, was received by them, not as a boon, but as a right. Although the war of 1812 had abrogated the Treaty of

1783, the Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States, who negotiated and settled the new convention, to use his own language, said, 'It was by *our* act that the United States *renounced* the right to the fisheries not guaranteed to them by the convention. We deemed it proper under a threefold view,—1st, To exclude the implication of the fisheries secured to us being a *new* grant; 2nd, To place the rights secured and renounced on the same footing of permanence; 3rd, That it might expressly appear that our renunciation was limited to *three* miles of the coasts. This last point we deemed of more consequence, from our fishermen having informed us, that the whole fishing-ground on the coast of Nova Scotia extended to a greater distance than three miles from the land, whereas on the coast of Labrador it was universally close in with the shore. To the saving of the exclusive rights of the Hudson's Bay Company we did not object; the charter of that Company had been granted in 1670, and the people of the United States had never enjoyed rights in that bay which could trench upon those of the Company. Finally, it is to be remarked, that the liberty of drying and curing on certain parts of the coasts of Newfoundland, as secured in the article, had not been allotted to the United States, even under the old Treaty of 1783.'

"When the convention was made public, the article on the fisheries was assailed by complaints from all quarters, and none more loud or just than those from Nova Scotia. Galled by the recollection of the Treaty of Paris in 1814, the Colonists felt that Great Britain, when flushed with conquest, and wearing the laurels of victory, had yielded to the intrigues of the vanquished, and alienated the rights of her subjects; they felt the utter hopelessness of breaking the treaty—that the fate of the fishery was sealed, and were lulled into submission by the intimation of the Ministry, that bounties would be granted upon their fish, to compensate for the disadvantages inevitably imposed. In Nova Scotia, the information produced gloom, distrust, and despair. They were, however, still composed by the assurance of the Government, that their remaining rights should be protected—that the naval force would repel infringers of the treaty, and the flag of England would insure safety to the industrious class engaged in the laborious pursuits of the fishery; and the Colonists were assured, that the vigilance of

the naval force would shut out the dangerous rivalry of foreigners, at least in the fishery within three marine miles of the coast of Nova Scotia. How far their anticipations and hopes have been realised will appear in the sequel."*

Notwithstanding the concessions made by the Treaty of 1783, previous to and during the war of 1812, Great Britain enjoyed the chief fisheries of the Banks of Newfoundland, Labrador, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.†

The mackerel, herring, and gaspereau fisheries were then not pursued with much ardour, as other fish were considered more valuable. At Percé and Paspédiac, there were several extensive fishing establishments, and also at Shippegan and other places along the northern coast of New Brunswick. The salmon fisheries of the Restigouche, Miramichi, and Richibucto were then of much consequence, and thousands of tierces of them were shipped annually to a foreign market. The whole shore at certain seasons was lined by the finny tribes, which, from the offal thrown overboard by the Americans, have since been reduced.

Through the medium of her Northern Colonies, Great Britain then had the command of the Spanish, Portuguese, Madeira, West Indian, Mediterranean, and South American markets, which she supplied with fish, and each returning ship was laden with the produce of other countries, whereby a most active and flourishing trade was steadily

* Journal of the House of Assembly of Nova Scotia, 1837.

† According to Mr. M'Gregor, the exports in 1814 were—

1,200,000 quintals Fish, at 40s.	£2,400,000
20,000 „ Core do., at 12s.	12,000
6,000 tuns Cod Oil, at £32	192,000
156,000 Seal Skins, at 5s.	39,000
4,666 tuns Seal Oil, at £36	167,976
2,000 tierces Salmon, at £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 £25	2,525
Beaver Skins and other Furs	600
Pine Timber and Planks	500
400 puncheons Berries	2,000

maintained, and through the fisheries an inexhaustible source of wealth was opened to the Provinces, a boundless field was offered for training seamen, and the maritime resources of the Colonies promised sufficient support to render them a powerful rival of the whole American Republic. These advantages existed even under the Treaty of 1783, which had ceded away many British rights. The third article of that treaty was assailed in the House of Commons by Lord North, who, in a noble speech, declared that "in our spirit of reciprocity, we had given to the Americans an unlimited right to take fish of any kind on the Great Bank, and use all the other banks of Newfoundland. But this was not sufficient. We have also given them the right of fishing in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and at all other places in the sea where they have heretofore, through us, enjoyed the privilege of fishing. They have also the power of even partaking of the fishery which we still retain. We have not been content with resigning what we promised, but even of sharing of what we have left. The United States have liberty to fish on that part of the coast of Newfoundland which British fishermen shall use. All the reserve is, that they are not to dry and cure fish on the same island. This is certainly a striking instance of that liberal equity which we find in the basis of the provisional treaty; but where shall I find an instance of that reciprocity which is also set forth in the preamble? We have given the Americans the unlimited privilege of fishing on all the coasts, bays, and creeks in our American dominions; but where have they, under this principle of reciprocity, given us the privilege of fishing on any of their coasts, bays, and creeks? I could wish such an article could be found, were it only to give a colour to this boasted reciprocity."*

If British Statesmen are indeed celebrated for their skill in diplomatic affairs, and for wisdom and justice in their negotiations with foreign Powers, Her Majesty's subjects have seldom discovered them on this side of the Atlantic, in former treaties or in those now existing, by which our fisheries have been given away, or thrown open to encroachments and endless cavillings. A part of New Brunswick has been assigned to a grasping commonwealth, who would fain spread the wings

* Cobbett, vol. xxiii. p. 451.

of their eagle over the land and water of the whole continent; and fears are now entertained that the Oregon Territory still in dispute will be yielded up to the avariciousness and jealousy of the American Congress. For the leniency of the parent-country towards the people of the United States, an apology has been found in the fact that there is a strong paternal affection towards the inhabitants of the New World; but such a feeling ceases to be a virtue when it is exercised with a partiality to the rebellious and undutiful, and is prejudicial to the faithful and obedient.

From the rights of fishing granted to the French at the close of the last war, and to the Americans by the Treaty of 1818, the advantages of the great fisheries are, in a great degree, lost to the subjects of Great Britain. The French and American Governments give bounties and other encouragements to their fisheries on the coast. The fish taken by the French and Americans can therefore be sold on much lower terms in the market than those caught by British subjects. If they be not put on an equal footing with the subjects of those Powers, the advantages they possess over the British must have the effect of sapping the foundation of the trade, and subverting the fisheries altogether.*

The French had always attached a high degree of importance to the fisheries on our coasts, and after Louisburg and Quebec, their strongholds in America, had been taken from them, they continued to negotiate with great address and firmness for those maritime resources, not only for the support of their trade, but also for a profitable employment, by which thousands of their subjects were annually trained to the sea, and thereby affording the elements of a powerful navy. Of all the men employed in this branch of industry, at least one-fourth were landsmen, or persons unacquainted with the sea; "and by this trade they bred up from 4,000 to 6,000 seamen annually." †

In 1829, France employed from 250 to 300 vessels in the fisheries on the British American coasts, and 25,000 sea-going fishermen, who by treaty are not permitted to become residents. Their vessels are from 100 to 400 tons burthen, and carry from 40 to 120 men each.

* Memorial of the inhabitants of Newfoundland to Earl Bathurst.

† M'Gregor's British America, vol. i. p. 241.

Since that period the number of men and vessels has been increased, but to what extent I have been unable to determine.

In the above year the Americans employed in these fisheries 1,500 vessels, manned by 15,000 men, and took 1,000,000 quintals of fish and 3,000 tuns of oil. The total number now employed exceeds 2,500 vessels and 25,000 men. At the lowest estimate, one quarter of these vessels fish in British waters, and beyond the bounds prescribed by the treaty. The whole quantity of fish taken in British-American seas is now equal to 2,000,000 quintals annually.

It is justly observed by Mr. M'Gregor, that "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 now determine 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." Mr. Rush, in his work, has given a history of the negotiations on the subject of the fisheries, and has endeavoured to defend the principles laid down in the Treaty of 1783; but in this his failure is very manifest, and it has been repeatedly decided by the best authorities that the claims of the Americans could not be sustained by law or equity.

The fears of the Colonists at the time when the last treaty was made are proved to have been but too well founded, and they now realise all the evils, and even more than they then anticipated. It is not possible that the framers of those treaties on the part of Great Britain could have foreseen the result of the concessions made to France and the United States, by which the Colonies are now oppressed, and the right reserved for them intruded upon, either by stealth or open violence.

Among the unwise and impolitic concessions made to the French and Americans, are those that allow them to enter the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which is encircled by British territory, and whose vast and almost uninhabited shores cannot be protected against aggression by fishermen. The prohibition not to approach *within three marine miles of the shore* is so easily evaded, that it is an invitation to land rather than a restriction. The liberties granted to the above Powers have greatly depre-

ciated the value of fish in foreign markets, and diminished the political importance and real value of the fisheries. From the extraordinary privileges granted to the American Republic, and the humiliating surrender of Colonial rights recognised by each successive treaty, it is not surprising that, during the past year, they should again endeavour to obtain by negotiation the few remaining fishing rights of the Colonies, and seek a novel interpretation of the language of a treaty that, in its plain meaning, had already given them far beyond their just claims. By force and "management," they have compelled France, Spain, and Russia to make room for them at three different points of the compass. Texas has been taken by their charm. They have coaxed Great Britain to extend their north-eastern boundary upon the lands of Canada and New Brunswick. The aboriginal tribes of America have been driven back, regardless of justice or humanity, until, to use the language of one of their chiefs, "their faces are towards the great icy ocean, where their homes will be with the white bear in the mountains of snow, until the Great Spirit shall take them all away to the land where the pale-faces never come." They claim the Oregon country, first discovered and occupied by British subjects, and begin to anticipate the possession of the whole continent. To them the remaining fisheries of the Colonists are unimportant, except that they are an object which will serve to perpetuate a system of constant acquisition they have always maintained, and to which the parent-country has but too often submitted, at the sacrifice of the interests of her faithful subjects.

In 1845, despatches were sent from the Colonial Office by Lord Stanley, then Secretary for the Colonies, to the Governors of the several North American Provinces, respecting the fisheries. The despatch to Viscount Falkland dated 19th of May states, "that, after mature deliberation, Her Majesty's Government deem it advisable, for the interests of both countries, *to relax the strict rule of exclusion exercised* by Great Britain over the fishing-vessels of the United States entering the bays of the sea on the British North American coasts." This intelligence was received in the Provinces with the deepest regret and anxiety. The danger of being brought to a further degree of humiliation, and of having every cove and inlet lined by American fishermen, aroused all classes of the inhabitants, and strong remonstrances were

promptly sent to the Colonial Secretary against a measure that would surrender the remaining fishing rights of the people to foreigners, who had trampled upon the restrictions of the Treaty of 1818, and many of whom had put both National and Provincial law at defiance. Had the request of the American Minister been complied with, the present sound loyalty of the Colonists would have had a worm placed at its root, or begun to falter under a burden fixed gratuitously upon their resources. Fortunately, the active measures employed by the different Local Governments had a salutary effect, and the American Minister was defeated in his main object; but not until he had declared, that the Provincial law relating to the fisheries possessed "*none of the qualities of the law of a civilised State except its forms.*" In the despatch of Lord Stanley to the Governor of Nova Scotia, of 17th September, 1845, the former states, that, "respecting the policy of granting permission to the fishermen of the United States to fish in the Bay of Chaleurs, and other large bays of a similar character on the coasts of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and apprehending from your statements that any such general concession would be injurious to the interests of the British North American Provinces, we have abandoned the intention we had entertained upon the subject, and shall adhere to the strict letter of the treaties which exist between Great Britain and the United States relative to the fisheries in North America, except in so far as they may relate to the Bay of Fundy, *which has been thrown open to the Americans under certain restrictions.*" Here, again, a gradual yielding to the citizens of the Republic is as manifest as ever, and which, if it be not speedily and permanently checked, will lead to consequences most disastrous to the welfare of the Colonies.

The Convention of 1818 allowed the people of the United States to fish along all the coasts and harbours within three marine miles of the shore, and to cure fish in such bays and harbours as are not inhabited; but if inhabited, subject to agreement with the proprietors of the soil. It also permits them to enter bays or harbours on the prohibited coasts for shelter, repairing damages, and purchasing wood and obtaining water, and for no other purpose whatever—subject to restrictions, to prevent abuses.

It has been decided by eminent lawyers, that, according to the plain

and obvious construction of the convention, the citizens of the United States cannot fish within three marine miles of the headlands of the coasts of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; and that they have no right to enter the bays, harbours, or creeks, except for shelter, or for the objects before mentioned—and then only on having proved that they left their own ports properly equipped for their voyages: but it has been abundantly proved, by the most unquestionable authority, from time to time, and the fact is notorious, that they frequent our shores as freely as they do their own, or as if they had a confirmed right to them.

Having given a very brief view of the rapid advances made upon our fisheries by the Americans under the Treaties of 1783 and 1818, and their pretensions to still further liberties, we may turn to the practical effects of those treaties, and examine a little into their ultimate consequences.

Not only do the American fishermen visit our shores, contrary to the terms of the Convention of 1818, but they land and purchase bait from the inhabitants. In numerous instances, they set their nets in the coves and harbours of the Province, and not unfrequently compel the inhabitants, by force, to submit to their encroachments. They land on the Magdalen Islands, and take the fish as freely as British subjects, who, by superior forces, are sometimes driven from their own ground.

Early in April, schooners, shallops, and other craft, are fitted out in almost every harbour of the Western States and despatched to the fisheries. They are amply supplied with provisions, salt, empty casks, seines, nets, lines, hooks, jigs, and every article necessary for taking all kinds of fish. Such as are intended for a shore or "trading voyage" carry a stock of pork, flour, molasses, tobacco, gin, and other goods adapted to the wants of the Provincial fisherman and his family. As the season advances, the banks and best fishing-grounds are covered by these craft, and whole fleets may be seen engaged in drawing up the finny inhabitants of the sea. Very many of these vessels anchor and fish within three miles of the shore. During the evening, they will enter the small bays and inlets, set their nets, and, by early dawn on the following morning, are seen moving off with the fish taken in the dark hour of night. Even farther, when they have been unsuccessful

in obtaining bait, they draw and unload the nets of the inhabitants, who, by remonstrating, are almost sure to have their nets afterwards overhauled or destroyed.

Upon the slightest pretext, they take advantage of the humane intentions of the treaty, and enter the harbours, rivers, and creeks, to obtain wood and water. On such occasions they frequently set their nets on the shore, and anchor as near the land as safety will admit. Meanwhile their crews are actively employed in fishing.

The vessels, sent out for the twofold object of fishing and trading, boldly enter the harbour, into which they pour their casks of water: they have sprung a mast or boom—one of the crew is sick—or some disaster has happened, whereby they draw forth the sympathies of the inhabitants; but no sooner is the vessel safely moored, than a traffic commences. Green, salted, and half-dried fish are all taken for American goods; which being landed free of any Colonial duty, are given to the fishermen at a lower price than those obtained from the established merchant. The work of the smuggler is completed in a few hours; and as he makes his visit at those periods when the fish are most plentiful, he generally departs richly freighted, leaving the flakes and salting-tubs of the shoremen empty. The fishermen of our shores seldom resist these temptations, and they are often deceived by the declaration, that their accommodating visitors are true Englishmen. Should a British cruiser appear, or an officer with proper authority take cognizance of the act, some exigency, embraced by the terms of the treaty, are immediately brought to his notice, and duly supported by the solemn declaration of the crew; or if the vessel should be seized according to law, the matter becomes a subject of grave consideration between the two Powers, and, forsooth, a war may be threatened by the apprehension of a foreigner taken in the act of carrying on an illicit trade! Thus the resources of the country are nefariously taken away, and the morals of its people corrupted by the introduction of practices which are abhorred by every honest inhabitant.

The merchant who pays the duties on his goods, and advances them to the fishermen of his district under a promise of payment from the fruits of his labour, is defrauded, and the revenue of the Province is diminished, by an unlawful traffic. Again, many of our young men are

enticed away, and the bounties offered by the Americans to their fishermen are held out as a temptation for them to depart with their chary and cunning visitors.

Such aggressions are not limited to any particular part of the coast, nor to the thinly-populated districts.* Throughout the fishing season, their vessels enter the harbours, and surround the Island of Grand Manan. They are scattered along the shores of the Bay of Fundy, and enter the harbours, bays, and inlets of Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, Magdalen Islands, and coast of Labrador, passing into the Gulf of St. Lawrence through the Strait of Canseau, which, to the distance of fifteen miles, is not to exceed a mile and a half wide. Their vessels are very numerous in the Gulf, and occupy the best fishing stations on the banks between Prince Edward's Island and New Brunswick, the Magdalen Islands and coast of Labrador, to the exclusion of British fishermen. In the summer season, they line the north coast of New Brunswick, enter the Bay Chaleurs with impunity, and frequent the excellent fishing-ground at Miscon Island, and those of the Gaspé coast. As the Gulf and its bays are almost unprotected by cruisers, they not only fish upon the shores, and carry on an illicit trade, but sometimes drive the inhabitants away by force, take their bait, destroy their nets, and go on shore and plunder the harmless settlers.† Such are the operations of the Convention of 1818, which was, as an American fisherman compared it to the Writer, "a net set by the British to catch the Yankees; but the meshes were so large, that a fishing craft of a hundred tons burthen might pass through it without touching."

* On the 5th of June last, an American fisherman was seized while lying at anchor "inside of the lighthouse, at the entrance of Digby Gut, near the town of Digby, about a quarter of a mile from the shore, his nets lying on the deck still wet, with scales of herring attached to the meshes, and having fresh herring on board his vessel. The excuse sworn to was, that rough weather had made a harbour necessary; that the nets were wet from being recently washed, but that the fish were caught while the vessel was beyond three miles of the shore."—*Despatch of Lord Falkland, 1845.*

† See evidence taken by the Legislature, Appendix to Journals of the House of Assembly of Nova Scotia, 1837.

But the inquiry immediately arises, Why are not these aggressions prevented by our men-of-war and cruisers on the North American station? To this it may be replied, that none but the smallest class of vessels are suitable for such a service, and of such there are but few employed on the coast. The whole length of the coasts to be guarded, including their bays and indentations, will exceed 2,000 miles, and therefore protection could scarcely be afforded, except by a large fleet of small vessels adapted for running into narrow estuaries and shallow bays. The movements of a cruiser are well understood by an American fisherman, who, when his vessel is boarded, has sufficient ingenuity, with the aid of the large meshes in the treaty, to "get clear off."* Yet

* In 1839, I had occasion to take passage in a small American mackerel fishing craft, from Eastport to Grand Manan; and, in consequence of the vessel having struck a shoal of mackerel, I was detained twenty-four hours. The "General Jackson" was filled to the hatches with salt, empty barrels, and provisions; along the deck were ranges of empty puncheons and casks, and for each man four mackerel lines, completely fitted, were attached to the inside of the bulwarks. The hook employed is about the size of that used in fishing for salmon, with a conical piece of pewter ingeniously cast on the shank, and kept bright by scouring with the dogfish skin. This is called a jig, and in the water resembles the small sepia, or a kind of shrimp, upon which the mackerel feed. Besides these jigs, there were a number of small iron rods, with a hook at the end of each, being attached to a long and light spruce handle. Nets are sometimes used. Several casks were filled with small her- ring and other fish, in a state of putrefaction—these are used for bait. There is a curious machine called the bait-mill, consisting of a cylinder studded with sharp pieces of iron, and turned in a box, also occupied with knives and wooden pegs. The bait is thrown into the box, the crank turned, and out of a spout comes the ground fish, which is called *poheegan*. While we were dashing along in a pleasant breeze, the crew were employed in preparing bait and cleaning the jigs. Happy in his prospects, one of the fishermen sang "Jim Crow," and another chanted,

"Come, little mackerel, come along,
Come listen to the Yankee's song;
See, the day is fine, the cutter's away,—
Oh, come along and with us play."

After closely observing a large flight of gulls that hung over the water for some time, the old bronze-faced Captain spoke in a mild tone, "Make no noise. Seth, haul the jib-sheet to windward. Aaron and Washington, small pull main-sheet. Steady, now!" The schooner now lay driving to leeward, at a

they are occasionally taken, and compelled to submit to the law of the land.

Strong remonstrances have been made from time to time by the different Legislatures to Her Majesty's Government, calling their attention to the state of the fisheries. They have not, however, resulted in much improvement in the prevention of the evils complained of. A few fast-sailing schooners, properly equipped for the service, would soon repel the invaders of our rights.

The Americans are far more successful in fishing than the inhabitants of the British Provinces, and supply their fish at a lower price than will remunerate our own people. This fact has its origin in a variety of circumstances. Their Government affords great encouragement to this branch of industry. A tonnage bounty is given to their fishing vessels, which secures the fisherman against any serious loss in the event of the failure of his voyage. He has also a privilege in the importation of salt, and is protected in his home-market by a duty of

gentle rate, when a hogshead of *poheegan* was thrown into the sea, and soon covered the surface of the water with oil and small fragments of fish. The mackerel rose immediately, and formed a close shoal more than three miles in circumference. Scarcely a word was spoken; and, during three hours, all hands displayed the greatest activity in hooking, jigging, and drawing in the fish, which sported in millions around the vessel; nor could I remain an idle spectator to the interesting scene. In an instant the mackerel disappeared, and the vessel was put upon her course, having her deck, cabin floor, and every unoccupied space covered with the dead and dying fish, the whole quantity of which was estimated at twenty-five barrels. This fishing took place within three miles of the northern head of Grand Manan. Before leaving the hospitable Captain, I inquired how he avoided the British cutter, then stationed on the coast? To which he replied,—“Oh, we know how to work them critters to a shavin'. Don't you see, there are about three hundred of us here; every one of us has a little kind of a signal. When any one sees the cutter of your Woman King, up goes the signal; and when the fog is so thick you can cut it into square pieces with a splitting-knife, toot goes the cowhorn, (these cowhorns are employed to wet the sails, and are called spouting-horns). You see, this island is twenty-five miles long; when the cutter comes to one end, we go to t'other; and when she comes to t'other, we go to t'other. Why, friend, we bow-peep 'em.” My voyage terminated, I was landed by the Captain, who very politely offered me as many fish as he supposed I had taken during the passage.

five shillings per quintal on dry fish, and from one to two dollars per barrel on pickled fish. The duty imposed on American fish imported into the Colonies is much less, and no bounty is offered to their fishermen, whose markets are limited and fluctuating.*

In consequence of the great advantages afforded to the citizens of the United States by the treaties, and their ready mode of evading the stipulations of the convention, their whole system of taking and curing fish has been rendered superior to that followed by the people of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. They have also the advantage of obtaining provisions at a much lower rate, a greater sea-going population, and, from long experience, a better knowledge of the most productive fishing-grounds.

On the coast of the Eastern States, half-a-dozen "neighbours" will build a fishing-schooner during the winter, and send her out manned by a few young men, with an experienced captain and pilot. The proceeds of the voyage are divided among the whole company. If a merchant or any other person send out a vessel, he supplies nets, and the crew find provisions, hooks, lines, &c. On her return, the cargo, or "catch," is divided, each of the crew having the share agreed upon (usually five-eighths of the whole). Under these agreements, every man has a direct interest in the success of the enterprise, which stimulates him to industry.

The crews of British fishing-vessels, although equally active, are most frequently hired by the month, and, consequently, they have less interest in the profits of the voyage. Nor is it a rare case that they become disheartened by the threats and insults heaped upon them by their more numerous rivals.

To encourage the fisheries, it has been recommended to admit every article required for them duty-free—a privilege now granted by the Government of Nova Scotia, but one which has been found open to abuses little better than smuggling. A bounty on tonnage, or on every quintal of dry and every barrel of pickled fish, would be returned to the revenue by an increase of trade; and the advancement of agricul-

* Despatch of the Governor of Nova Scotia to Lord Stanley, 1845.

ture would supply the provisions now imported for the fishing part of the population.

Many of the practices of the Americans, while they add nothing to their own interest, are calculated to destroy the inshore fisheries altogether. It is a very general practice for them to throw all the offal of the fish they take overboard. When such offal is thrown into the sea at a distance of three miles from the land or bays, and in deep water, the consequences are far less injurious than when it is cast overboard near the shore. With a knowledge of this fact, after the offal of several days' fishing has accumulated, the Americans wait a leisure time and throw it into the sea within the range of boat-fishing. The whole mass of "garbage" is immediately devoured by the fish near the land, and to which it is extremely destructive.* Nor will codfish take the baited hook freely at places where offal has been thrown.

By the practice of jiggging mackerel, many fish are wounded and finally die, and the living ones always retire from the dead of their own kind. Many undue advantages are also taken of the Colonial fishermen, who, from inferiority of numbers, are compelled to submit to threats and insults, and not unfrequently to be driven away from their lawful inheritance.† The result has been, that French and American fishing-vessels are rapidly increasing in numbers, while the British fishermen are on the decline; and if the encroachments of those two Powers are not speedily and effectually checked, the subjects of Great Britain will be deprived of a most valuable branch of national industry, and the Government will discover when it is too late, that a most important part of her Colonial resources has been taken away by the aggressions of foreign Powers.

The fisheries of New Brunswick, if duly protected, and pursued with

* The sharp bones of the spines and heads of fish, when taken by a living fish, penetrate the maw, produce diseases of the liver and death. Fish that feed on offal are sickly and unfit for use. I have frequently taken white stones from the maws of healthy codfish, than which there is scarcely a more voracious animal.

† See Report on the Fisheries, Journals of the House of Assembly of Nova Scotia, 1837.

energy, would form one of the principal sources of her wealth and prosperity. The coasts, indented by numerous harbours, bays, and rivers, afford every facility for shore and deep-sea fishing; and although the practices of the Americans have annually reduced the numbers of the finny tribes, they are still sufficiently numerous to render the employment, under proper management, profitable. But, from causes already adverted to, the demand for timber, and a scanty population, the fisheries are not pursued with energy, and the fishermen lack the stimulus of the bounties given to the Americans, with whom they are unable to maintain a competition.

The whole number of fishing-vessels belonging to the ports and harbours of the Bay-of-Fundy side of the Province, in 1840, was only sixty-five. Their burthens were from ten to thirty tons each. The present number, including twenty belonging to Grand Manan, will not exceed seventy, exclusive of shore fishing-boats. That island alone, with a proper population, could employ advantageously one hundred, and the whole coast six hundred. The number of fishing-vessels belonging to the United States, and fishing in the same waters, is as ten to one. The fishermen of the Province, with few exceptions, are far less persevering and industrious than the Americans, or even the people of Nova Scotia.

The larger vessels fish for cod on the banks. The shore-fishing is carried on in boats: but they are often very imperfectly supplied with fishing-tackle, and the catch is limited. There is an annual decrease in the number of codfish along the shores, while the haddock are quite as plentiful as they were in former years—a circumstance arising from the fact that the “garbage” thrown into the sea is more destructive to codfish than to haddock. Halibut, hake, and other kinds of fish, are taken by the baited codfish hook; pollock are trailed for in swift water.

Herring are taken in nets, but the greatest quantities are caught in “wares.”* Sweeps are also made by large seines. It frequently

* These are circular enclosures of strong stakes, driven into the beaches near low-water mark, and interwoven with brushwood. At high-water they are covered by the sea. When the tide recedes, the fish are enclosed in the ware, and left dry. The enclosure is sometimes made with strong nets.

happens that a much larger quantity of herring are taken in a single tide than can be secured by the fishermen, or perhaps more than their stock will cure. In such instances, great quantities of dead fish are washed away, and which, with the offal thrown into the water, are no doubt a great injury to the fisheries; yet little attention is given to this abuse of one of the best temporal gifts of Providence. Five hundred and even one thousand barrels of herring are sometimes taken in one of these wares in a single night-tide. I have never known an instance on the shores of the Bay of Fundy, where the proprietors of one of these wooden cages were prepared to secure a large catch, or "haul," as it is frequently called.

These wares, erected in the commencement of the fishing season in almost all the bays, harbours, and creeks, are frequently leased to the Americans, who catch, cure, and smoke the fish upon the shores by the consent of the inhabitants, and in direct violation of the Treaty of 1783, and the Convention of 1818. In Passamaquoddy Bay, they fish for cod within a quarter of a mile from the British islands. The advantages of the people are thus sacrificed, often for small supplies of American goods, which are called for by their pressing necessities, the offspring of their idleness, and the relinquishment of their rights.

That the fisheries are capable of supporting an extensive trade, and of affording ample remuneration to individual exertion, is certain, from the success that always attends the labours of those who pursue them with activity and energy.*

Many of the inhabitants of the coast and islands engage in the different employments of agriculture, fishing, and lumbering; but, as

* In 1839 (which was an unfavourable season for fishing), William Gubtail purchased for his son a boat of eleven tons burthen, for which he paid £100. With this small vessel, the son, with four men whom he had hired, not only cleared the expenses and purchase-money of the vessel, &c., but supported the whole of his father's family during the whole of the winter. Between the months of May and October of 1840, he made three trips to the deep-sea fishing, and caught 250 quintals of codfish. Twice he went to the herring fishing, and landed 170 barrels. He also made a third voyage for herrings. Thus, in less than six months, he cleared double the value of his vessel, paid his expenses, and supported his family.—*Report on the Fisheries of the Bay of Fundy*, by Captain Robb, R.N. 1840. St. John: Henry Chubb & Co.

might be expected, they are unsuccessful in each of those branches of labour. They plant a few potatoes, and fish in boats during the summer. In winter they embark for the forest, shoot, or remain idle. Many who take large supplies of fish during their season, are compelled to purchase them from the trader during the cold months at a high price. These observations will not, however, apply to the whole fishing population, of whom exceptions are to be made for a few individuals who live comfortably, and have, by their industry, gained an honest independence. The present degraded and unprofitable state of the fisheries has resulted from the violations of the convention by the American fishermen, who obtain bounties on fish taken and cured upon British shores, and the indifference of the coast settlers, who remain contented with a precarious subsistence, the result of idleness, rather than earn a comfortable competency. As natural consequences, poverty, and sometimes absolute misery, is too often seen among them, and the resources of both the sea and the land are unproductive in their hands.

Mackerel may be taken in the Bay of Fundy from the 1st of May to the middle of October. They are taken by hooks, or on jigs; nets are seldom employed. Mackerel fishing is not followed with much enterprise, and is therefore seldom profitable. The principal shad fisheries are those of the St. John and Peticodiac. Salmon are taken in the small bays and large rivers in nets, or speared during the dark hours of the night. Shad and gaspereau are caught in nets. A fish called menhaden, which resembles a small shad, although plentiful, is not deemed profitable. Porpoises are shot by the Indians during the summer for their oil. Lobsters and other shellfish are abundant. Whales are seen upon the coast at all seasons, but no attempts are made to capture them.

The Mechanics' Whale Fishing Company, and C. C. Stewart, Esq., of St. John, are engaged in the whale fishery of the Pacific Ocean. The exports of whale oil from the Province average about 100,000 gallons, and of sperm oil 50,000 gallons, per annum.

The fisheries on the north-east or Gulf-of-St. Lawrence coast of New Brunswick are not in a more prosperous state than those of the Bay of Fundy, except at Caraquette, which exports from 8,000 to 10,000

quintals of dry fish annually. The encroachments and contraband trade of the American fishermen are even more daring in the Gulf than along the Atlantic coast.

Codfish are still abundant on many of the banks and shoals, and great facilities are offered for shore-fishing. Haddock, pollock, and halibut are very numerous at certain seasons; with these there are immense shoals of herring. Caplin are sometimes carted on the fields for manure. Salmon frequent all the rivers; but since the erection of saw-mills their numbers have decreased. Gaspereau and smelts are taken in the principal streams; and sea trout enter the lagoons.

Mackerel may be taken in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Bay Chaleurs from May to October, and large catches are made by the American fishermen. In summer the mackerel are lean, but in the autumn they are remarkably fat and of large size. Lobsters, clams, and other shellfish are plentiful. Oysters are shipped from different parts of the shore to Quebec, Halifax, St. John, and other places. In the early settlement of the country, walrus were taken, and they are occasionally seen. There are two varieties of seals. Whales pursue the fish into the Gulf during the summer, but no attempts are made to capture them. From the rapid increase of population, it would naturally result that the exports of fish would be enlarged; yet, from causes already adverted to, the fisheries advance but slowly, and unless they are protected by the Government, they will be altogether in the hands of the French and Americans. These inexhaustible maritime resources are neglected, and a general apathy prevails towards the improvement of those blessings Providence has so abundantly dispensed in the waters of the coast.

The exportation of the produce of the British fisheries in 1830 was, of—

Dried fish	27825 crots.
Pickled fish.. .. .	21177 barrels.
„ „	2783 kegs.
Smoked fish.. .. .	4952 boxes.
„ „	5350 number.
Fish oil.. .. .	12302 Gallons.*

* Colonial System, by Henry Bliss, Esq., p. 58. London, 1833.

1834.

Dry cod, 26595 quintals	Value	£15188
Wet Cod, 693 barrels	"	583
Herrings, 3653 boxes, 365 barrels	"	709
Mackerel, 3014 barrels	"	2564
Salmon, 869 barrels	"	1787
Other sorts	"	5564
Train Oil	"	9577
Total		£35972

1835.

Fish, dried	Value	£12894
,, pickled	"	21269
,, smoked	"	1944
Oil, Cod liver	"	849
,, Seal	"	1088
,, Whale	"	10988
Total		£49032*

1839.

Fish, dried, 23594 quintals	Value	£16227
,, pickled, { 16656 barrels	}	19812
6242 kits		
,, smoked, 14365 boxes	"	6854
Oil, Whale, 78327 gallons	"	7720
,, Sperm, 15877 gallons	"	3969
,, Cod, 12827 gallons	"	1727
Whalebone, 236 cwt.	"	1323
Total		£57632†

* Colonial Tables, Murray, vol. ii. page 250.

† In the Custom-house returns of the Outports of New Brunswick, the articles exported in 1839 are not specified; the table therefore only refers to the exports of the Port of St. John for that year.

1844.

Pickled Salmon	2479 brls. 6419 kits.
Smoked do.	406 boxes.
Mackerel	24 barrels.
Dried Fish	12405 quintals.
Alewives and Shads, salted	16346 barrels.
Codfish, pickled	214 "
Herring, salted	1754 "
" smoked	7308 boxes.
Seal Oil	240 galls.
Cod Oil	5744 "

The above return does not include the Port of St. Andrew's and its outbays.

1845.

Fish, dried,	8842 quintals	Value	£5526
" salted,	17923 barrels	"	13444
" smoked,	10058 boxes	"	2514
" oil,	71 barrels	"	213
Total				£21697

The Legislature of the Province have recently offered a small tonnage bounty on fishing-vessels; but the whole sum granted for that object was too small to have any beneficial effect upon fishing industry, which will be observed to be on the decline.

CHAPTER IX.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

THE safety and prosperity of all the Provinces mainly depend on the policy pursued by the parent country, or the perfection of the Colonial system. The history of the North American Colonies is remarkable for sudden and ruinous depressions in trade, and for speedy revivals, according as the Acts of the British Parliament have been favourable or unfavourable to their commerce. Instead of bounties and prohibitions, protecting duties are now sufficient to encourage Colonial industry, which, with enterprise and frugality, is capable of extending the national power, civilisation, and happiness. Of late, the advantages of the Colonies have become more manifest, their resources better known and rendered more available. By the ingress of emigrants and the rapid increase of the native inhabitants, the population, although still very scanty, have begun to develop the physical advantages of the country, and, under a sound system of Colonial policy, will demonstrate the value of the Colonies to the great Empire.

The shipping between Great Britain and her Colonies in British America at present exceeds the aggregate foreign shipping of Great Britain with the whole of Europe. The population of Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, in 1841, was about 1,300,000, and the immigration into those Colonies in 1842 was 54,123 souls. The united population may now be estimated at nearly 2,000,000. The total value of imports is equal to £4,000,000, and the exports upwards of £3,000,000.*

* Simmonds's Colonial Magazine, August 1845.

In the vast trade between Great Britain and her Possessions abroad, New Brunswick holds a conspicuous position. The navigation of the Atlantic by steam, and the increased facilities of communication, have already effected a change favourable to the Colonies; and the happy results of the contemplated railway between Halifax and Quebec, extending through the centre of New Brunswick, can scarcely be too lightly estimated: yet, to render the prosperity of the Provinces permanent, and to make them a more powerful adjunct to the United Kingdom, their commerce must be protected, their fisheries kept free from the encroachments of foreigners, and their resources left unshackled by close monopolies. The interests of the people must also be united to their loyalty, which they are willing for ever to maintain. Thus will they form a wall of defence along the Arctic Continent that can never be thrown down, and a bond of union that cannot be broken; nor would the breadth of a thousand Atlantics ever alienate their affections from the laws and institutions of the land of their forefathers.

The commerce of the British Colonies was for a long time retarded by impolitic restrictions, and they were viewed as being only useful in the consumption of manufactured goods, and for certain natural productions, rather than for being a part of the Empire entitled to fair and equal advantages. Wiser views are now entertained, and relaxations in the restrictive principle have been mutually advantageous to the parent country and her Transatlantic Possessions. Permission to ship timber and fish to the Mediterranean and West Indies was followed by the Act of 1825, by which the Colonies obtained the privileges in regard to trade that were given to other parts of the kingdom.

For some years the Provinces enjoyed an exclusive trade with the West India Islands, and until the Americans withdrew certain prohibitions which had, until 1830, excluded them from British ports in that quarter. Since that period, their commodities, fish excepted, were allowed to be imported into those islands. This circumstance caused an immediate decline in the West India trade of the Colonies, which decreased in 1831 from 95,205 tons to 58,540 inwards, and from 95,196 to 75,896 outwards. The American tonnage rose at the same time from 5,366 to 48,845 tons. The trade is still continued; and were the fisheries free from foreign aggression, and improved by zeal and in-

dustry, it would rapidly increase, fish and lumber being the chief exports from the Provinces.

The Continental System of France, up to 1806, and the American Non-intercourse Act of 1807, convinced the British Parliament that it was necessary to cherish enterprise and industry in the North American Colonies, in order to obtain those supplies which had been received from foreign Powers, and which were ever liable to be withheld, or supplied at an exorbitant rate. After the struggles of war and many attacks upon her commerce, Great Britain had experienced the danger of foreign dependence; the Colonial system was restored, and the trade of the Provinces immediately revived. The timber trade with the Northern Colonies took its rise from these causes, and has been continued with almost unabated vigour up to the present time, meeting with occasional checks from an over-supplied market, or the relaxations common to the commerce of all countries.

The home trade affords the best and surest markets for the staple productions of the Provinces, whose inhabitants consume British manufactured goods to a vast amount. The productions of one part of the Empire are now exchanged for those of another, and thereby the advantages are mutual. Any change in the present system would drive the Colonists to manufacture for themselves, and to withhold from the mother-country the necessary commodities now sent to her ports. The industry of the inhabitants of New Brunswick is therefore applied to agriculture, the fisheries, and lumbering. The valuable mines that have been discovered, have not yet been opened; nor is it probable that they will become objects of enterprise, until the exportable timber has been felled, and the capital necessary to work them has accumulated in the Province,—unless they should be taken up by persons in England.

The trade of the Province is with the United Kingdom, the British North American Colonies and West India Islands, South America, the whale-fishery of the Pacific Ocean, Africa, the United States, St. Domingo, Porto Rico, and Cuba. The exports are timber, deals, boards and planks, shingles, staves, masts and spars, poles, handspikes, oars, lathwood, trenails; dry, pickled, and smoked fish; oil, oysters, lime, grindstones, and furs.

Next to husbandry in importance is lumbering, in which occupation the Province employs annually about 8,000 men. Almost the whole surface of the country is covered by the forest, which is only interrupted by cultivation along the banks of some of the principal streams. The vast woods planted by the hand of Nature in the virgin soil supply to man a harvest where he has not sown, and afford him the means of procuring a subsistence before the earth is prepared to administer to his wants. Their beauty and grandeur at many places are beyond description, and the solemn stillness of the wilderness is calculated to strike the mind with awe and reverence. The lofty pine that has stood for ages, towering far above his indigenous associates, is leafless, except at the very summit. Although far superior in its dimensions, its trunk resembles the stately mainmast of a ship; yet it bends before the gale, and waves its umbrella-shaped head to the passing breeze. Many of these trees are eighteen feet in circumference at their bases, and taper gradually to the height of one hundred and fifty feet. In their fall, they crush down the smaller wood; and, by striking uneven ground, they are sometimes broken. The spruce, although lofty, is of smaller dimensions, and is recognised at any distance by his cone-shaped top and drooping branches. The foliage of the larch and hemlock is very beautiful. All these trees, with the fir and cedar, exceed in altitude the hard woods standing among them; their tops appear like an extra growth above the level of the forest.

In the wilderness regions, the unwieldy moose still roams at large, and herds of deer wander over the pathless mountains, suffering no alarm except from the prowling wolf or hungry bear. The gloom of the deep forest and its scenery is relieved by its sweet songsters, especially the yellow-winged sparrow, whose piping note is echoed among the hills. At night, in calm weather, every sound ceases, except the hoot-hoo of the owl,* and the terrific howlings of droves of wolves,

* In the winter of 1843, I presented a large white owl (*Strix nyctea*) to the lady of a military gentleman. It was duly caged, fed, and placed in the spacious hall of the mansion. During the first night of his confinement, he struck his wild notes, O ho, O ho. The gentleman, his family, and all the servants were soon alarmed, and called to quarters, under the supposition that daring robbers had entered some part of the house. As they paraded the hall ready

which, as he rests his weary limbs on the bed of cedar-boughs before the dying embers, brings apprehension to the stoutest-hearted traveller, and deprives him of his slumber. If he seize his gun, he is unable to discover his nocturnal visitors, unless by the flashing of their eager eyes, which sometimes enables him to take a deadly aim. The low bellowing of the moose seems rather friendly, although their ignorant inquisitiveness at night is unfavourable to repose. These and other wild scenes are familiar to the lumberman, who spends the long and cold winter amidst the deep snows, to prepare timber for the British market.

The whole expanse of the wilderness is claimed by the native Indians as their rightful inheritance, and many persons have viewed the forest as being an impediment to agriculture and civilisation. But the lofty groves of massive trees supply materials for commerce, and the demands of refinement and luxury; they afford the important articles timber and fuel, with juice yielding sugar; the flesh and furs of their wild animals contribute both food and clothing to the human race, and the annual crop of leaves enriches the soil.

Of the numerous forest-trees, we will here mention such as are at present employed for domestic uses, and form staple articles of export. Of the coniferous tribe, the white pine (*Pinus strobus*), before described, constitutes the chief article of the timber trade. Formerly it was very abundant, and it is still procured in remote situations. Some trees are hewn to a length of eighty feet, and will measure eight tons and upwards after they are squared. Much of this timber will command a market under any competition. Although it lacks strength, it is free from knots, and most easily worked by the mechanic. In the Colonies, it forms the shingles, clapboards, doors, and windows of the exterior, and all the fine work in the interior of houses. From the great size of the trees, the boards are admirably adapted for pannelings, and every purpose where breadth is required. It receives a fine polish, and, when well seasoned, is not liable to contract by being exposed to heat

for action, they were saluted by O ho, O ho, which, to their great consternation, was spoken by the owl. The lady soon gave the grave-looking bird away; and after he had passed through several hands, he was liberated on account of his nightly orations, and permitted to return to his native woods.

or dryness. The pine of St. John has been considered superior to that from Quebec, and the Miramichi timber better than any other. At present, the wood brought down the St. John, from its large tributaries, is equal in quality to any ever shipped from the Province.

Pitch pine (*Pinus rigida*) is a durable wood; the trees are of moderate size, and generally grow on dry ground.

The red pine, sometimes called yellow pine (*Pinus sylvestris*), is from four to six feet in circumference near the ground, and grows tall. It appears to be identical with a variety of pine imported into England from Norway. The wood is strong and durable, except the exterior portion of the tree, called the *sap*, which is generally removed by hewing.

Hemlock (*Pinus Canadensis*) is a durable wood, but cracks much in "seasoning:" it is therefore sawed into blocks, split, and shipped, for lathwood. Its bark is used for tanning, for which it is well adapted. It is very abundant, and its groves are the favourite resort of the porcupine. Nails, when driven into hemlock, will not rust; and beneath water, the tree and its bark are almost imperishable. Granaries built of this wood will not be entered by mice.

Three varieties of the spruce are employed for various purposes. The black spruce (*Pinus nigra*) is a lofty tree, and its spear-shaped top rises far above the forest level. The essence of spruce is extracted from its leaves, and the branches are boiled in the domestic manufacture of spruce-beer. The wood is tough and elastic.—The white and red spruces, so called from the colour of their barks, are of a similar character, except that they are not employed in brewing.

The fir (*Pinus balsamea*) is also tall and of considerable diameter; but the largest trees are frequently hollow, or decayed at the heart. It is very useful for making fences, and rives so easily that a log fourteen feet in length, and fifteen inches in diameter, is readily split into twelve pieces by two men with axes. It makes good staves for fish-barrels and lime-casks. The tree yields a white transparent balsam, applied by the inhabitants and Indians to fresh wounds. It is also taken in diseases of the chest.

The larch (*Pinus larix*), or hackmatack, is a beautiful and lofty tree, seldom more than two feet in diameter. The wood is strong, and not

liable to decay.—The white cedar (*Cupressus thyoides*) is also a fine tree, and the wood is exceedingly durable. At present it is not much employed, except for fencing and other domestic uses. There can be no doubt that it would make light and strong vessels.

Oak is scarce. Staves are sometimes made of the beech tree; but the principal supply is from black and white ash, which for their strength and flexibility are valuable woods. The young saplings of these trees are made into brooms: yellow birch and white hazle are also employed for this purpose.

Of the birches, the only kinds shipped are the yellow and black; and the exports of these are limited. The latter is a noble tree; the wood receives a fine polish, and is much esteemed for tables and other furniture. It is also employed in ship-building.

Of the maples, the *Acer saccharinum* is the most valuable, both for its wood, and its sap yielding sugar. The woody fibres are sometimes beautifully waved or curled: the curled and bird's-eye varieties are admired for furniture. They receive as fine a polish as mahogany.

The butternut and cedar are also used by the cabinet-makers. The wood of the wild cherry resembles the dark-coloured mahoganies. Witch-hazle, or hornbeam, and white and black thorn, are employed in agricultural implements.

The felling and hewing of the timber for the British market are generally performed by parties of men hired by the timber-merchant or dealer for the purpose. In the autumn, they are despatched into the woods, with a supply of provisions, axes, horses, or oxen, and everything requisite for the enterprise. Their stores are conveyed up the larger streams, in tow-boats drawn by horses, or in canoes paddled by men; and in winter they are transported over the ice. Hay for their teams is procured from the nearest settlements, and is frequently purchased at £6 per ton. The site for operations having been selected by the leader of the party, a camp is erected, and covered with the bark of trees. The floor of the shanty is made of small poles, and a sort of platform is raised for the general bed, which is composed of evergreen boughs or straw. The fireplace is opposite the sleeping-floor; and that part of the smoke that escapes, ascends through a hole in the roof. In this rude dwelling the food is cooked, and the lumbermen rest at night.

A hovel is also built for the oxen, and the hay secured against rain. The party is usually divided into three gangs: one cuts down the trees, another hews them, and the third draws the timber to the nearest stream. They begin their work at daylight in the morning, and seldom return to the camp until evening, when they find their supper prepared. During the night, the fire is replenished with wood by the cook and teamster; and it is a common remark among them, that while the head is freezing, the feet are burning. I have passed several nights with these people in the backwoods, and always found them remarkably kind and hospitable. They are ever cheerful and contented; and a more hardy, laborious, and active class of men cannot be found in any part of the world. Formerly, a certain quantity of rum was supplied to each individual; but since the introduction of Temperance Societies, the practice is less common.

The avocation of the lumberman is not altogether free from danger. Many lives have been lost by the falling of trees, and the business of forking timber is sometimes very hazardous.

In the mountainous districts, it is necessary that the timber should be conducted over the steep precipices and high banks along the borders of the rivers. Having been collected on the tops of the cliffs, the square blocks are launched endwise, over rollers, either into the water below, or on the ice, which is frequently broken by the concussion. In its descent, the passage of the timber is occasionally arrested by trees or brushwood: the lumberman then descends, and, holding on to the brushes of doubtful foothold, he cuts away the impediments. This mode of launching timber is called "forking,"—from which may have originated the substitution of the phrase "forking over," for the payment of a debt, as expressed by some of the inhabitants.

By the latter part of April, the melting ice and snow, with heavy rains, swell the streams and produce freshets. The lumbermen commence "stream-driving." The timber on the rivulets is now floated downwards to the deep rivers; each log is launched, and, when stranded, it is again rolled into the current—and their manner of urging the enormous pieces of pine over the rapids is alike creditable to their courage and patience. Still pushing the rafts of timber downwards, and moving with the current that daily transports the bark that covers their movable

camp—stung by swarms of insects both day and night, these men possess more patience under their hardships and sufferings than those of any other class in the country. Half-a-dozen of them will frequently navigate the stream astride a log of timber, which they paddle along with their legs in the water; and they will force the light skiff or canoe up a perpendicular fall of three feet, where the roaring of the water is truly deafening, and where there is constant danger of being plunged into some whirlpool, or dashed against the rocks. Although they are frequently rendered giddy by the revolving motion of the eddies, they fix the poles upon the bottom, and move away against the foaming torrent, or cross the stream on slippery blocks of pine. Such is the force of habit, that these men view the forest as their home, and the river as their turnpike: constantly exposed to the inclemency of the weather, and the water of the rivers, they appear contented, and seem to regret when the labour of the season is ended. In situations where the water is more tranquil, a singular spectacle is sometimes presented: each of the drivers mounts a log or piece of timber, and, with their pikes in hand, the party move along like a floating regiment, until some fall or rapid warns them to re-embark. Not unfrequently, a rapid is blocked up with timber in such quantities, that it refuses to pass. This is called a "jam." The clearing away of these jams is the most dangerous part of the stream-drivers' employment, and who are sometimes thrown down a fall or rapid into the boiling pool beneath.

The quantity of timber in one of these drives is enormous: its progress along the river where the timber gets entangled among the rocks is therefore slow, especially when the summer is advanced, and the volume of the water consequently diminished. In order to deepen the water, "wing dams" are sometimes constructed on the sides of the most troublesome rapids. The depth and velocity being thus increased, the floating timber passes along more readily: but these dams greatly impede the passage of canoes in ascending the streams. Like the employment of the sailor, the work of the lumberman is peculiar: he requires much practice and experience; and it may be safely asserted, that should any unfavourable change take place in the home timber trade, thousands of men will be thrown out of employment, who have

as little disposition to engage in agriculture as those who have been employed as sailors or fishermen.

The timber and logs having been collected, are formed into large flat rafts, and floated down to their place of shipment, or to saw-mills, where the logs are manufactured into deals, boards, planks, &c. The lumbermen then receive their pay, which they too often spend in extravagant festivity, until the period arrives when they again depart for the wilderness: yet there are many who take care of their money, purchase land, and finally make good settlers. Timber is collected by farmers, new settlers, and squatters, who also procure great numbers of logs for the saw-mills; but the greatest supplies are brought down by the lumbermen from the interior forests.

Mills for the manufacture of timber have greatly multiplied within a few past years. The removal of the exterior parts of the logs, by saws, is favourable to the preservation of the wood, and by it a great saving is effected in the freight. The saws, however, are chiefly applied to spruce, while the pine is shipped in squared logs.

		Value.	Persons employed.
In 1831, the number of saw-mills was	229	£320,030	3,798
1836, — — —	320	420,000	4,200
1840, — — —	574	740,000	7,400
1845, — — —	640	900,000	8,400

The present flourishing state of the trade has arisen from the high duties imposed on Baltic timber. In 1791, when the export of timber from New Brunswick had only commenced, the duty on Baltic timber was only 6s. 8d. per load; that duty was gradually raised, and in 1812 amounted to £2 14s. 8d. per load. In 1820 it was £3 5s. per load; but in 1821 it was reduced to £2 15s., and, for the first time, a duty of 10s. per load was laid on American timber.* By the financial system of Sir Robert Peel introduced into Parliament in 1842, it was proposed to reduce the duty on foreign wood to 30s. on squared timber, and 35s. per load on deals, according to their cubic contents; and after one year, to make a farther reduction to 25s. and 30s. respectively, and to levy 1s. a load upon timber and 2s. a load on Colonial deals. The

* Report on Timber Trade.

tidings of this movement were met in the Province by strong petitions and remonstrances against the measure, which was afterwards carried by a large majority, with a change in favour of Colonial deals of 2s. per load of 50 cubic feet; the duty on foreign being 38s., and on Colonial 2s. This change in the timber duties took place on the 10th of October following, and the apprehensions of its injurious effects upon the trade of the Colonies have proved to be groundless. The removal of all duty on Baltic timber would almost annihilate the Colonial trade. The effect of these duties has been very manifest in the trade between the two countries, as will appear by the following table.

CARGOES OF TIMBER, &c. from British America and the Baltic for last 12 years.

Year ending Feb. 1.	BRITISH AMERICA.		BAL TIC.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1835	335	117996	94	27394
1836	420	163284	102	29545
1837	328	143481	66	18900
1838	275	135072	63	19000
1839	302	160294	72	23116
1840	339	170591	58	17415
1841	230	133400	48	14000
1842	318	174948	40	11923
1843	165	91179	32	11239
1844	311	154518	61	17253
1845	369	189414	51	14144
1846	453	239854	112	33792*

The equalisation of the duties on timber has afforded a subject of much discussion and debate—and certainly the gradual extension of the principles of free trade is very desirable: at present the British consumer is paying a higher price for his timber than it would be supplied for if the duties on foreign timber were removed. The importance of the article for ship-building, machinery, and the ordinary purposes of life, for which vast quantities are required, form a strong argu-

* Reports on British Commerce, 1846.

ment in favour of allowing it to be imported from all countries duty-free; yet it must be conceded that, under the present Colonial system, a great amount of capital has been invested in the erection of saw-mills and machinery, which would be rendered almost valueless by a sudden reduction in the protective duties of the British Colonial subject. Many thousands of men would also be deprived of employment; and although some of them would engage in agriculture, a great number of this part of the labouring population would depart for the United States. The Colonial trade, as it now exists, trains a great number of hardy seamen, who in any emergency would be ready for defence or conquest. The consumption of British manufactured goods is also far greater in the Colonies than it would be in a decline of the timber trade, which now enables the inhabitants to pay not only for the necessaries, but likewise for many of the luxuries of life.

The timber trade has been the handmaid of emigration; and although the greater number of immigrants into New Brunswick by the timber ships depart for the United States, the few that remain are greatly aided in the settlement of wild lands by the ready market created by the lumberman and timber-dealer.

The changes of duty on the Baltic timber, and the high prices given in Great Britain, in 1824, gave rise to great speculations.* The market was soon overloaded with Colonial ships and timber. The result was, that the price of wood fell one-half—many persons were ruined, and the most cautious merchants sustained severe losses. The exports of timber and ships at the present time are merely remunerative, and any unfavourable change in the duties would be disastrous to the whole trade.

VALUE of the EXPORTS of WOOD in 1835.

Squared timber	£ 291,817
Boards	13,437
Deals	104,150
Staves	12,969
Shingles	1,905
Handspikes	52
Oars	478
Lathwood	4,966
Trenails	157
Spars	94
Total sterling	£ 430,023

The following are the exports of wood from St. John in 1839. In the returns from the outports, the quantity shipped is not specified.

	Value.
Squared timber 255,647 tons	£ 277,998
Boards 6,622 ms. feet	16,641
Deals 75,969 do. do.	189,252
Staves 1,858 thousand	8,318
Shingles 4,504 ditto	3,346
Handspikes 2,474 n°.	117
Oars 6,715 n°.	556
Lathwood 4,095 cords	} .. 4,232
Sawed Laths 129 thousand	
Masts and Spars 3,864 n°.	2,407
Ship-knees 538 n°.	109
Total sterling	£ 502,976 *

For 1845—

Squared timber 244,846 tons	£ 275,451
Boards 10,537,000 feet	26,342
Deals 127,860 ms. feet	319,650
Staves 1,008 thousand	4,536
Shingles 8,371 ditto	6,278
Oars 2,117 n°.	158
Lathwood 4,206 cords	} .. 4,342
Sawed Laths 1,805 thousand	
Masts and Spars 2,602 n°.	1,951
Total sterling	£ 638,708

The following is a comparative statement of the number of vessels entered inwards from and cleared outwards for Great Britain, British Colonies, the United States, and Foreign States, at St. John, in the years ended 30th September, 1841, and 1842, with their tonnage and men :—

* Custom-house Returns, 1840.

	Great Britain.	British Colonies	United States.	For. Sts.	Total Vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.
INWARDS.							
In 1841.....	439	1469	317	31	2256	299518	14283
In 1842.....	275	1212	254	21	1762	221050	12643
Less in 1842....	164	257	63	10	494	79368	1640
OUTWARDS.							
In 1841.....	671	1522	227	4	2424	352306	16114
In 1842.....	427	1199	220	9	1855	257395	12421
Less in 1842....	244	323	7	..	569	94911	3693
More in 1842	5

COMPARATIVE VALUE, in Sterling, of the Imports and Exports in the Years ending 30th September, 1841, and 1842.

	Great Britain.	North America.	West Indies.	Else-where.	United States.	Foreign States.	TOTAL.
IMPORTS.							
In 1841.....	£ 718067	£ 251508	£ 1340	£ 236	£ 213911	£ 16674	£ 1201736
In 1842.....	214484	145505	1773	685	137456	4896	504799
Less in 1842..	503583	106003	76455	11778	696937
More in 1842	433	449
EXPORTS.							
In 1841.....	461020	90816	19524	83	15905	3740	591088
In 1842.....	280840	59116	15711	3260	23441	1259	383627
Less in 1842..	180180	31700	3813	2481	217461
More in 1842	3177	7536

NEW VESSELS.

TONNAGE.

	No.	New.	Old.
New Ships registered in 1841 ..	118	48,779	46,166
Ditto ditto in 1842 ..	73	19,282	19,018
Less in 1842 ..	45	29,497	27,148

Ship-building has been followed with much spirit, and still forms an important branch of industry in New Brunswick. An opinion has prevailed in Great Britain, and not without just foundation, that the ships built in the Province are imperfectly constructed and insufficiently fastened. Ships are frequently built by contract for from £4 to £7 per ton: the result has been that many of them have not been faithfully and substantially put together, and the discovery of their imperfections has injured the reputation of all the vessels of the Colony. Since 1840, a successful effort has been made to improve the ship-building, and the vessels now built by the merchants under proper inspection are equal, if not superior, to any ever launched. The abundance and good quality of the wood give New Brunswick an advantage in the building of ships and other vessels.

The total tonnage of the Province did not exceed in

1782 . . .	250 tons:	the tonnage of St. John in
1795 was	4,000	„
1824 „	16,000	„
1836 „	59,663	„

In 1835, the total tonnage of the Province was 80,876 tons: in 1839, the tonnage of St. John alone was 80,830 tons, exclusive of the outports; in 1845, it was 71,843 tons—of Miramichi, 6,182 tons.

The number of new vessels registered at St. John,

In 1831, was 48, measuring	7,649 tons.
1836, „ 75, „	23,010 „
„ Built for owners in Great Britain	6	1,669 „
„ Built at Miramichi 8	3,147 „
Total	27,826 „

In 1839, 108 new vessels were registered at St. John: of these, 22 were built in Nova Scotia. Total tonnage, 30,576 tons. Built at Miramichi, 26 vessels: tonnage, 9,827 tons. Total of new vessels at St. John and Miramichi, 40,199 tons. In 1841, 85 ships were built in the Province—33,991 tons. The number of new vessels registered at St. John and Miramichi the year ending 31st December, 1845, was, vessels, 77; 27,446 tons.

Excepting the mills and machinery employed in sawing wood, the manufactories may all be called domestic, as none of their productions are exported. The iron and coal employed in the foundries are imported from Great Britain, notwithstanding both of these articles are abundant in the Province. The operations of the foundries are confined to the manufacture of such articles as are required by the country. The number of grist-mills in the Province in 1840 was 247. Besides these, there are a few machines, of simple construction, for carding wool and fulling cloth. In the larger towns, there are breweries, tanneries, and small establishments for making soap and candles; but the tables of trade show, that the exports being the productions of the Province are objects in their natural state, or such as have only undergone the preparatory process of manufacture.

Mining scarcely forms any part of Provincial labour, even since the more perfect development of the mineral wealth of the country by a geological survey of a part of the Province. Lumbering and the timber trade continue to bind the capital and enterprise of the country. New Brunswick contains great mineral wealth; coal and iron are abundant: besides these, manganese, copper, lead and other ores have been discovered, and limestone, gypsum, and freestone, of the best kinds, occur in certain districts; yet the home consumption and exportation of those objects are extremely limited. Manganese has been exported to England from Gloucester, and from Quaco to the United States. Small quantities of coal are raised annually on the borders of the Grand Lake for the supply of Fredericton, and small cargoes are sometimes sent down to St. John. The principal exports of gypsum, freestone, and grindstone, are made from Westmoreland to the United States.—Exports of rocks and minerals in

	1830.				
Gypsum and limestone	1,748 tons.
Grindstones	14,437 number.
Lime	550 hhds.
Manganese	137 cwt.
	1836.				
Gypsum	1,015 tons.
Grindstones	256 „
Lime	805 hhds.
Coals	12 chaldrons.
Limestone	90 tons.

1839.				
Gypsum	7,991 tons.
Grindstones	1,182 "
Lime	858 hhds.
1845.				
Gypsum	2,034 tons.
Grindstones	657 "
Lime	1,369 hhds.

Of the produce of agriculture the Province makes no export, but, on the contrary, imports largely from the United States, Great Britain, and the Colonies. The imports of potatoes and other vegetables into St. John in 1839 alone were 163,671 bushels. This may seem an extraordinary fact, especially as the soil has been represented to be fertile and favourable for tillage; but it is in part the result of the timber trade, which has taken away the bone and muscle from husbandry, and rendered it incapable of supplying the rural population, the towns, lumbering parties, and fishermen.

The state and produce of the fisheries have been treated of in a previous chapter. Among the exports we find horns of cattle, furs, hides, and bricks. The table of exports contains many articles that had been previously imported; but a much greater amount is always brought in than is shipped away, and, including the staple articles of fish and lumber, the former greatly exceeds the latter.

IMPORTS and EXPORTS at the Port of St. John in the year 1782.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
Linens	.. 2 trunks	Oysters	.. 1 barrel
Woollens	.. 5 packages	Fire-arms	.. 1 chest
Raisins	.. 1 cask	Wheat	.. 31 bushels
Glass	.. 3 boxes	Pease	.. 41 "
Tin ware	.. 1 box	Beaver skins	222 lbs.
Brimstone	.. 1 cask	Musquash skins	767 No.
Cider	.. 24 barrels	Racoon skins	13 "
Do. 7 hogsheads	Salt 100 bushels
Apples	.. 327 bushels	Rum 238 gallons
Tobacco	.. 330 lbs.	Wine	.. 40 "
Do.	.. 8 barrels	Turpentine	.. 7 barrels
Do.	.. 1 hogshead	Glass	.. 1 box
Turpentine	.. 16 barrels	Tobacco	.. 350 lbs.
Rum 40 barrels	Indian corn..	664 bushels
Do. 4 hogsheads	Do. do.	2 casks
Brandy	.. 40 gallons	Cod fish	.. 7 quintals

Imports and Exports—*continued.*

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
Wine ..	75 gallons	Buckwheat ..	22 bushels
Molasses ..	5 barrels	Hides ..	4 No.
Do. ..	1 hogshead	Sheep ..	104 ,,
Cod fish ..	32 cwt.	Oxen ..	26 ,,
Iron ..	800 lbs.	English goods	1 Trunk
Leather ..	10 sides	Scythes ..	48 No.
Sugar ..	58 cwt.	Hoes.. ..	12 ,,
Cordage ..	4 coils	Axes ..	12 ,,
Tea ..	1 chest	Clapboards ..	1,500 feet
Twine ..	2 bundles	Pewter ..	1 cask
Indigo ..	1 box	Cross-cut saws	9 No.
Flour ..	6 bags	Grindstones	28 ,,
Scythes ..	49 No.	Potatoes ..	4 hogsheads
Hoes.. ..	26 ,,	Cabbages ..	100 heads
Pewter ..	1 cask	Old iron ..	1 hogshead
English goods	4 trunks	Rum	1 tierce
Salt	53 bags	Moose skins	25 No.
Grindstones..	44 No.	Steel	1 faggot
Onions ..	100 bushels	Merchandise	13 packages
Bricks ..	300 No.	Beef	12 quarters
Axes	6 ,,		
Scythe handles	24 ,,		
Pork	5 barrels		
Pease	2 bushels		
Oats	4 ,,		
Household furniture			

AN ACCOUNT OF VESSELS entered and cleared at the Port of St. John in the year 1782.*

ENTERED.			CLEARED.		
		Tons.			Tons.
Rosanna	17	Rosanna	17
Betsy	10	Peggy	8
Escape	10	Betsy	10
Polly	10	Escape	10
Sally	10	Polly	10
Lark	18	Sally	10
Ranger	12	Lark	18
Prosperity	10	Ranger	12
Unity	10	Prosperity	10
Speedy	7	Unity	10
Little Tom	30	Little Tom	30
			Managuash	20
Total tonnage		144	Total tonnage		165

* From the first record of the Customs at St. John, supplied by James White, Esq., High Sheriff of St. John, and son of James White, Esq., who was the first Collector of Customs at that port.

The imports into the Province are various, and, besides all kinds of provisions, they include the necessaries and many of the luxuries of refined society. From the slow advance of agriculture, the Province is, in a great degree, dependent upon the United States and the neighbouring Colonies for bread. The imports of "bread stuffs" in 1834 amounted to £80,240, and in 1839 to £228,655, which, after deducting the exports—£25,839, leaves the consumption for the latter year of bread kind, £202,816.

In 1831, the imports into St. John were £577,000 currency; in 1835, the imports were £1,040,000. The imports in 1839 were as follows:—

Into St. John ..	Amount	£1,433,474	0	0
„ St. Andrew's	„	46,513	0	0
„ St. Stephen's	„	14,034	0	7
„ Magaguadavic	„	5,500	8	4
„ Welchpool ..	„	11,962	10	0

£1,511,483 18 11

EXTRACTS OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS at the Port of St. John and Outbays
for the year 1845.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
Flour wheat ..	63,171 barrels	Flour wheat ..	5,263 bushels
Rye flour.. ..	12,756 „	„ rye ..	1,976 „
Corn meal ..	40,632 „	Indian meal ..	1,133 „
Bread	5,144 cwt.	Beef and pork ..	2,614 „
Indian corn ..	50,322 bushels	Rickers	5,113 „
Wheat	263,752 „	Butter and cheese	123 cwt.
Rye	2,226 „	Trenails	64 mds.
Oats	78,664 „	Tea..	21,430 lbs.
Pork, salted ..	11,885 barrels	Sugar	1,793 cwt.
Beef	2,661 „	„ refined ..	401 „
Rice	1,881 cwt.	Salt	107,151 bushels
Meats, fresh ..	488 „	Furs	33 packages
Butter and cheese	1,371 „	Fish, dried ..	8,842 quintals
Coffee	1,424 „	„ salted ..	17,923 barrels
Dried fruits ..	1,907 „	„ smoked ..	10,058 boxes
Tea	502,686 lbs.	„ oil	71 barrels
Sugar	14,565 cwt.	Tobacco, manufac.	807 cwt.
„ refined ..	1,679 „	Hides	13,605 „
Salt	318,056 bushels	Soap	333 „
Tobacco, manufac.	32,036 cwt.	Wine	2,428 gallons
„ leaf	343 „	Brandy	563 „

Extracts of Imports and Exports—*continued.*

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
Hides, raw ..	8,992 cwt.	Geneva	1,735 gallons
Tallow	2,215 "	Rum	7,806 "
Soap	3,991 "	Whisky	1,435 "
Candles	422 "	Molasses	28,338 "
Wine	24,478 gallons	Cordage	883 cwt.
Brandy	46,712 "	Oakum	207 "
Geneva	32,870 "	Sailcloth	14,940 yards
Rum	76,968 "	Oil, black whale	63,954 gallons
Whisky	11,167 "	" sperm	13,370 "
Ale and porter ..	25,525 "	Timber	244,846 tons
Molasses	348,575 "	Boards	10,537,000 feet
Cider	94,380 "	Deals	127,860 "
Vinegar	19,935 "	Staves	1,008 mds.
Earthenware ..	2,266 crates	Shingles	8,371 "
Glass manufactures	1,939 cwt.	Oars	2,117 "
Oakum	3,688 "	Lathwood	4,206 cords
Cordage	16,132 "	Laths, sawn ..	1,805 mds.
Sailcloth	347,318 yards	Masts and spars..	2,602 "
Deals	3,480 feet	Iron	21,864 cwt.
Trenails	92,000 "	Copper	111 "
Dyewoods	140 cwt.	Nails, iron ..	729 "
Wooden ware ..	7,893 dozens	Gypsum	2,034 tons
Iron, wrought, un- wrought, cast, and pig	5,333 tons	Grindstones ..	657 "
Copper	1,554 cwt.	Naval stores ..	243 bushels
Lead	1,042 "	Coals	2,011 chaldns.
Nails	6,607 "	Paint	116 cwt.
Hardware	11,830 "	" oil	1,046 gallons
Gypsum	2,165 tons	Lime	1,369 hhds.
Naval stores ..	1,032 barrels		
Coals	20,191 chaldns.		
Paint	3,226 cwt.		
" oil	21,395 gallons		
Indigo	18,117 lbs.		
Hemp	3,467 cwt.		
Guano	412 tons		
Total official value of Imports ..		£1,050,794	0 0
Do. do. Exports ..		£723,094	0 0

In 1835, the entries of vessels inwards at the Port of St. John and its outbays were 2,467; number of tons, 298,993; number of men, 14,467. Outwards: 2,261 vessels; 322,200 tons; 14,556 men.

AN ACCOUNT OF VESSELS entered Inwards and cleared Outwards at the Port of St. John and its Outbays in the year ending 5th January, 1837.

	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	467	142396	605	193724
British Colonies	1773	100220	1638	89380
United States	292	43225	141	14488
Foreign States	17	3789	5	535
Total	2549	289610	14091	2389	298127	13685*

The same for the year ending 5th January, 1840.

	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
United Kingdom	540	198034	7805	770	270935	10270
Guernsey and Jersey..	2	131	14	2	147	13
Brit. West Indies	41	7163	330	62	9278	468
Brit. N. A. Colonies ..	1595	81984	5421	1482	71964	4999
Foreign Ships	4	553	23
Foreign Europe	23	6168	226	1	112	9
British Africa	1	121	8
U. States, Brit. Ships..	287	35397	1831	196	15421	1049
Foreign Ships	93	11778	490	87	11046	464
Cuba	7	739	46
Porto Rico	3	507	21
St. Eustacia.....	2	230	16
Brazil	1	280	14
St. Andrew's	198	24476	181	24179
St. Stephen's	155	17679	806	144	20552	1041
Magaguadavic	50	9324	82	10914
Welchpool	180	7278	576	174	5973	520
Total	3177	401068	17586	3186	441195	18864†

* Notitia of New Brunswick.

† Custom-House Returns for 1840.

NUMBER OF VESSELS entered Inwards and cleared Outwards for the
year ending 31st Dec. 1845.

INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.	
Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
2,455	396,792	2,434	425,638

The ordinary revenue of New Brunswick is derived from imports, generally moderate, on goods imported from all countries. A peculiar feature in the Provincial Tariff, is the taxation of the productions of the Sister Colonies. Besides large quantities of deals, staves, and other wood, Nova Scotia sends great quantities of beef, potatoes, apples, cider, and other agricultural produce, to St. John, which has heretofore afforded a market for such articles. Wood has generally been permitted to enter duty-free, while agricultural commodities are taxed; even eggs, which are shipped in great numbers from Digby, have been made the objects of duty, and the counting of barrels of the various articles by the officers of the revenue has given rise to some very ludicrous scenes.

Previous to 1785, the two Provinces were united, and no sound argument can be found for a system which produces many evils, besides engendering smuggling. Upon the principle of retaliation, the Nova Scotia Authorities, in 1843, laid a poll-tax upon every person landing in the Province from New Brunswick. Such taxes are calculated to disturb the friendly feelings of the Colonists towards each other, and lead to evasion of their laws.

Besides the revenue arising from duties on imported goods, the Province receives a large annual sum from the disposal of Crown timber and lands. In 1837, a Bill passed the different branches of the Legislature, to provide for the Civil Government of the Province. After much negotiation with the Home Government, this Bill received the Royal sanction, whereby the King's casual and territorial revenues were surrendered to the Province, whose people agreed to pay an adequate Civil List. The sum transferred by this measure from the Crown to New Brunswick was no less than £171,224, exclusive of the succeeding annual income from the above source.

In 1830, the amount of this revenue was only £5,600; in 1835

it was £46,000; in 1837, £31,832; in 1839, £18,154; in 1840, £24,299; and in 1845, £11,705 10s. 4d.

Notwithstanding the large sum that was thus placed at the disposal of the Legislature by the transfer of the Crown revenues, such was the system of extravagance followed by the House of Assembly, and every branch of the Colonial Government, that the whole sum, with the annual revenue of the Province, was soon swallowed up, and the country involved in liabilities it was altogether unprepared to meet. Some just claims remain unpaid up to the present day. On the 31st day of December, 1842, the financial state of the Province was as follows:—

Total amount of liabilities	£162,571 13 3
Estimated value of assets	87,905 12 2
Balance against the Province	£ 74,666 1 1
Amount of urgent demands	£115,969 8 6
Available assets	35,128 0 0
Balance of urgent demands	£80,841 8 6*

By another statement—

The total existing demands for 1843 were	£148,582 18 2
And the excess of demands	77,212 18 2

Under these unpleasant circumstances, it was necessary to obtain a loan, the amount of which, from an increase of the ordinary revenue, has been reduced, and the liabilities of the Province diminished.

The following is a statement of the finances of the Province, 1st January, 1846:—

DEBTS.	
Warrants in the Treasury not called for	£9,460 0 4
Appropriations for which warrants have not passed	5,746 17 2
Due to Savings Bank	20,000 0 0
Debentures for loans, and interest thereon	16,786 0 0
Balance of Province Loan	72,000 0 0
Total Debts	£123,992 17 6

* Journals of the House of Assembly, 1843, p. 56.

ASSETS.

Bonds for loans and interest	£12,362	0	0
St. John Water Company's bonds.. ..	5,000	0	0
Balance due Bank of New Brunswick	18,493	16	2
Balance at Outbays	7,363	17	7
	£43,219	13	9

Amount of Debts per Treasurer's Accounts .. £80,773 3 9*

In exchange for the Queen's revenues, the Province grants the full payment of the Civil List, or £14,500 per annum. The ordinary revenue of the Province in

1830 was	£49,670	0	0
1831 ,,	28,196	0	0
1832 ,,	37,518	0	0
1833 ,,	35,661	0	0
1834 ,,	45,220	0	0
1835 ,,	60,316	0	0
1837 ,,	51,988	0	0
1838 ,,	65,439	0	0
1839 ,,	84,289	0	0
1840 ,,	109,942	17	7
1841 ,,	110,983	10	9
1842 ,,	55,904	2	0
1843 ,,	59,498	13	0½
1844 ,,	92,333	14	2
1845 ,,	127,753	1	9½†

* Journals of House of Assembly, 1846, p. 53.

† The following table shows the sources from which the revenues are derived:—

ABSTRACT OF THE REVENUES of New Brunswick for five years, ending 31st December, 1845.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Loan Fund	1304 19 7½	6331 11 1	8631 12 2½
Ordinary Revenue.....	55205 14 9	19426 5 2	24998 8 4½	40147 12 7	53668 18 10½
Export Duty	8675 7 0	20162 9 10
Casual Revenue	21974 12 0	17847 15 6	11980 0 0	8378 15 7	11705 10 4
Recd. from H.M.'s Customs	25764 18 8	11905 17 4	14322 2 9	21519 18 5½	25304 14 9
Auction Duties	763 16 5	271 2 9	540 17 10	615 17 4½	403 1 1
Passenger Duties	1762 0 10	1954 14 2	342 6 8	567 5 10	1372 6 8
Lighthouse Duties	3675 17 3	3033 15 7	4083 4 5	4444 17 10	4454 19 8
Sick & Disabl. Seamen's do.	1836 10 10	1464 11 6	1926 13 4½	1652 8 5	2049 8 4½
Totals	110983 10 9	55904 2 0	50498 13 0½	92333 14 2	127753 1 9½

Formerly, the Legislature complained that they had not enough power over the revenues of the country, and in 1837 Delegates were sent to England to represent their grievances. In that year all cause of complaint was removed, and the resources of the Province were put under the control of the Legislature. Large grants are made annually for the construction and repairs of roads and bridges. The remaining part of the funds is applied to education and other branches of Colonial improvement. This settlement of a vexed question was called "a boon to the country;" and so it really was, until, by the treaty of Lord Ashburton, a valuable part of the Province, and its chief timber districts, were given away to the Americans. Since that period, it has been proposed to call upon the Imperial Government to be reimbursed for the loss. From having gained a full treasury, a high degree of extravagance followed, until the Province became involved in debt and difficulty: but since 1843, there has been more care and economy, and with an increase of trade the Colony is rapidly advancing.

The increasing commerce of the Province has been accompanied with much enterprise. Between 1835 and 1840, Joint-stock Companies were formed, whose united stocks amounted to £2,000,000. It is true, that of these Companies, not all have gone into operation; yet some of them have made extensive improvements.

The Banks of St. John are—

	Capital Stock.
The Bank of New Brunswick	£100,000
Commercial Bank	150,000
City Bank	50,000
Branch Bank of British North America, of ..	1,000,000

Of St. Andrew's—

St. Andrew's Bank	£15,000
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Fredericton—

Central Bank	£35,000
Branch of Bank of British North America.	

St. Stephen's—

St. Stephen's	£25,000
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Branches have been extended to Miramichi and Woodstock. No

interest is allowed on deposits; but, as the stock is worth 6 per cent., capital may be safely invested.

The Local Insurance Companies are very respectable. They are, at St. John—

	Capital.
The New Brunswick Fire Insurance Company	£50,000*
New Brunswick Marine Insurance Company ..	50,000
Fredericton Central Fire Insurance Company ..	50,000

Agencies for these and some of the London and United States Offices are established in different parts of the Province. There are a number of Companies for other objects: of these, we may mention

	Capital.
The St. John Water Company	£20,000
St. John Mechanics' Whale-fishing Company ..	50,000
St. John Mills and Canal Company	40,000
St. John Mills and Manufacturing Company ..	20,000

At St. John, there is a Chamber of Commerce, composed of a number of active merchants and shipowners. This Board watches with a careful eye over the vicissitudes of trade, and communicates with the Government on subjects connected with the commerce and general improvement of the country.

* Now dissolved.

CHAPTER X.

POPULATION, AND RELIGIOUS, SOCIAL, AND POLITICAL STATE OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

THE population of New Brunswick has increased, perhaps, more rapidly than that of any other British Colony excepting Canada. The great influx of Loyalists in 1783 has been followed by a steady flow of emigration from the neighbouring Colonies and Great Britain; and, from the healthiness of the climate, the rate of increase is high. It has been justly remarked by Mr. M'Gregor, that a suspicion prevails among the working classes all over America, that the taking of a census implies the levying of a poll-tax, and therefore the real numbers of many families are withheld. Such an opinion is still common in New Brunswick.

In 1783, the population of New Brunswick, by estimation,

was	11,457
1817	35,000
1824, by census	74,176
1834, by census	119,457
1840, by census	156,162
1845, by estimation	192,867

POPULATION OF NEW BRUNSWICK IN 1840, according to the Census taken by direction of the Provincial Legislature.

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COUNTIES.	Inhabited Houses.	By how many Families.	Houses now building.	Other Houses uninhabited.	WHITES.				PEOPLE OF COLOUR.				TOTAL OF PERSONS.	PLACES OF WORSHIP.						MILLS.		Estimated quantity of cleared Land.	STOCK.				
					Males above 16.	Males under 16.	Females above 16.	Females under 16.	Males above 16.	Males under 16.	Females above 16.	Females under 16.		Church of England.	Presbyterian.	Methodist.	Baptist.	Roman Catholics.	Other Denominations.	Grist.	Saw.		Acres.	Horses.	Neat Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.
County of York	2005	2294	91	82	3747	3294	3341	3158	104	116	143	92	13995	10	2	5	10	2	1	22	31	44818	2037	7445	15077	6415	
" Carleton	1917	2090	151	93	3553	3520	2979	3278	22	11	10	8	13381	3	1	2	4	4	5	27	22	49953	2570	9028	16187	8964	
" St. John	2896	5044	216	290	8993	7078	9223	6896	183	158	281	145	32957	8	2	5	4	4	5	9	49	19134	893	3383	2907	3111	
" King's	2178	2306	105	351	3856	3637	3490	3307	58	43	43	30	14464	11	3	6	12	2	0	43	68	69452	2396	15672	24072	9408	
" 1168	1235	65	113		2215	1954	1908	2061	23	23	23	25	8232	5	0	1	7	2	4	19	28	43089	1342	8335	13362	4859	
" Sunbury	573	636	32	42	1165	1094	985	1001	4	3	5	3	4260	2	1	1	1	0	3	6	15	12262	830	3901	6681	2311	
" Westmoreland...	2467	2728	136	103	4436	4600	4170	4360	15	18	14	23	17686	4	2	11	13	6	0	53	181	99022	3421	20754	27553	16545	
" Northumberland	2037	2282	85	147	4360	3398	3288	3560	11	1	2	0	14620	4	9	2	2	8	1	18	33	25323	1542	6003	8837	6125	
" Kent	1140	1188	63	111	2189	1732	1676	1876	1	1	2	0	7477	2	3	4	0	9	0	13	31	20413	881	3579	6684	4923	
" Gloucester.....	1085	1193	50	36	2034	2003	1773	1941	0	0	0	0	7751	1	1	1	0	9	0	18	7	11681	811	3219	6236	3643	
" Restigouche.....	462	462	56	225	1235	705	581	627	6	2	2	3	3161	0	3	0	0	1	0	3	6	5579	426	1118	1698	1325	
" Charlotte	2622	2910	135	97	4637	4578	4473	4436	12	13	24	5	18178	11	5	6	8	4	2	16	103	35135	1133	7823	11759	4286	
Grand Total...	20514	24368	1185	1690	42470	37593	37887	36501	439	389	549	334	156162	61	32	44	61	51	21	247	574	435861	18282	90260	141053	71915	

NEW BRUNSWICK.

REMARKS.—*County of York*—In the estimation of the cleared land, the town plot of Fredericton is not included: there are in the Parish of Douglas three oat-mills. *County of Carleton*—There is in the Parish of Northampton one oat-mill not included in the above return. *County of Westmoreland*—The Parish of Dorchester has three first-rate oat-mills. Of the estimated quantity of cleared land, 4891 acres are diked marsh. The Parish of Sackville—Of the estimated quantity of cleared land, 765 acres are diked marsh. The Parish of Moncton—Of the estimated quantity of cleared land, 1934 acres are diked marsh. *County of Restigouche*—No return has been made of the population of the Lumbering Districts or of a very large portion of the labouring class in this county, which may be safely estimated at from 1200 to 1500 males above sixteen years of age. *County of Charlotte*—Nearly 200 of the male population of the Parish of West Isles were at sea at the time of taking the census, and are consequently not included in the above return.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENTS of the Increase of the Population since the year 1824.

COUNTIES.	Total of persons in 1824.	COUNTIES.	Total of persons in 1834.	Increase.	COUNTIES.	Total of persons in the year 1840.	Increase.
York	10972	York	10478		York	13995	3517
		Carleton	9493		Carleton	13381	3888
			19971	8999	St. John	32957	12289
St. John	12907	St. John	20668	7761	King's	14464	2269
King's	7930	King's	12195	4265	Queen's	8232	1028
Queen's	4741	Queen's	7204	2463	Sunbury	4260	422
Sunbury	3227	Sunbury	3833	611	Westmoreland.....	17686	3481
Westmoreland.....	9303	Westmoreland	14205	4902	Northumberland	14620	3450
Northumberland.....	15829	Northumberland..	11170		Kent.....	7477	1446
		Kent.....	6031		Gloucester.....	7751	
		Gloucester	8323		Restigouche	3161	
			25524	9695		10912	2589
Charlotte	9267	Charlotte	15852	6585	Charlotte	18178	2326
Grand Total in 1824..	74176	Grand Total in 1834..	119457	45281	Grand Total in 1840..	156162	36705

The rapid increase of population may be ascribed in some degree to the employment created by the timber trade. The average number of emigrants that arrive in the Province annually is about 6,000: of these, not less than 2,500 depart annually for the United States and other places, leaving 3,500 as the actual annual number of British emigrants who remain in the Province. A few settlers and lumbermen come in from the United States, and they arrive from Nova Scotia in considerable numbers. The chief body of the population are descendants of the first American settlers and the Loyalists, who, although they are to be found in every part of the Province, are chiefly scattered along the banks of the St. John.

The descendants of the Acadian French occupy villages bordering upon the great marshes of Westmoreland, and scattered settlements along the whole northern coast from Bay Verte to the Restigouche: they also occupy the banks of the Upper St. John at Madawasca. The Irish immigrants are found in the new and remote clearings of every part of the country, and their present population is not only augmented by an ingress from the old country, but also by a remarkable natural increase. An addition was made to the number of negroes by an injudicious importation from the Southern States during the last war with America: in general, they are idle and improvident; nearly one-third of their number are at and near St. John, where they are a tax upon humanity and a burden to the country. The number of Indians is on the decline, and every attempt to improve their condition by civilisation has proved abortive.

Church of England.—The early British and American inhabitants of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were firmly attached to the Church of England, which in the infant state of the Colony was established by law, but not so as to put any restraint upon liberty of conscience, or to deprive other denominations from enjoying free and liberal privileges. At the present time, every denomination or sect is not only tolerated, but permitted to enjoy equal patronage and support from the Government. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were formed into a Bishop's see by letters patent from the King, and the latter was included in the Diocese of Nova Scotia (now under the charge of the venerable and talented Bishop Ingles) until 1845. In that year, the Province was

formed into a separate bishopric, and the Rev. Dr. Medley, appointed Bishop of Fredericton, is now engaged in the spiritual charge. The greater number of the clergy are rectors of parishes, and have very respectable churches and congregations. As the population is much scattered, there are generally two churches in a parish, in the settled parts of the country, in which the clergyman officiates on alternate Sundays in the morning and evening of the same day. This beneficial system greatly increases the labour of the pastor, who frequently rides, or travels in a boat or canoe, from ten to twenty miles between each service.

The interests of the Church have been promoted by an association called the Church Society, who have sent missionaries to remote places, aided in the instruction of catechists and schoolmasters, Sunday schools, and the distribution of approved tracts. The members of the Church are more numerous than those of any other denomination, and its present flourishing state is highly cheering to all those who are attached to its services.

The temporalities of the Establishment are vested in the Sovereign, and the Bishop decides upon the qualifications of all candidates for holy orders. The clergy derive their chief support from the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts; the contributions of the people are limited. In consequence of the great demands upon the liberality of the Society, fears are entertained that their grants will be withheld, when the whole maintenance of the clergy will fall upon their congregations. The livings at present are from £200 to £300 currency per annum, yet often much less in parishes where the pastor is under the necessity of keeping horses and a carriage to enable him to perform his arduous duties. There are about ninety parishes, and at present sixty-five churches, capable of containing twenty thousand persons. The number of clergymen is only thirty. Double that number could be advantageously employed, and the energies of the venerable Church are loudly called for to meet the demands of this wide field of Christian labour.

Roman Catholics.—The Roman Catholics are very numerous in the Provinces. Nearly all the Acadian French, and the chief part of the Irish population, belong to their communion; and as a large majority

of the immigrants who arrive annually belong to the Roman Church, their numbers will soon exceed those of any other denomination. The whole of North America has been divided into Bishoprics by the Court of Rome, whose missionaries are scattered over the entire continent. New Brunswick and Prince Edward's Island belong to one diocese. The residence of the Bishop is at the latter place; the clergy in the Province being two vicar-generals and sixteen priests, who are supported by subscriptions, fees, pew-rents, and tithes.

Presbyterians.—The first Presbyterians who settled in the Province were chiefly Seceders. Since 1817, missionaries have been sent out by the Established Church of Scotland, and a synod has been formed, called the Synod of New Brunswick, with a presbytery at St. John and another at Miramichi. They have churches in the different counties, and very respectable congregations. The ministers, sixteen in number, are in general men of piety and learning; they enjoy salaries from £200 to £300 per annum, derived from pew-rents and subscriptions. Of the changes that have taken place since the recent secession in the Scottish Church, I am uninformed. Besides the above, there are three ministers, and as many congregations of the Reformed Church of Scotland.

Methodists.—The Society of Methodists are also a respectable body. The number of members belonging to their church, as long ago as 1838, was 2487.* They have upwards of twenty preachers, and good chapels in many of the principal settlements. They hold an annual Conference, at which regulations are made for each succeeding year. The salary of each preacher is according to the number of his children, if he be married, and the length of time he has served in the ministry. He is paid by the Society in England, and by the contributions of his hearers. The salaries are as ample as those of the Church of England, and the ministers are zealous and indefatigable.

Baptists.—The Baptist denomination embraces a considerable part of the population; they have descended from the "New Lights" of the celebrated Whitfield, and have now an established faith contained in seventeen articles. They denounce infant baptism, and allow none but adults to be partakers of that sacrament. They are governed by strict

* Notitia of New Brunswick, p. 247.

rules, and in general are an orderly class of Christians. At an annual association, they adopt regulations for the preservation of harmony in the Society, and of late they have become advocates for the diffusion of learning. Their ministers, upwards of twenty in number, are supported by their hearers and members of the church.

The Free-will Baptists have no regular form of church government, and small congregations are frequently collected under different names, such as Christians, New Dispensationers, &c. With these may be classed a few itinerary preachers, generally from the United States, who travel through the country, calling themselves missionaries, but who never fail to remain wherever they can obtain a comfortable living from the people. Among them, we find Universalists, Swedenbourgians, Millerites, Latter-day Saints, and other names characteristic of wild enthusiasm and religious frenzy. Some of these wandering stars and fanatical luminaries have been discovered to be the basest hypocrites, whose excesses have compelled them to fly before public indignation to the American "far West," where they have thrown off the mask that concealed their true characters, and become the revilers of all religion. These people and their followers, with the excitable portion of the Baptists and the unstable of other denominations, sometimes hold camp-meetings,* at which thousands assemble from zeal or curiosity. That

* Curiosity once led me to attend one of these meetings, held near a small frontier town of the United States. About two thousand persons of all ages and sexes had assembled in a beautiful grove of pine, with all kinds of provisions, beds, and bedding. The road was lined with vehicles of every description, and an allowance of grass and hay was supplied to the immense drove of horses secured to the trees in every direction. Tents were made of sheets, blankets, and carpets—a large platform was erected for the preachers, and *le tout-ensemble* formed a most singular and striking spectacle. The preachers on the platform relieved each other from time to time, and the whole of the exercises were vehemently pathetic, and admirably calculated to work upon the passions of the low and untutored; but to the well-informed, many of them were disgusting and profane. Hymns of fifteen verses were sung occasionally, and the well-known airs of "Days of Absence" and "Auld Lang-syne" were worn threadbare. In reply to the remark, that those airs were adapted to common songs, it was replied by a spirited bystander, that Satan had had them long enough, and the meeting had determined upon consecrating them to

such meetings have an injurious rather than a beneficial tendency, has been proved by experience: but these and other vagaries will be dispelled by the dissemination of sound religious instruction, and the advancement of education will withhold from the pages of future history the records of acts that now disgrace a civilised people.

The inhabitants of New Brunswick have heretofore been considered illiterate; that opinion having prevailed from the limited means of obtaining information enjoyed by the early inhabitants. It is a common remark in this Province and in Nova Scotia, that it is in vain to cultivate the higher branches of learning, so long as the Home Government bestows the principal offices and best pecuniary situations in the Colonies to persons from the Mother-country, who are sent out to fill them. That this feeling has operated against education, there can be no doubt; and the unfair distribution of patronage has the still farther evil effect of severing the affections of the Colonial subjects from the Parent State.

Notwithstanding this and other discouragements, a sufficient number of institutions have been provided by the Province to impart all the higher divisions of learning, and scientific information necessary to fit the student for any avocation that may open in the Colony. Common schools are also liberally supported.

King's College, at Fredericton, was established by Royal Charter in 1828, when Sir Howard Douglas was Governor of the Province. Its object, as expressed in the Charter, "is the education of youth in the principles of the Christian religion, and their instruction in the various branches of literature and science." The instruction is given by the

divine worship. A sort of procession would occasionally move through the grove, headed by a party of singers. At the platform, the excitement would sometimes become general, and singing, praying, crying, and shouting were all mingled together in wild confusion. In the rear, all was a scene of festivity. At evening, numbers retired beneath the tents in the most promiscuous manner; and I heard the loud vociferations of the zealots in the dark hours of night, and after I had retired from the theatre of their enthusiasm. It was stated by one of the speakers, that the meeting was intended to produce a revival and general religious excitement; and certainly the latter object was fully realised.

Rev. Dr. Jacob, Professor of Classical Literature, Moral Philosophy and Divinity, and who is also Vice-President and Principal of the Institution; a Professor of Mathematics, and another of Natural History. Candidates for matriculation are required to be acquainted with the Latin and Greek languages, and the rudiments of algebra and geometry. No restrictions are imposed in reference to age, place of birth, or education, or religious profession. The instruction is devoted to the classics, mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, and natural history; intellectual philosophy, logic, and the evidences of religion natural and revealed; moral philosophy, general history, Hebrew, theology, and French. The academical year has four terms; and there are short vacations at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, to the end of June. Four years are required for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; but actual attendance is not required for a longer period than three years. For superior degrees, the terms and exercises correspond with those of the English Universities. The religious exercises are those of the Established Church of England, and all the candidates for degrees in Divinity are required to subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles of that church.

The College is very pleasantly situated, and the expense of tuition and board is about £34 currency per annum. Scholarships of £20 and £25 have been founded, and are given to students of merit.

At Fredericton there is also a Collegiate School, in which boys pursue all the studies necessary to qualify them for matriculation.

The endowments of the College are ample. They consist of a tract containing 6,000 acres of valuable land near the town, a grant from the Crown of £1,000 sterling per annum, and a grant of £1,000 sterling from the Provincial Legislature annually.

After the College was erected, and opened for the admission of students of all denominations, complaints arose from the Presbyterian Clergy that the Charter was too exclusive, and did not allow them a due participation in the management of its affairs. To remove this complaint, Sir Archibald Campbell, after he had retired from the Government of the Province, in 1837, sent out from Scotland two Presbyterian Professors, in the hope of allaying all feelings of jealousy on the part of that body. This had a salutary effect, until one of the new Professors became a proselyte to the Episcopal Church.

The Charter of the College has, from time to time, been assailed by petitions to the Legislature, and the subject is now under the consideration of the Home Government. The impossibility of uniting different religious denominations in colleges has been fairly proved in the United States and Nova Scotia; and where a university has once been established by the labour of any division of the Christian world, and especially when such an institution does not exclude any from its benefits, it would be unfair and injudicious to enter upon a system of change at once rendered subservient to all the vicissitudes of sectarianism in a new country.

These difficulties, and the means employed to remove them, have had a tendency to prevent the useful operation of the establishment. Had not the Charter of the Nova Scotia College at Windsor been so exclusive as, by tests on matriculation and all graduation, to prevent it from being resorted to generally as an institution for educational purposes, Sir Howard Douglas would probably not have established the Fredericton College: but having done so, on what was considered at the time very liberal principles, the effect has been that the tests on matriculation were abolished at Windsor College, and those on graduation, excepting in Divinity, no longer exist. It is now too late to urge the fact, that one college is sufficient for the actual educational wants of both Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, as no less than six have been erected; but, of that number, only three are in useful operation. Notwithstanding the learning and ability of Dr. Jacob, and his earnest endeavours to promote the welfare of King's College, the institution has not responded to the expectations of its friends, and its practical usefulness, as being adapted to the wants of an infant Colony, has not been very extensive.

The Methodist Society have an Academy, in a very delightful situation, in the populous Parish of Sackville. The handsome and spacious building was completed in 1843, by private subscription, and a large donation from Charles F. Allison, Esq. of that place. A Committee of Ministers belonging to that denomination attend to all the affairs of the institution. The branches taught are, the classics, mathematics, natural philosophy, moral philosophy, and divinity. It receives a small grant from the Province annually, has from fifty to eighty

students, and bids fair to be very useful in the general diffusion of knowledge.

The Baptists have a seminary of learning at Fredericton. This institution was established by private subscription, and is under the superintendence of the Baptist Association of New Brunswick, who appoint a local committee for its management. It was opened in January 1836. The instruction comprises the classics, English education, and mathematics. It does not enjoy any permanent revenue, and its maintenance is dependent on the support of the Legislature and the contributions of the denomination. The number of pupils, male and female, averages from fifty to one hundred, and the expense of board and tuition is about £30 per annum.

There is in each county a grammar-school, supported by subscriptions, tuition fees, and a grant from the Province extending from £50 to £100 per annum. Each school is governed by trustees: instruction is given in the classics and the common branches of English education. These schools are situated in the towns, or most populous villages; and although some of them have sustained a good reputation, others have declined into common schools, or, from having their influence confined to certain districts, they have been viewed by the inhabitants who live remotely from them as the objects of partiality and favouritism.

The parish or common schools have been found to be the most generally beneficial in the diffusion of the first principles of learning among all classes. They are scattered over the whole inhabited face of the country, from the thickly-settled village to the remotest clearings. It is usual for the inhabitants, within certain limits, in the rural districts, to erect a school-house, which at first is made of logs and covered with the bark of trees. A teacher is then employed, and who, in order to obtain the Provincial allowance, must submit to an examination and obtain a licence to teach from the Government. The affairs of each school district are managed by three trustees, appointed by the Governor. A school thus established receives from the bounty of the Legislature from £10 to £30 per annum, according to the number of its scholars or merits, as determined by School Commissioners, who are also appointed by the Government to manage the affairs of the schools in

each county.—£12,000 was granted by the Legislature for the support of the parish schools for 1836.

Formerly many of the teachers of common schools were very incompetent, and not unfrequently men of dissolute habits were entrusted with the important office of instructing youth: this evil was permitted to exist until the consequences became apparent in the morals of the rising generation, and the energies of the well-informed were aroused by the introduction of abuses that could not be tolerated. The present Lieutenant-Governor, Sir William Colebrooke, has been active in the improvement of the parish school system, in which a reform is now manifest. By these schools education is carried to the door of the humblest villager, and instruction is placed within the reach of the remotest settler.

In consequence of the depressed state of the Provincial funds in 1843, the grant made by the Legislature to common schools in that year was only £1,200; since that time the annual grant has been increased, and in the present year no less than £12,000 has been supplied towards the encouragement of the parish schools, agreeably to a law of the Province. During the winter season these places of instruction are well filled with boys; but in the summer they are withdrawn to engage in the common industry of the country, and frequently female teachers are employed to instruct small children of both sexes.

A Madras School has been established at St. John. Among the trustees of the institution are the Lieutenant-Governor, the Chief Justice, and the members of Her Majesty's Council. In it a great number of poor children are taught, supplied with books, and sometimes clothed gratuitously.

Besides the above sources of instruction, there are in the City of St. John several respectable private schools, where a liberal education may be obtained at a moderate expense. These schools are well adapted for the preparation of boys for college, and their annual examinations are open to the public. There are also private boarding-schools for young ladies, who are taught French, music, drawing, and embroidery.

Sunday Schools have been very generally introduced throughout the

Province, and, by the laudable exertions of individuals, they are well supplied with teachers and with books : in them all denominations of Christians cheerfully unite, and their beneficial effects are very apparent in the morals and information of the inhabitants.

Before we take leave of the religious, moral, and educational institutions of the country, the means employed for the suppression of intemperance deserve some remarks. Temperance Societies have been very generally introduced and encouraged. The chief objection raised against them is the political or sectarian character they sometimes assume ; the resolutions of some Societies having been found to extend beyond their primary object, and to bear upon the freedom of elections, and even upon liberty of conscience. The teetotallers, or total abstinence men, and those who allow the moderate use of wine, have done no harm—the great objects of both parties being similar. Although objectionable rules have been adopted by some of these bodies, yet, it must be acknowledged that, taken altogether, Temperance Societies have done much good in the cause of moral reform. Since their introduction, the exhibition and drinking of strong liquors have become more and more unfashionable ; many intemperate persons have been reclaimed, and intemperance is viewed with greater abhorrence than it was in former times : nor can there be a doubt, that if the simple object of abstinence from intoxicating liquors is steadily maintained, its salutary effect will appear still more manifest in the next and succeeding generations. But there is much reason to apprehend that these Societies will, in the course of time, altogether disappear. From their own influence, the necessity for active operations has been rendered less imperative, and the excitement created by their novelty has nearly disappeared : it therefore remains to be discovered whether the ordinary means of maintaining good morals, as taught by the Christian religion, are not more permanently efficacious in preventing any kind of crime than any system that can be devised by human agency.

In treating of the social state of New Brunswick, the inhabitants may be divided into three classes. The early British settlers, the American Loyalists (of which only a few remain), and emigrants from Great Britain and their descendants, form the first class : besides these,

there are the Acadian French and Indians. In the spring succeeding the Peace of 1783, 3,000 persons arrived at St. John from Nantucket : in the following autumn these were joined by upwards of 1,200 more, and to them were added a number of families from Nova Scotia, with disbanded soldiers of Provincial regiments. All these persons were comprehended under the name of Loyalists, who, from their attachment to Great Britain, exiled themselves from their native country after its independence was acknowledged by the Parent State. The first settlement on the River St. John was made at Maugerville in 1762, by a few families from New England, who, in 1783, numbered about 800 souls. These persons and the Loyalists formed the basis from which the chief part of the present population have descended. The difficulties experienced by the early settlers were truly formidable and discouraging : they were frequently harassed by the Indians, who were only appeased by the payment of large sums as a compensation for the wild animals killed by the English.

Many of the Loyalists had forsaken their comfortable homes in highly-cultivated parts of the revolted States, and were compelled to live in huts in a wilderness inhabited only by savages and wild animals. The climate to them was untried ; and the winters, which were far more severe than they have been since, struck them with astonishment and dismay. Many were reduced to the greatest necessities for food and clothing, and "a few roots were all that tender mothers could at times procure to allay the importunate calls of their children for bread."*

During the severity of the cold, a part of the family kept watch, and supplied the fire in the hut with fuel to keep the others from freezing. Boards were heated and applied to the children of families who were destitute of bedding, and a scanty allowance of food was drawn over the snow and ice on toboggans sometimes to the distance of 100 miles. These were the persons who, through toil and poverty, surmounted every obstacle, removed the forest, and have finally covered the banks of the noble St. John with rich fields, villages, and cities.

The elements of the best society at St. John, Fredericton, and the smaller towns are very respectable : the principal officers of the Go-

* M'Gregor's British America.

vernment and military, professional men, and merchants mix freely, but not unanimously, in the same circles. In the best classes there is a due regard to politeness, courtesy, and decorum. Persons of rank and some degree of eminence are, however, looked upon as forming a kind of aristocracy, which always maintains its superiority above the inferior orders, who eagerly aspire to the society they condemn as being unjustly exclusive. The medium ranks are generally stiff and ceremonious; yet their kindness is unalloyed by ostentation, and their hospitality, when bestowed, is extravagant.

There is a constant struggle between the aristocratic principle and the spirit of freedom and equality characteristic of the Americans. Persons who have risen from the lower ranks, and have arrived at affluence, are apt to overrate their importance; and such as have the advantages of birth and education are frequently supercilious. It is to be regretted that, from these causes, endless jealousies and bickerings arise, and society is divided into small circles and parties. A degree of coolness and formality pervades the whole mass, and is but too frequently exhibited to strangers, who, through these defects, are unable to perceive the real virtues of the community. The unhappy divisions of society have been increased by the licentious portion of the Press, which, from time to time, pours the lowest abuse upon the most distinguished individuals in the Colony: even the Judges of the highest Courts, than whom there cannot be found men of greater integrity and benevolence, and Her Majesty's Representatives, do not always escape from newspaper insult, and persons who have long been held up to the public as notorious offenders have afterwards been proved guiltless. The law against the publication of libellous articles has been but seldom applied; for the offending parties are scarcely ever able to pay a fine, and their imprisonment always calls forth sympathy—the last hope of the guilty.

The inhabitants of the northern coasts of the Province are less hospitable and courteous than those of the south; while the people of St. Andrew's and the County of Charlotte excel in their civility to strangers. The great mass of the people are not free from the censure of being jealous of their Provincial brethren and visitors. Many view the country as being the rightful inheritance of the Loyalists and their descendants, and they are therefore opposed to emigration; but such

views will disappear as the intercourse with other countries becomes extended.

It is a common remark, that the customs and manners of the inhabitants of New Brunswick are more similar to those of the people of the United States than to those of any other British Province. This cannot be surprising, when it is considered that its early settlers emigrated from the revolted Colonies, and, from being situated along the frontier, the frequent intercourse with their American neighbours has had some effect upon the social state of the people; but the inhabitants are universally loyal, and firmly attached to the laws and institutions of Great Britain. A very happy state of society exists in the country villages; although these are not altogether free from that party spirit that mars the happiness of the citizen.

The inhabitants of New Brunswick are very generally kind and humane to persons in distress, and the number of their charitable institutions, and the means provided for the diffusion of knowledge, at once proclaim their benevolence, morality, and sound policy. The foundation of their great enterprise and perseverance was laid in the early struggles and toils of their forefathers, upon which they have raised a noble superstructure, alike creditable to themselves and advantageous to the successors.

Persons who travel rapidly through the country, or make a cursory visit to one or two of its towns, frequently, from hasty observation, entertain erroneous notions. From the declaration of a New Sporting writer, it might be inferred that the ladies of St. John amuse themselves in winter by "riding down hill upon hand-sleds with the gentlemen!" There might have been one or two of the above writer's acquaintances who would engage in that rustic sport; but during a residence of five years in that city, I never witnessed an instance of the kind, and can affirm that the ladies of New Brunswick have as high a sense of decorum as those of the most refined societies in England. Generally speaking, the ladies of St. John, Fredericton, and the whole Province, are fair and handsome; many of them are well educated and highly accomplished. In their appearance, the gentlemen can scarcely be distinguished from the natives of Great Britain; they are generally intelligent, and ardently devoted to their professions or business.

The fashions are British, with an occasional mixture brought in from the United States. There are few places of public amusement, and there is not an established theatre in the Province. Sometimes a band of theatrical performers will pass through the Provinces; and during the summer season, menageries of wild animals, troops of horses, with tumblers, jugglers, and rope-dancers, from the United States, will visit all the towns and large villages. To such exhibitions the people are much attached, and any kind of excitement calls forth the multitude. Of late, the inhabitants of St. John and Fredericton have directed a share of their attention to scientific objects; and the establishment of Mechanics' Institutes at those places has made an essential improvement in the pursuits of young men of different classes, and especially the mechanics, who are rapidly advancing in knowledge and respectability.

During the winter, a few public assemblies are given at St. John, and private balls and suppers are not unfrequent. It is a peculiar feature of these establishments, that they are always made upon the largest scale, and the building of the kind host is crowded to a degree that often deprives his guests of every kind of enjoyment. These parties often create much angry feeling among the excluded, notwithstanding the invitations are given in the most cautious manner. Small parties are much less common than they are at Halifax, where the inhabitants are more sociable, and intent upon the enjoyment of solid comfort. At this season, skating and sleigh-riding are common amusements; and during the coldest days of winter, the ladies, thickly clad in furs, are transported over the turnpikes and rivers in defiance of the biting north-wester, or the sweeping drift that clothes the surface in a mantle of white. In the country, small parties, weddings, frolics, and courtships are enjoyed by young and old, and the season is hailed as one of festivity and amusement. Hunting is also practised, and candidates for backwood honours leave their warm firesides, and sleep amidst the snow, in quest of the watchful deer and cariboo.

In summer, there are races at St. John and Fredericton, steamboat excursions, pic-nics, regattas, shooting, angling, and a variety of amusements for those who are not engaged in active business. Although few of the inhabitants pursue these amusements, yet, upon any extraordi-

nary occasion, they all turn out and celebrate the day with great zeal and much display.

But we must here contrast the pleasures enjoyed by the rational part of the community with the outrages committed by the lower classes at St. John, in defiance of the authorities and the laws of the land. In this city, the seat of much natural sobriety, there are frequently mobs and riots of appalling magnitude. These chiefly originate among the lower classes of the Irish, who are organised as Orangemen or Ribbonmen, and the display of an orange-coloured flower is sufficient to raise a tumult. From time to time, mobs and riots occur that are disgraceful to a civilised country. Upon any outbreak, thousands of both parties assemble with bludgeons, and even fire-arms, and, before the riot can be quelled, lives have been sacrificed on the unholy altar of party strife.

The emigrants from Great Britain have become so amalgamated with the original inhabitants, and have so far adopted their customs and manners, that their social state does not require a separate description.

The ancestors of the present race of Acadian French, on account of their disaffection to the British Government, were expelled from Nova Scotia by Major Lawrence, who succeeded to the administration of that Province in 1764. A few families escaped to Memramcook, Shediac, and other places on the north side of New Brunswick. A number also settled at the present site of Fredericton, whence they were compelled to retire to make room for the Loyalists and disbanded soldiers of 1783, and afterwards established themselves at Madawasca. These people have greatly increased in population, and now occupy a number of extensive villages.

The *habitans* are all strongly attached to the Roman Catholic religion, and have their priests supplied from Canada. Their customs and manners are similar to those of the Canadians. The men in general are lean, and of less weight than the British Provincials. The complexions of both sexes are very dark—a fact that may be ascribed, in some degree, to the admixture of the race with the Indians in the early settlement of the country. Among the girls there are many pretty brunettes, with sparkling eyes and fine glossy hair. Their fashions are those of the old French peasantry. They frequently wear mocassins,

and wooden shoes are not out of use. The ordinary dress of the female consists of a petticoat and short loose gown, or mantelet: the former is made of blue woollen cloth, of domestic manufacture. The hair is sometimes tied in a club behind, and some of the men wear long queues. On particular occasions they dress more in the style of the English, but always display a variety of fanciful colours. Although they are mostly clean in their persons, and the exterior of their buildings has a neat appearance, they are not always very tidy in-doors. They are remarkably moral, orderly, and frugal. Their ordinary diet consists of light food and soups; but on their *jours gras*, or feast-days, their tables are covered with a profusion of the richest dainties. They are passionately fond of music and dancing, and every wedding is attended by almost the entire population of a village, who feast, sing, and dance several days in succession in honour of the newly-married pair. Sunday is made a day of gaiety and pleasure; and after the ordinary worship is concluded, the remainder of the Sabbath is frequently spent in horse-racing, canoe-racing, carriole-driving, and a variety of amusements, from which dancing and playing at cards are not always excluded. Flagrant crimes are almost unknown among them, and in all their villages there is a perfect confidence of peace and safety. The *habitans* are civil and polite in their address, through which they display much of their national character. They are hospitable to strangers, maintain their own poor, and are generous in relieving the wants of the distressed.

With all their virtues, the Acadians are not an enterprising people. It is scarcely possible to wean them from the customs of their forefathers, and improvements in the system of agriculture are very slowly introduced among them. The out-door clay oven, and the lofty well-pole, employed by the first French inhabitants in America, are still in use. Their houses are often clustered together, so that the inhabitants have not sufficient space to apply their industry to husbandry; and it is seldom an individual aspires to more than the cultivation of a few acres of land, or such a quantity as will meet the actual wants of his family. Heretofore, they have been altogether uneducated; but, of late, schools have been introduced; and it is now not uncommon, on entering the plain log cottage, to find its proprietor engaged in perusing

a French newspaper. With the English settlers they live in perfect friendship, and the Legislature bestows its bounties upon them as freely as upon other subjects of the Crown.

Medical practitioners are numerous. There are no laws to protect the profession, and empiricism is practised with impunity.

Few people in the world live better than the farmers of New Brunswick. By their industry, they raise an abundance of agricultural produce; and they have been censured for their extravagance in consuming the food that would bring a high price in the market, and by the sale of which their gains would be increased: but they reply, that none have a better right to enjoy the fruits of the earth than those who toil for them. Three bountiful meals are provided every day, and these are often followed by a hearty supper. Their tables are generally well supplied with beef, pork, mutton, and fowls, with pickles, and a variety of vegetables. Salmon and other kinds of fish are also provided; with these there are tea, coffee, cakes, pies, gingerbread, and almost every luxury it is possible for the country to afford. They are not very social in their habits, and their manners are unpolished; but if a friend or stranger put himself in the way of their hospitality, he will find good fare and a hearty welcome: indeed, any person of respectable address and appearance, who can tell a good story, sing a good song, and play the fiddle, may travel through Nova Scotia and New Brunswick free of expense; nor will he always lack the means of a comfortable conveyance from place to place, or hose or mittens when the weather is cold; and the farther he keeps from the towns, the more successful will he be in his economical tour.

The Constitution and Government of New Brunswick do not differ materially from those of Nova Scotia or Canada. The Executive power is invested in an officer called the Lieutenant-Governor, who is subordinate to the Governor-General of Canada; but the latter does not exercise civil jurisdiction beyond the limits of his own Province. Formerly, the Governors of Canada were advanced from the Administration of Nova Scotia. Sir John C. Sherbrooke, the Earl Dalhousie, and Sir James Kempt, all served an apprenticeship in that Province, and Sir John Harvey was promoted from Prince Edward's Island to New

Brunswick. Although the people have power to check an unsatisfactory Administration by an appeal to the Court of Queen's Bench, the usual course of remedy against a Governor in such a case is, by address of the House of Assembly to the Crown. The Government of the Province is intended, so far as circumstances will admit, to resemble that of the Parent State, and the Lieutenant-Governor is considered to be the representative of Her Majesty. The different branches of the Legislature and the Judicature also follow the British model, and closely adhere to the systems of the mother-country. The Governor has extensive power, and formerly he was Commander-in-Chief and Vice-Admiral. Of late the command of the army and navy has been given to distinguished officers of those departments; but he is Chancellor, Ordinary, President of the Board of Marriage and Divorce, &c. He is aided and advised by an Executive Council, composed of nine members, who are appointed by Royal mandamus. He is not bound to be governed by the opinions of his Council; yet, from expediency and necessity, his general acts must be sanctioned by them, or he cannot carry on his Government, and must consequently retire from it. All his acts are submitted for the consideration of the Colonial Minister, who directs him in the decision of all matters of importance.

It is evidently the duty as well as for the interest of the Governor to receive and respect the advice of his Council; but he is not bound to be ruled by that advice contrary to his own conviction. He is only ruled by the instructions of his Sovereign, to whom he is responsible for all his acts. If he refuse to consult his advisers, or reject their counsel, he does so at his own risk, and they must be able to sustain their position in the popular branch: but if not, their offices cease to be useful, and they must resign. In cases where the Governor stands opposed to the majority of his advisers and the House of Assembly, an appeal to the Home Government is always promptly met by a decision, which so far has always restored tranquillity.

Of late years, there has been a constant effort of the popular branch to advance upon the rights and privileges of the Sovereign, and which in Canada was carried to an alarming extent. To maintain the prerogative of the Crown, which by the Constitution cannot take away the liberties of the people, and to secure to the subject his just rights,

should be the aim of the Government; and there are perhaps no people in the world who have less cause to complain of their rulers than those of the British American Colonies. If there be any who have reason to be dissatisfied, they are those who are most scrupulously loyal, and firmly attached to their Sovereign and country; for the practice has too long prevailed of overlooking the merits of such men, while attempts are made to secure the favour of the disaffected by the best gifts and richest livings the Administration can afford.

Up to 1834, the Executive and Legislative Councils were united in one body. Since that period, the Legislative Council constitutes a separate branch, and contains nineteen members. The Legislature, therefore, now consists of three branches,—the Governor, the Legislative Council, and the House of Assembly. The members of the latter, since the passing of the “Quadrennial Bill,” are elected by the people every four years. They are thirty-three in number. The Counties of York, St. John, Charlotte, and Westmoreland each send four members—Northumberland, Sunbury, King’s, Queen’s, Kent, Gloucester, Carleton, and the City of St. John each send two members—and the County of Restigouche one member, to the Provincial Parliament. Now that the County of Westmoreland has been recently divided, and the new County of Albert set off, another member will probably be elected by the inhabitants of the latter district.

The Legislature of the Province meets at Fredericton during the winter season, and generally continues its sitting two months. By it the varied business of the country is managed—laws are enacted and amended—the claims or abuses of public officers, from the Governor downwards, are freely discussed, and the revenues of the country, over which the Assembly hold the sole control, are appropriated to the public service.

The House of Assembly generally contains a large proportion of lawyers, and in the whole body there are a number of intelligent and rather eloquent men; yet a stranger would decide erroneously, were he to suppose that those were the most learned and best qualified men of the Province, for it seldom happens that any member is elected on account of his abilities as a legislator. The debates are sometimes conducted with great spirit, and strong parties arrange themselves on

different sides of the house. It would not be a difficult task to notice briefly the prevailing political opinions of any one particular time; but these and their advocates are so liable to change, that the description would scarcely apply to a single season, and in the succeeding year it would be useless.

The powers of the Legislature are unlimited and incontrovertible within the Province; but they cannot enact any law that interferes with the Acts of the Imperial Parliament, and none of their Statutes can be put in operation until they have received the assent of the Governor and the Royal sanction.

For the administration of Justice, there is a Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges, who discharge all the duties of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer in England. This Court sits four times a-year at Fredericton, twice a-year at St. John and St. Andrew's, and annually in the remaining counties. The Judges are esteemed as men of the highest qualifications and soundest integrity. There are lawyers of all grades, and, from their numbers, many are unable to obtain a respectable livelihood by their profession.

The Court of Chancery consists of the Chancellor and the Master of the Rolls. The Governor and Council form a Court for determining cases of marriage and divorce. Besides these, there are a Court of Vice-Admiralty, and in every county a Court for the Probate of Wills and for granting Letters of Administration. The Governor and Judges of the Supreme Court determine all cases of piracy and other offences on the high seas.

In each county there is held an inferior Court, or General Sessions of the Peace, corresponding to the Court of Quarter Sessions in England. Two or three Justices preside, all the Magistrates, and the Grand Jury of the County attend and aid in regulating the local affairs of every district. Debts of less than five pounds are sued for and recovered by a single Magistrate, of whom there are great numbers in the Province. In every county there is a High Sheriff, appointed by the Governor. Constables and other parish officers are appointed by the General Sessions of the Peace.

The following is the Civil List of the Province, as established in 1837, when the Legislature granted £14,500 to be paid annually for the support of the Provincial Government, in exchange for the Queen's

casual and territorial revenues. Since that period, the salary of the Surveyor-General and Commissioner of Crown Lands has been reduced, and the excess of the grant is applied to other objects.

	Sterling per annum.
Salary of Lieutenant-Governor	£ 3,500
Chief-Justice	950
Commissioner of Crown Lands	1,750
Provincial Secretary	1,430
Three Puisne Judges, each £650	1,950
Attorney-General	550
Solicitor-General	200
Private Secretary to the Governor	200
Auditor-General	300
Receiver-General	300
In-door Establishment of Crown Lands Office ..	900
King's College	1,000
Presbyterian Minister	100
Emigrant Agent, St. John	100
Annuity to late Surveyor-General	150
Indians	54
Total ..	£ 13,443

The following was the Civil List of the Province for the year ending 1st of January, 1846 :—

Salary of Lieutenant-Governor	£ 3,461 10 8
Private Secretary	230 15 4
Chief-Justice	1,096 3 0
Justice of Supreme Court	740 0 0
Ditto Ditto	740 0 0
Ditto Ditto	740 0 0
Surveyor-General	1,200 0 0
Auditor-General	346 3 0
Receiver-General	346 3 0
Attorney-General	634 12 0
Solicitor-General	230 15 4
Donation to King's College	1,111 2 0
Indians	60 0 0
Annuity to Anthony Lockwood, Esq. ..	173 4 0
Acting Emigrant Agent	115 7 8
Provincial Secretary	1,599 11 0
Total for the year ..	£ 12,855 4 4*
Amount of Civil List ..	14,500 0 0
Surplus of the year ..	£ 1,644 15 8

* Sic in MS.—PRINTER.

The taxes are so light in New Brunswick, that they are scarcely felt. The taxes for keeping the roads in repair are paid in labour in the country upon the roads, and the amount is regulated by the amount of property possessed by each inhabitant. There are also light taxes for keeping county buildings in repair, and for other local objects. The General Sessions of the Peace appoint assessors, who levy rates for the support of the poor. All these taxes are very inconsiderable, when brought into comparison with those of other countries. The highest taxes are paid by the citizens of St. John; and they are likely to be much increased at that place, in order to defray a heavy debt in which the city is involved.

The whole cost of defending the Colonies is defrayed from the Imperial finances, and amounts to from £130,000 to £160,000 per annum. The General Government has commenced a chain of fortifications of the strongest description along the line of the American frontier, and the opening of a military road from Nova Scotia to Quebec. It is now proposed to make the latter a railway, which would at once afford great power in the event of a war, unite the Provinces, and open a vast field for commerce, emigration, and Colonial industry.

The number of Militia in 1834 was 30,000: it is now upwards of 55,000. They are regularly organised, and a number of volunteer companies at St. John, Fredericton, and other places are armed and trained. The habits of shooting have made many of the country Militia very expert marksmen, and, in a new country, they would be found dangerous adversaries to an invading enemy.

CHAPTER XI.

GEOLOGY AND MINERALOGY OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

THE objects of the present work will not admit of giving an extended account of the geology of the Province. A Geological Survey of the chief part of New Brunswick was made by the Author between the years 1838 and 1844, by the order of the Colonial Government, and a full description of the rocks, minerals, and fossils is given in the Reports published by the Legislature. It is to be regretted that the embarrassed state of the finances of the Province prevented the completion of that work, especially as the exploration of another year would have rendered the Geological Map* of the whole country perfect, and discovered the resources of a large and, at present, almost unknown tract.

The mineral wealth of Great Britain has greatly contributed in elevating the nation to its present exalted position; it has imparted an extraordinary impulse to mechanical genius—has aroused her inhabitants to unceasing exertion, and produced the most favourable revolutions in agriculture, manufactures, and navigation. The gradual advancement of the arts, and their application to useful objects, have closely followed the development of those materials, upon which the industry of the people has been exerted with the most admirable results. The annual amount of the raw mineral produce of Great Britain exceeds £20,000,000 sterling. The increase of that sum, by the operations of manufacture upon the minerals taken in their natural

* The Author is now preparing a Geological Map of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island. His sketch of a Geological Map of the former Province was published by the Geological Society of London in 1845.

state, is almost incalculable. The Ordnance Geological Survey of England has proved of much utility to the mining and agricultural interests of the country, and opened a new era in the science of Geology. The United States have completed geological explorations of almost every section of their territory, nor have the benefits derived from them been less numerous than those of Europe.

Of the British North American Colonies, New Brunswick was the first to undertake an examination of her mineral resources. Since the commencement of that survey, similar ones have been instituted in Newfoundland and Canada. Prince Edward's Island has also followed the example. Nova Scotia would have engaged in such a work long ago, were not her mines and minerals sealed up by a close monopoly, which withholds from the inhabitants any participation in the mineral wealth of the country.

The navigation of the ocean by steam, and the vast extension of railroads, have greatly increased the value of coal and iron. New Brunswick, as well as Nova Scotia, contains an abundant supply of those necessary minerals. Great Britain has, therefore, inexhaustible resources of coal and iron on both sides of the Atlantic, and thereby her power as a maritime nation is almost unlimited, while the Colonies themselves are of inestimable value to the Empire. The opening of a railway between Halifax and Quebec would bring these resources into operation immediately, and in every way contribute to the security and prosperity of these Colonial Possessions. The progress of mining is always slow in a new country, where all the capital is employed upon such objects of trade as may be most readily obtained; but, by opening free channels of communication, enterprise would soon be directed to mineral as well as to timber resources—foreign capital would be introduced, and the country would hold a position in some degree equal to its physical capabilities.

Having described the general features of the Province in a previous chapter, we may proceed to notice the situations and characters of the rocks, fossils, and minerals. The general direction of the rocky strata is from the south-west towards the north-east, or *vice versa*, or on lines parallel to the border of the Atlantic Ocean; the strata also runs in that direction, varying from east-south-east to north-east. These are

the general courses of all the principal formations of North America, and which afford evidence of the upheaval of vast anticlinal ridges along the continent in the direction of its south-eastern coast.

A branch of the Alleghany chain of mountains passes through the Northern States. Cataadan, in Maine, is the loftiest eminence in its eastern range, being 5,300 feet above the level of the sea. This spur of the Alleghanies crosses the St. John, and entering New Brunswick, embraces Mars Hill, Moose and Bear Mountains, near Des Chutes River; the same chain extends in a north-easterly direction to the sources of the Miramichi, Nepisiguit, Upsalquitch, and Tobique Rivers, gradually disappearing as it approaches the Bay Chaleurs; another branch penetrates the District of Gaspé, and slopes off towards the St. Lawrence; a somewhat elevated ridge crosses the Schoodic River and the Cheputnecticook Lakes, presenting a number of beautiful eminences in its course to the Nerepis River and to Bull Moose Hill, in King's County. These elevations form anticlinal ridges, against which the stratified masses lean, or they border immense troughs containing the secondary and tertiary formations. They are chiefly composed of granite, syenite, trap rock, and porphyry.

Granite.—A ridge of granite crosses the Cheputnecticook River and Lakes, intersects the Digdeguash and Magaguadavic Rivers, and sends off a branch that finally reaches the St. John, at the head of the Long Reach. Along its southern side, it is associated with syenite and trap. Detached elevations of the same rocks appear at the sources of Musquash, Le Proe, and Poclogan Rivers; also near St. Stephen's, and at Calais. Another branch of the ridge extends in a north-east direction, and embraces the country between Magadawawaagum, or Loon Lake, and Eel River Lake. It crosses the St. John at a point ten miles below the mouth of the Nackawick and the mouth of Eel River, and runs into the unexplored and mountainous country northward. Granite also appears at the entrance and on the banks of the Nepisiguit, and occupies the great tract of wilderness land in the interior of Northumberland and Gloucester.

Syenite.—A belt of syenite and trappean rocks reaches from the

Kenebecasis along the northern boundary of the County of St. John to the Parish of Hopewell, in the new County of Albert. On an average, it is ten miles wide, and is situated a distance of ten miles from the Bay of Fundy. These rocks also appear at other places, and frequently pass into the true granitic rock.

Trap Rock.—A tract of trap rock reaches from Chamcook in a north-east direction, embracing the mouth of the Digdeguash, Lake Utopia, Red Rock Lake, and, crossing the St. John at the Reach, includes the Parish of Kingston and part of the Parish of Springfield, where it is met by the coal-field. It is associated with the granite and syenite, into which it sends numerous dikes, veins, and intruding masses.

Metamorphic Rocks.—Succeeding the above, we find extensive deposits of metamorphic rocks, consisting of gneiss, micaceous, hornblende, talcose, chlorite, and argillaceous slates, with crystalline limestone, quartzite conglomerate, grauwacke, and grauwacke slate, in which scarcely any regular order of succession can be traced. These are frequently broken through, interrupted, and pierced by dikes and veins of trap rock, porphyry, and serpentine. A group of these beds skirts the whole shore from Salisbury Cove to Chamcook Bay, on the shore of the Bay of Fundy, averaging about eight miles in breadth. No fossils have been discovered in these rocks. Resting upon the upper part of the series, near St. John, the compact sandstones contain the fossilised remains of large coniferous trees; but these, and a variety of terebratula, evidently belong to the imperfect coal-measures, of which there are several instances in the Province.

Extending from the State of Maine, there is a belt of clay slate and grauwacke, which runs in a north-east direction across the St. John, embracing the Keswick and Mactaquack Rivers, thence across the country to the main South-west Miramichi, into the unexplored District of Northumberland. These rocks skirt the granite of Charlotte County, and the Plutonic ridge of the Cheputnecticook, and also a part of the coal-field on the south side of the River St. John. No fossil remains have yet been discovered in them, and they may be properly referred to the Cambrian system.

Silurian Rocks.—Between the head of the Meductic Rapids and Madawasca, on the St. John, and occupying a large tract of country on each side of that river, there is a vast group of argillaceous, calcareous, and silicious rocks, to which the term “transition” was formerly applied. The same rocks occupy the chief part of the coast between Bathurst and Dalhousie, and both sides of the Restigouche: they also appear at Port Daniel and other places in the District of Gaspé. The St. John passes through this group to the distance of upwards of one hundred miles, running obliquely across the strata. The distance across the whole series, at right angles to the strata, so far as they have been explored, in the wilderness, is upwards of seventy miles. This may be an approximation to the probable breadth of the belt near the American boundary; but in the interior country of York, Carleton, and Gloucester, the breadth of the formation is evidently greatly diminished by the protrusion of granitic and trappean mountains. This broad tract of rocks enters the State of Maine, occupies the valley of the Aroostóok, in the territory formerly disputed, and probably reaches Canada in the District of Montreal, and also the State of New York.

In their lithological characters, these rocks may be represented as being red and dark-coloured flags and slates, sandstone, freestone, shelly and compact limestone, black and lead-coloured shales, concretionary limestone, and grey micaceous sandstones. At the Meductic, Eel River, and at the head of the Nackawick, this group of strata is found reposing upon and dipping from granite. At the sources of the Upsalquitch and Nepisiguit Rivers, granite, trap, and other rocks of volcanic origin, form anticlinal ridges, or axes, where the lower members of the above group, being non-fossiliferous, may be considered as belonging to the Cambrian system. The direction of this great system of rocks is from the south-west to the north-east, and the strata in general are highly inclined. From the general agreement of its divisions with those of the Silurian group of parts of England and Wales described by Professor Sedgwick and Mr. Murchison, I have adopted the names employed by those gentlemen, which have been sanctioned in Europe and in the United States, and their descriptions will apply very generally to the Silurian rocks of New Brunswick. The above group is also penetrated by great numbers of dikes of trap, and occasionally serpentine. These

dikes are well displayed in the banks of the Restigouche and other rivers, where they have produced changes only referable to the heat that accompanied their protrusion. They are sometimes of great thickness, and near mountain masses of the Plutonic rocks they are seen in broad shelving sheets.

The Silurian rocks frequently abound in organic remains, yet they are not universally distributed in the strata. At Flannagan's Hill, below the mouth of the Presqu' Isle, the strata consist of dark-coloured slates, with impure limestones: in the latter there are large and very beautiful specimens of the *Cyathophyllum basaltiforme*, columns of *encrinites*, and casts of *productæ*. The following is the result of a section made on the Restigouche and Bay Chaleurs in descending order:—

STRATA.	ORGANIC REMAINS.
Impure grey and blue limestone	Producta spirifera, orthocera, trilobites.
Calcareous and argillaceous shales	Crinoidea, Cyathophyllum turbinum.
Earthy rotten shale	} Atrypa aspera, with numerous testacea and corals.
Wenlock limestone.	
Compact blue limestone.	
Friable sandstone.	
Shelly limestone.	
Compact blue and grey impure limestone in black, blue, and red shale	} Producta, terebratula, Cyathophyllum turbinum, Cyathophyllum hexagonum.
Grey and brown sandstones	
Compact limestone	} Encrinal remains.
„ sandstone	
Argillaceous and calcareous slates	} Tentaculites ornatus, producta, terebra- tula, corals.
Coralline marbles	
Coralline marbles	Encrinal remains.
Coralline marbles	Corals.
Conglomerates	No organic remains.
Clay slate	No organic remains.

From the great extent and thickness of the strata, my opportunities only allowed me to take a cursory view of them, and the fossils most readily recognised; among which are the *Catenipora escharoides*, or chain-coral. Some of the corals are of great size, and near Dalhousie they fall from the cliffs and are rolled upon the beach by the waves. During the examination, I was at once struck with the similarity of these fossils to those of the Silurian system of Great Britain and the United States, and especially to those from Lockport, near Niagara,

described by Mr. J. Hall and Mr. T. A. Conrad, who were employed in the Geological Survey of the State of New York.*

Old Red Sandstone.—This rock is not very extremely developed in the Province, unless the lower conglomerates along the southern border of the coal-field may be classed in its group. It is intersected by the St. John just below the Ocnabog River, and opposite both sides of Long Island, and stretches along the border of the coal-field from that place to Min Creek. The strata consist of a dull brick-red-coloured sandstone and a compact conglomerate. They are pierced by dikes of trap, and the formation reposes on the clay slate farther south.

Old Mountain or Carboniferous Limestone.—We find here also the carboniferous limestone immediately succeeding the Devonian strata. This formation reaches away in a south-west direction, and on the east side of the river, making a gentle curve to the north-east. It contains a few *echnida* and *crinoidea*. The *Spirifera glabra* of Sowerby are very abundant, and also a variety of *producta*. The whole thickness of the formation will not exceed a thousand feet.

Carboniferous Group.—In the description of this series of rocks, for the sake of convenience we will include the deposits of red marl and sandstone, limestone and gypsum, of Butternut Ridge, Sussex, and Westmoreland, as they are in some degree associated with the great coal formation. By some persons, and among them several American geologists, the same rocks in similar situations in Nova Scotia have been considered to be the equivalents of the new red sandstone and lias of England. This opinion was not entertained by Mr. Lyell after his visit to that Province, and it has since been receded from by one or two local inquirers. Mr. Lyell has been disposed to class those rocks with the Devonian system, or the Permian rocks of Russia. As gypsum is found both above and beneath the coal, and the best discovered sections afford rather contradictory evidence in regard to the actual position of those rocks, the question must remain undetermined until

* See Report of the Geological Survey of the State of New York, 1840.

more extensive observations are made, or better opportunities are afforded to arrive at a just conclusion.

The great coal-field of New Brunswick occupies a vast tract of country of a triangular form. Commencing at Bay Verte, and crossing the isthmus between the two Provinces, its southern boundary follows the shores of Cumberland Basin and Shepody Bay. It then extends from the north side of Shepody Mountain to Sussex, and mantling around the trap rock of Kingston and Springfield, reaches the St. John at Long Island, where it nests the old red sandstone and carboniferous limestone already described. From thence it makes a gentle curve to the south, and runs westward to a point eight miles westward of the Oromucto Lake, in the County of York. Its south-western boundary has been followed thence to the St. John between Fredericton and the mouth of the Keswick: from this point its north-western side remains almost unexplored; but, from examinations made along the tributaries of the Miramichi, it is known to extend to Bathurst Harbour, curving to the westward in the Counties of York and Northumberland. It occupies the whole of the Counties of Kent and Sunbury—the chief part of Queen's, York, and Northumberland—a part of the County of Albert, and almost the entire area of Westmoreland. The length of the southern side of this coal-field is 145 miles—of its north-eastern side 110 miles. The distance from the Oromucto Lake to Bathurst, following the margin of the coal-field, is upwards of 170 miles. From the earliest observations, I had estimated its area at 7,500 square miles; but the more recent examinations show that its surface is equal to 10,000 square miles, and, including the Cumberland coal-field of Nova Scotia, which belongs to the same carboniferous deposit, the whole area of the united coal district is computed to be 12,500 square miles!!! The Province has been estimated to contain 26,000 square miles; and when it is considered that more than one-third part of that area is a coal-field, with a due proportion of productive coal-measures, the quantity of coal will appear inexhaustible. The south side of this district is met by coarse red sandstones and conglomerates, to the distance of sixty miles. Southward of the Washadamoak, it is met by the trap rocks of King's County. Between the Oromucto Lake and the St. John above Fredericton, the millstone grit apparently meets the slates.

The north-east side of the coal district is bounded by the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and its sandstones and shales, sometimes associated with coal, are seen in the low cliffs of the shore. But, besides the extensive area of the coal-field of New Brunswick, the same carboniferous district extends into Nova Scotia, beyond Cumberland, and is scarcely interrupted between that county and Pictou, where the coal itself is extensively worked by the General Mining Association of London. I have examined 200 miles of coast on the Straits of Northumberland and Gulf, and have found that all the rocks in that distance belong to the carboniferous series. Upon an average, the surface of the New Brunswick coal-field is not elevated more than forty feet above the level of the sea: it presents an expanded low and level surface, excavated by water channels rather than broken by hills. The contemplated railway between Halifax and Quebec would intersect the great coal-field to the distance of 140 miles, and open a tract of 5,000 square miles of excellent land to the industry of emigrants and settlers. The rocks of the carboniferous series are conglomerates, sandstones, shales, limestone, clay-ironstone, coal, and trap, similar to those of the coal-fields of Great Britain. Along the coast, the strata are nearly horizontal: in the interior, and especially in the County of Westmoreland, they are inclined at angles of twenty degrees, and sometimes forty degrees, from the horizon. The productive coal-measures appear to be near the middle portion of the series, although thin seams of coal occur in almost every part of the field. Many of the strata would afford superior freestones for architectural purposes; others are employed for grindstones, whetstones, &c. The coal, so far as it has been discovered, is of the bituminous kind. A variety of cannel coal is found in the new County of Albert. The principal known outcroppings are at the streams of the above county, Aboushagen and Tedish Rivers, Cocagne, Buc-touche, on the banks of the Richibucto River, Bartibog, New Bandon, Bartholomew's River, the Grand Lake, Salmon River, and on the banks of the Oromucto. Thin strata of coal also appear in many other parts of the coal-field.

The fossils of this coal-field are very numerous. The sandstones, shales, fire-clays, and conglomerates, abound in the remains and impressions of plants—many of which were of great size. In general,

every vestige of their leaves has disappeared, and nothing remains but the simple impression; but sometimes the leaf is seen in a thin paper-like lamina of coal, and even in the centre of clay-ironstone balls every fibre of the original vegetable texture is beautifully delineated.

The fossil trees are of different kinds, and occur under a variety of circumstances. At the South Joggins, on the shore of Cumberland Basin, and in the face of a cliff, they are situated at right angles to the planes of stratification, or stand perpendicular to the strata; and as their roots are sometimes found attached, they evidently flourished on the spot. The only relic of the former living tree is the bark, which has been converted into coal, and still bears the original flutings, furrows, and leaf-scars of the plant. The cylindrical trunks have been filled up with sandstone, shale, &c., and now represent the original trees in solid stony columns, from twenty to sixty feet in length, and sometimes upwards of four feet in diameter.

In New Brunswick these fossil trees lie prostrate in and between the strata, so far as they have yet been observed. In some instances they have been changed into coal; in others, this change has been partial; and parts of many trunks on the shores of Chignecto Bay are composed of sandstone, iron pyrites, sulphate of barytes, and other minerals. At Bathurst, Carriboo River, and other places, the trees have been mineralised by copper, and their trunks have been worked out of the rocks and disposed of for copper ore, yielding 75 per cent. of pure metal. Large stems are found composed altogether of sandstone, apparently run in a mould like that of the iron-founder. In some of the large stems the ligneous fibre remains perfect and distinct: these are often mineralised by sulphate of barytes, or calcareous spar; they resemble rotten ash, and split lengthwise very readily. There is still another variety of large fossil trees in which the whole of the trunk has been changed into a compact lignite: the original bark now appears in coal, and when removed from the fossil, the tree resembles a peeled oak. With these are the common fossil plants of coal-fields, only a few of which require description.

Stigmaria are very numerous; and they are frequently found with their leaves attached and extending in all directions from their trunks

into the shales and sandstones. *Lepidodendra*, *calamites*, *sigillaria*, *asterophyllites*, *Pecopteris lonchitica*, and other well-known fossils, are abundant. The fire-clays beneath the coal are most frequently loaded with *stigmaria*, as observed by Mr. W. E. Logan in South Wales, and in the underlays of the coal of Pennsylvania. Among the coal-bearing strata there are sometimes thin layers of limestone containing shells, of which the *modiola* and *cypris* are most common; with them fossil fish have been found: these remains are of fresh-water, and occasionally of marine origin. Sulphurous springs are common in the coal-field, and their waters are used by the inhabitants in the cure of cutaneous diseases.

The red marly sandstones of Butternut Ridge, Westmoreland, and the Tobique, contain beds of limestone and gypsum; but the organic remains found in the formation have been too few and imperfect to afford any very correct information in regard to its relative age.

Tertiary Deposits.—At Lubec, in the State of Maine, on the shores of the Schoodic, at Chamcook, Mace's Bay, Manawagonis, St. John, Mispeck, Emerson's Creek, and other places along the coast of the Bay of Fundy, there are beds of sand, marly clay, and marl, forming low and almost level tracts, exposed to the sea, and frequently extending to some distance on the shore. The marl and marly clay contain the remains of marine animals and plants, often in profusion; yet the deposits in which they are buried are now situated from ten to forty feet above the highest level of the tides. The shells, including the *testacea* and *crustacea*, exceed twenty in number: of these, the chief part are found inhabiting the present ocean; but a *Pecten obliquus* of the marl and two other bivalves appear to be extinct, as they are not found on any part of the coast. Above these several beds and the relics contained in them, there are deposits of sand and gravel, from ten to fifty feet in thickness. There is abundant evidence to prove that the ancient sea-beach has here been raised far above the highest tides of the present period, and the water-worn pebbles of the former shore are elevated from ten to thirty feet above their ancient level, in situations where the marl and clay of the tertiary beds are absent. It is obvious that a whole line of coast on the north side of the Bay of Fundy has been, within

a period comparatively recent, raised from the sea. There is also evidence of submersion. On the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and in Miramichi Bay, large peat-bogs have been buried beneath water, and are now broken up by the waves.

One of the most remarkable instances of recent submersion was observed at the Island of Grand Manan, where a tract of land, twenty miles in length, and several small islands, have been depressed to the depth of eighteen feet. This depression took place before the island was inhabited: still there are Indians alive who remember the tradition of the "great island having rolled over towards the sun." The stumps of many trees—the pine, hemlock, and cedar—still remain firmly secured by their roots in the sunken earth; the buried forest is now covered by each succeeding tide, and the anchors of vessels are frequently held by the roots and stumps of trees that formerly stood above the ocean's level.

In the northern counties, there are tertiary deposits similar to those already noticed. The collections of marl in the Counties of Restigouche and Gloucester may be called upper tertiary. They consist of strata of yellowish-white marl, most frequently covered by peat and the trunks and roots of decayed trees. The marl is a very pure carbonate of lime, and closely resembles chalk. It abounds in the remains of fresh-water shells, all of which still exist in the Province. The sites of these deposits were evidently fresh-water lakes.

Diluvium.—Almost the whole surface of the fertile parts of the Province are overspread by beds of diluvial sand and gravel. These deposits, which might properly be called ancient alluvium, are of two kinds—the stratified and the unstratified. The stratified beds were evidently produced by the action of currents of water, which have at some former periods swept over the entire surface, from the north towards the south. Diluvial grooves and scratches are found on the surfaces of the hardest strata, and even granite, in every quarter, and which, no doubt, are the marks of the passage of boulders carried forward by the impetus of water, or icebergs containing heavy masses of rock. The valleys of denudation also bear evidence of submersion beneath active currents; but to enter upon a full account of the operations of which,

although it affords much interesting proof of the theory proposed, forms no part of the object of the present work.

Above the stratified beds of sand and gravel, there are numerous irregular deposits of sand, pebbles, and detached pieces of rock, which bear no evidence of having been transported and worn by the immediate operations of water. Wherever such deposits are found at the bases of mountains, their collection might be accounted for by the application of the glacial theory, but which theory cannot be sustained by reference to the detrital heaps found on level plains, far from any hill whence they could have been launched by the descent of glaciers. With these unstratified collections of *débris*, there are numerous boulders of rock. That these boulders have been transported from the north is evident, for they are always found to the south of their birthplaces, or where the parent mass is *in situ*. Erratic blocks of granite, syenite, and trap rock are scattered over the whole surface of the coal-field of New Brunswick; and the nearest fixed masses of those rocks are in the mountains of Gaspé, on the north side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It is therefore reasonable to presume, that in a former condition of the continent, and before the country was elevated above the sea, those boulders, and beds of sand and gravel, were carried along in floating masses of ice, as we now see them in the icebergs of the North, and in those of the Bay of Fundy and Gulf of St. Lawrence. The passage of those "ice-cakes," forced onward by the currents and loaded with stones, over the rocks of the shores, open grooves across the strata similar to those that appear beneath the diluvium of the dry land.

Alluvium.—In the topographical account of the several counties, the situations of the fertile alluviums have been spoken of. They are of two kinds—the fresh-water and the marine. The former is the result of meteoric action upon the rocks, which causes rapid disintegration; the particles detached by the frost, heat, and moisture are carried downwards by the rains, and transported by freshets of water along the valleys and river sides, where they form the fertile intervalles, and extend the surface capable of producing plants. The marine alluviums are carried inwards by the rapid tides, and spread on the sides of the rivers,

whence in the course of time they become grass-bearing marshes, and being rescued from the sea by embankments, finally produce wheat and clover.

The following are the principal useful rocks and minerals of New Brunswick :—

Granite	Hornstone
Syenite	Thompsonite
Roofing Slate	Stilbite
Porphyry	Apophyllite
Mica Slate	Hornblende
Talcose Slate	Feldspar
Limestone	Chlorite
Hydraulic Limestone	Garnets
Marble	Talc
Alum Slate	Asbestos
Coal	Magnesite
Graphite, or Plumbago	Carbonate of Lime
Ochres	Sulphate of Barytes
Iron Ores (abundant)	Gypsum
Manganese Ores	Potter's Clay
Galena, or Lead Ore	Fire Clay
Grindstone	Sulphate of Iron
Freestone	Tourmaline
Sulphuret of Copper	Serpentine
Amethyst	Iron Sand.
Agate	Iserine
Jasper	

Springs—

Salt	Carburetted Hydrogen
Sulphurous	Ferruginous

The following is a return of the produce of the mines and quarries in 1842, since which period there has been but little improvement in them :—

Number, Name, Situation, and Description of the Mines and Quarries.	Name of the Mineral Substance.	Quantity produced.	Value in Sterling.
Charlotte County.			
1 Quarry at L'Etang Island	Limestone	1000 hhds.	£ 400 0 0
1 Do. do. Harbour	Do.	1000 "	400 0 0
St. John County.			
19 Quarries	Do.	6000 "	2400 0 0
Westmoreland.			
7 Quarries	Grindstones	2000 stones	350 0 0
2 Do.	Freestone	1000 tons	500 0 0
1 Mine	Coal ..	Just commenced.	
2 Quarries	Gypsum ..	500 tons	125 0 0
King's County.			
1 Salt Manufactory	Salt	500 bushels	50 0 0
1 Quarry, Flagging	Freestone	400 tons	100 0 0
Queen's County.			
2 Mines, Grand Lake	Coal ..	500 chald.	500 0 0
4 Quarries	Freestone	1000 tons	250 0 0
1 Quarry	Granite ..	6000 "	420 0 0
Sunbury County.			
2 Quarries	Freestone	100 "	25 0 0
York County.			
3 Quarries	Freestone	500 "	125 0 0
Carleton County.			
2 Quarries	Limestone	300 hhds.	200 0 0
1 Quarry	Freestone	50 tons	12 10 0
Northumberland County.			
4 Quarries	Freestone	1000 tons	250 0 0
2 Quarries	Grindstones	100 stones	12 10 0
Gloucester County.			
1 Mine	Manganese	100 tons	800 0 0
1 Quarry, Slate	Slate ..	100 "	100 0 0
3 Quarries	Freestone	500 "	125 0 0
Kent County.			
3 Quarries	Freestone	400 "	100 0 0

CHAPTER XII.

NATURAL HISTORY OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

IN treating of the Natural History of the Province our remarks must necessarily be very brief. A full account of the zoology or botany of any part of America would of itself occupy a volume. The distribution of animals and plants has no reference to the arbitrary boundaries of nations and states, and the description of the productions of a single province would apply to almost the whole of the northern part of the great continent. Few have ever made any attempt to collect, classify, and describe the natural productions of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick: to the labours of others, in other quarters, we therefore add a few of our own observations on this wide field of inquiry.

In the "Edinburgh Cabinet Library"* there are some excellent "Descriptive Sketches of the Natural History of the North American Regions," and a number of other works have contributed to a general knowledge of the natural history of the northern part of the New World.† We can, therefore, do little more than give catalogues of such productions as we are acquainted with; and in their arrangement the system adopted by Dr. Emmons, of William's College, and other American naturalists, has been found most convenient.

* No. IX.

† See Descriptive Sketches of the Natural History of the North American Regions; Richardson's *Fauna Boreali Americana*; Pennant's *Arctic Zoology*; Audebon's *Ornithological Biography*; *Animals and Plants of Massachusetts*, in Hitchcock's *Geological Reports* by several Authors; Silliman's *Journal*; *Philadelphia Journal of Natural Sciences*.

ANIMALS OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

MAMMALIA.

ORDER I. CARNASSIERS.

Vespertillio

Pruinosus, Say.—Common Bat.

Scalops

Canadensis, Cuvier.—Mole.

Condylaria

cristata, Desmarest.—Star-nose Mole.

Ursus

Americanus.—Black Bear.

Procyon

lotor, L.—Raccoon.

Gulo

luscus, L.—Wolverine; Cacajou, or Indian Devil.

Mustela

veson, L.—Mink.

vulgaris, L.—Weasel.

erminea, L.—Ermine.

Martis, L.—Martin.

Canadensis, L.—Fisher.

Mephitis

Americana, Desmarest.—Skunk.

Lutra

Canadensis.—Otter.

Canis

(Lupus) Occidentalis, Richardson.—Wolf.

(Vulpes) fulvus, D.—Red Fox.

Virginianus.—Grey Fox.

Nigra.—Black Fox.

Felis

concolor.—Congar; Catamount—very rare.

Canadensis.—Lynx, or Wild Cat.

Phoca

vitulina.—Common Seal.

cristata.—Hooded Seal.

ORDER II. RODENTIA.

Castor

fiber, L.—Beaver.

Fiber

Zibethicus, L.—Musquash, or Muskrat.

Mus

- decumanus, Pallas.—Brown Rat; Wharf, or Water Rat.
 rattus—Black Rat.
 musculus.—Mouse.
 leucopus.—Field Mouse.

Gerbillus

- Canadensis.—Jumping Mouse.

Arctomys

- monax, Gmelin.—Woodchuck.

Sciurus

- Hudsonius.—Red Squirrel.
 striatus.—Striped, or Ground Squirrel.

Pteromys

- volucella, L.—Flying Squirrel.

Hystrix

- pilosus.—Porcupine.

Lepus

- Americanus, Gmelin.—Hare.

ORDER III. RUMINANTIA.

Cervus

- Virginianus.—Common, or Fallow Deer.
 Tarandus.—Reindeer, or Cariboo.
 Alces.—Elk, or Moose.

ORDER IV. CETACEA.

Delphinus

- Delphis, L.—Porpus.
 (Phoceana) gladiator.—Sword-fish.

Balena

- mystecetus, L.—Common Whale.

The inhabitants of New Brunswick generally believe that there are two kinds of bears in the Province—the *long-legged* and the *short-legged*; but I have never seen more than one variety, which is the common black bear of Canada: it is not very carnivorous, and feeds during the summer chiefly on berries. The bear is seldom disposed to attack man; yet the female with cubs, or a wounded animal, will rush to an encounter with great fury. The bear dens and commences his winter sleep in December, and creeps forth from his hiding-place in the latter part of March: in the intervening period he eats nothing; but he is said to

suck the thick part of his paw. Their retreats have been found in the winter season, and four animals have been found in a single den. They are very sullen and stupid, and persons who have accidentally fallen into their places of concealment have found them disposed to be on good terms rather than fight: and men are to be found who will voluntarily enter a bear's den and with a long knife attack its inmates. During the summer, bears are sometimes destructive among young cattle, sheep, and hogs; and the Province offers a bounty on every "bear nose."

It is remarkable that the fallow deer (*Cervus Virginianus*) was not seen in New Brunswick prior to the year 1818, at which period wolves also appeared; nor has it yet reached Nova Scotia on its march to the south. This beautiful animal has evidently been driven into the Province by droves of wolves, which are now extending themselves far beyond their former limits. Before the above time, a wolf had not been seen in New Brunswick; but they are now so common, that they sometimes destroy whole flocks of sheep, and even attack the larger stock of the farmer, and the Legislature have offered a high bounty for their destruction.*

In 1845, a wolf was seen in Nova Scotia, on the road between Halifax and Truro; and during the past winter (1846) two have been killed in this Province, and carried through the country for exhibition. The Legislature has now also offered a bounty on every wolf that is killed.

The wolverine or cacajou, commonly called the "Indian devil," is seldom killed, although it follows the tracks of the trappers in the forests, and frequently destroys their game. The Indians are afraid of this animal, and state that when it is hard pressed by hunger, it climbs the trees and springs upon them in a manner that renders them ex-

* In the winter of 1842, I had occasion to make an excursion on the ice of Eel River and its lake, in a sleigh, and there observed the remains of three deer and a cariboo that had been dragged upon the ice and devoured. A pack of eleven wolves crossed the head of the lake during my visit; but the thinness of the ice prevented me from venturing far from the shore, and I could only salute them with a brace of balls, which, from the distance being too great, took no effect. The howlings of these animals around my camp at night were truly terrific.

tremely dangerous enemies. Foxes are very numerous; and although distinctively classed in regard to colour, there is but one kind in which the colour varies from red to black. Red, grey, and black foxes have been seen in the same litter.

Lynxes are less common; yet they sometimes assemble in the hemlock groves in packs. When pursued by dogs, they immediately climb to the tops of the highest trees, where they may be shot. A contest between a wild cat and a porcupine is very amusing: the latter depends upon his bristly armour and the strength of his tail, while the lynx parades around him with great ceremony, ever endeavouring to seize his opponent under the throat.

Otters are frequently killed in moderate weather; during the winter they travel from river to river, over the snow, in quest of fish, of which they destroy great quantities.

The beaver is still found in the remote lakes and rivulets—at the sources of the Miramichi, Tobique, Nepisiguit, and Restigouche Rivers—and they are sometimes taken by the Indians in considerable numbers; but the indiscriminate destruction of old and young, and the cutting away of their dams, has had a very injurious effect upon this valuable race of animals. Muskrats are very numerous in the St. John, and all the quiet streams; and, during the autumn, they erect curious houses of sticks and flags upon many of the bars and low intervals. The Indians derive considerable profit from the sale of their skins.

The deer tribe of North America has been well described by several authors. The graceful forms, strong but light proportions, and great activity of these animals, render them the most noble objects of the chase, and their flesh is esteemed by many as being very delicious. To the backwoodsman or settler they are sometimes valuable, and often supply him with food in his pressing necessities.

The elk, or moose, is the most noble and valuable animal of the genus. It has been stated by some writers, that he does not inhabit any country farther south than the Bay of Fundy: but moose are more numerous in Nova Scotia than in New Brunswick. In the latter Province they are seldom found, except in the western territory—the herds of the east having been destroyed by the early inhabitants. The

ordinary moose stands six feet high, and weighs 1,000 lbs.; the largest are upwards of seven feet high, and will weigh 1,500 lbs.

The *Cervus Tarandus*, or cariboo, are quite numerous; and the flesh, which is not very palatable, is sold in the markets of St. John and Fredericton. Both the moose and the cariboo can be tamed, and taught to draw loads like oxen; and it is singular, that while the inhabitants of the North of Europe have made the reindeer serviceable, he has not been domesticated in America. Although they are exposed to the ferocious wolves, Virginian or fallow deer are very plentiful. They are frequently driven from their folds in winter, and occasionally travel along the turnpikes. In remote and isolated clearings, I have seen them feeding and gambolling in the fields with the domesticated cattle of the farmer. The weasel, which is brown in summer, becomes perfectly white, or of a light cream colour, in winter. The hare also puts on a snowy-white dress; but the mink and otter are of a more glossy black in the cold season than in summer.

BIRDS.

ORDER I.—ACCIPITRES.

Falco

- leucocephalus, L.—Bald Eagle.
- haliætus, L.—Fish Hawk.
- Sparverius, L.—Sparrow Hawk.
- Columbarius, L.—Pigeon Hawk,
- velox, Wilson.—Slate-coloured Hawk.
- borealis, Gmelin.—Red-tailed Hawk.
- hiemalis, Gmelin.—Winter Hawk.

Strix

- flammea, Lin.—Barn Owl.
- nebulosa.—Barred Owl.
- funerea.—Hawk Owl.
- Virginea.—Great-horned Owl.
- Otus, L.—Long-eared Owl.
- Acadica, Gm.—Little Owl.
- nyctea, L.—Snowy Owl.
- Asio, L.—Screech Owl.

ORDER II.—PASSERES.

Tribe 1.—Scansores.

Cuculus

- Americanus, Bonaparte.—Cuckoo.

Picus

- erythrocephalus, L.—Red-headed Woodpecker.
 Carolinus, L.—Red-bellied Woodpecker.
 villosus, L.—Hairy Woodpecker.
 pubescens, L.—Downy Woodpecker.

Tribe 2.—*Ambulatores.*

Alcedo

- Alcyon, L.—Belted Kingfisher.

Sturnus

- Ludovicianus, L.—Meadow Lark.

Icterus

- Phœniceus.—Red-winged Starling.
 Pecoris, L.—Cow Bunting.

Quiscalus

- versicolor, Vieillot.—Grackle.
 ferrugineus, Bon.—Rusty Grackle

Corvus

- Corone, L.—Crow.
 Corax.—Raven.
 cristatus, L.—Blue Jay.

Bombycilla

- Carolinensis, Briss.—Cedar Bird.

Caprimulgus

- vociferus, Wils.—Whip-poor-Will.
 Virginianus, Briss.—Night Hawk.

Cypselus

- Pelagius, Temminck.—Chimney Swallow.

Hirundo

- purpurea, L.—Purple Martin.
 rufa, Gm.—Barn Swallow.
 riparia, L.—Bank Swallow.
 fulva.

Muscicapa

- tyrannus, Briss.—Tyrant Fly-catcher.
 crinita, L.—Crested Fly-catcher.
 rutililla, L.
 virens, L.
 Cooperi.—Olive-sided Fly-catcher.

Lanius

- septentrionalis, Gm.—Butcher Bird.

Turdos

- felivox, Vieill.—Cat Bird.
 migratorius, L.—Robin.
 rufus, L.—Ferruginous Thrush.
 minor, Gm.—Hermit Thrush

Sylvia

- coronata, Latham.—Yellow-rumped Warbler.
 magnolia, Wils.—
 citrinella, Wils.—Blue-eyed Yellow Warbler.
 petechia, Wils.—Yellow Red-polled Warbler.
 pusilla, Wils.—Blue Yellow-backed Warbler.
 solitaria.—Blue-winged Yellow Warbler.

Certhia

- familiaris, L.—Brown Creeper.

Troglodytes

- ædon—Wren.

Sitta

- Carolinensis, Bris.—Nuthatch.
 Canadensis.—Red-bellied Nuthatch.
 varia, Wils.—Red-bellied Black-capped Nuthatch.

Anthus

- spinoletta, Bon.—Brown Lark.

Alauda

- alpestris, L.—Shore Lark.

Trochilus

- colubris, L.—Humming Bird.

Emberiza

- nivalis, L.—Snow Bunting.

Fringilla

- hiemalis.—Snow Bird.
 melodia, Wils.—Song Sparrow.
 Canadensis, Latham.—Tree Sparrow.
 pusilla, Wils.—Field Sparrow.
 passerina, Wils.—Yellow-winged Sparrow.
 illiaca.—Fox-coloured Sparrow.
 tristis, L.—Yellow Bird.
 pinus, Wils.—Finch.
 Cardinalis, Bon.—Cardinal Grosbeak
 purpurea.—Purple Finch.

Pyrrhula

- enuclator.—Pine Bulfinch.
 flamingo, Lath.

Curvirostra

- leucoptera, Wils.—White-winged Crossbill.
 Americana, Wils.—American Crossbill.

Corvus

- Canadensis.—Canadian Jay, or Moose Bird.

ORDER III.—GALLINÆ.

Columba

- migratoria, L.—Passenger Pigeon.
 Carolinensis, L.—Turtle Dove.

Tetrao

- umbellus, L.—Birch Partridge.
 Canadensis, L.—Spruce Partridge.

ORDER IV.—GRALLÆ.

Charadius

- heaticula, Wils.—Ringed Plover.
 pluvialis, Bon.—Golden Plover.
 apricarius, Wils.—Black-breasted Plover.
 calidris, Wils.—Sanderling Plover.
 rubidus, Wils.—Ruddy Plover.

Ardea

- herodius, Wiis.—Great Heron.
 minor, Wils.—American Bittern.

Numenius

- Hudsonicus.—Esquimaux Curlew.

Scolopax

- fedon, Wils.—Great Marbled Godwit.
 gallinago.—Snipe.
 minor, Bon.—Woodcock.
 semipalmata.—Yellow-legged Snipe.
 Noveboracensis, Wils.—Red-breasted Snipe.

Tringa

- pusilla, Wils.—Little Sandpiper.

Rallus

- Virginianus, L.—Virginian Rail.
 Carolinus, Bon.—Rail.

Fulica

- Americana, Gm.—Common Coot.

ORDER V.—ANSERES.

Sterna

hirunda, L.—Great Tern.
minuta.—Lesser Tern.

Larus

Canus, L.—Common Gull.
capistratus.—Grey Gull.

Anus

Canadensis.—Wild Goose.
glacialis, Wils.—Long-tailed Duck.
Americana.—American Widgeon.
sponsa, Wils.—Wood Duck.
marilla.—Scaup Duck.
perspicillata.—Black, or Surf Duck.
discors, L.—Blue-winged Teat.
obscura, Wils.—Dusky, or Black Duck.
histrionica, Wils.—Harlequin Duck.
molissima, Wils.—Eider Duck.

Mergus

gosander, Wils.—Sheldrake.
cucullatus.—Hooded Merganser.

Anser

bernicla, Bon.—Brant.

Podiceps

cristatus, Latham.—Crested Grebe.
minor, Latham.—Little Grebe.

Uria

alle, Wils.—Little Auk.

Sula

Bassana.—Solon Goose, or Gannet.

Colymbus

glacialis, L.—Great Northern Diver.
septentrionalis, L.—Red-throated Diver.

Phalacrocorax

graculus, Dumont.—Shag.*

The whole number of birds that frequent the Province is probably 200; of that number not more than 100 breed in the country, and

* The preceding mammalia and birds have been examined by the Author; but there are a number of birds in the Province that have not yet been captured.

many of them only remain a few days on their annual migratory visits to the north and south.

FISHES.

The following fishes are known to exist. The arrangement is that of V. C. Smith, M.D. :—

CLASS I.—CARTILAGINOUS FISHES.

Order 2.—Cyclostomi.

Petromyzon

marinus.—Lamprey Eel.

fluviatilis.—Freshwater Lamprey Eel.

Carcharias

glaucus.—Blue Shark.

vulpus.—Thrasher.

Raia

clavata.—Thornback.

batis.—Skate.

Order 3.—Sturiones.

Acipenser

sturio.—Sturgeon.

CLASS II.—OSSEOUS FISHES.

Order 4.—Plectognathi.

Ostracion

triquetor.—Trunk Fish.

Order 6.—Malacopterygii-abdominalis.

Salmo

salar.—Salmon.

trutta.—Salmon Trout.

fario.—Common Trout.

huco.—Hunchen Trout; Togue.

Osmerius

eperlanus.—Smelt.

Clupea

harengus.—Herring.

menhaden.—Menhaden.

alsosa.—Shad.

vernalis.—Alewife, or Gaspereau.

minima.—Brit.

Esox

- lucius.—Pickerel.
belone.—Sea Pike.

Cyprinus

- auratus.—Golden Carp.
crysolenas.—Shiner.
atronasus.—Minnow.
oblongus.—Chub.
teres.—Sucker.

Leuciscus

- vulgaris.—Roach.
cephalas.—Small Chub.

Silurus

- Horn Pout.

Order 7.—Malacopterygii Subrachiati.

Gadus

- morrhua.—Common Codfish.
rupestris.—Rock Cod.
arenosus.—Bank Cod.
merluccius.—Hake.
taucâud.—Tom Cod.
fuscus.—Frost Fish.

Brosmus

- vulgaris.—Cusk.

Morrhua

- œglefinus.—Haddock.

Merlangus

- vulgaris.—Whiting.
Polachius.—Pollock.

Platessa

- vulgaris.—Flounder.

Hypoglossus

- vulgaris.—Halibut.

Cyclopteras

- lumpus.—Lump Fish.
minutus.

Order 8.—Malacopterygii-apodes.

Anguilla

- vulgaris.—Eel.

Congor

- muræna.—Conger Eel.

Order 9.—*Acanthopterygii.*

Anarchicas

lupus.—Wolf Fish.

Labrus—Tautog

fusca.

maculatus.

Scorpaena

Porcus.—Sculpin.

gibbosa.

Perca

fluviatilis.—River Perch.

labrax.—Striped Bass.

Bodianus

pallidus.—White Perch.

Cottus

gobio.—River Bullhead.

quadricornus.—Sea Bull.

Scorpius.—Sculpin.

calaphractus.—Armed Bullhead.

Scomber

gex.—Chubbed Mackerel.

vernalis.—Spring Mackerel.

plumbeus.—Horse Mackerel.

Scomber.—Common Mackerel.

thynnus.—Funny.

Chrysotosis

Luna.—Moon Fish.

Xiphius

gladius.—Sword Fish.

Fistularia

tabacaria.—Tobacco-pipe Fish.

Of shells, the number of species collected is 131; crustaceæ, 27. These have been arranged according to the system of Lamarck, by T. A. Green, Esq., of New Bedford, and appear in the Catalogue of the Animals of Massachusetts. The edible kinds have been already noticed.

The principal reptiles are the

Testudo

Scabra.—Turtle.

Testudo

serpentina.—Snapping Turtle.
Pennsylvanica.

Coluber

sirtalis.—Garter Snake.
vernalis.—Green Snake.

Rana

pipiens, L.—Bull Frog.
flavi-viridis.—Spring Frog.

Toads, two varieties.

Salamanders, three varieties.

The insects are very numerous ; but they have never been collected nor arranged. The same remark is applicable to the botany of New Brunswick, and we must refer our readers to other works for an account of the plants of British America.*

* See Edinburgh Cabinet Library, No. IX. ; also, An Historical and Descriptive Account of British America, by Hugh Murray, 1839, vol. iii. p. 304.

NOTES FOR EMIGRANTS.

EMIGRATION.

HOWEVER great may be the difficulties to be encountered by the emigrant in removing from his native land to the forests of British America, and of supplanting the wild woods by cultivation, whence he is to derive his support, he has one cheering fact held out for his encouragement, namely, that all the industrious, frugal, and sober persons who have gone before him have been successful, and that almost every instance to the contrary has arisen from misfortune, sickness, or, what is far more common, idleness, intemperance, or mismanagement.

Thousands of families who have landed in New Brunswick penniless, have, by their own labour, obtained and paid for tracts of land which they now live upon in comfort and independence. This plain fact is enough to show, that the transfretation of the redundant population of the mother-country to the unoccupied lands of her North American Colonies is not only a work of national importance, but also one of exalted benevolence. There should, indeed, be no delay in relieving Great Britain of a superabundant and starving population, while she has millions of acres on this side of the Atlantic that, by the labour of that same population, would afford them subsistence, comfort, and happiness, and by whom the resources of the country would be rendered more generally useful.

The attention of the Government has long been directed to the discovery of a sound system of emigration, and much has been written on the subject; but it is remarkable that no general plan has been followed out, and the practical operations of many apparently judicious schemes have proved to be imperfect. Pauperism, in all its frightful aspects,

still prevails in the United Kingdom, and frequently to an alarming extent; yet still the almost interminable forests that overshadow the fertile lands of British America are scarcely indented, except along the borders of the principal rivers; and even there, the population is often very scanty.

In the Old Country, early marriages are discouraged, because they contribute to an increase of numbers, and, consequently, of misery. In these Colonies they are viewed as being advantageous, from the accession they make to the population; and the birth of a child in the backwoods is hailed with more than ordinary natural joy, because, by the labour of his offspring, the capital of the Colonial settler is increased.

It has been maintained by some, that, under such circumstances, emigration should be conducted at the expense of the Government,—or, at least, that all who desire to remove to the Colonies should be transported gratuitously, and afterwards supplied with provisions for a certain period. To land a body of pauper emigrants upon the shores of America without previous preparation for their future maintenance, would be but to increase their misery, or to throw upon the established inhabitants a burden they would be unable to sustain. Others, again, are of opinion that emigration should go on in the “*natural way*,” and be left to the choice and the unaided efforts of the individuals who embark in it. Emigration conducted by public Companies has heretofore seldom been very successful, and has often been the cause of much disappointment and distress. To supply the settler in New Brunswick with a free passage, necessary implements of husbandry, and provisions until his first crop could be secured, would not be found expedient or politic, and such a system would be liable to many abuses. Such are the frailties of human nature, and the effects of bounties bestowed upon the ignorant of the lower classes, that gifts like these are apt to render them inactive and improvident. So soon as many receive the bounty or gift of the Government, or that of a public Company, they begin to cherish the feelings of the soldier or sailor, who serve and fight for their maintenance; and some really suppose that the hand that freely administered to their wants in the first instance, is bound to supply them in indolence afterwards, or they lose the proper pride and energy so necessary to enable them to provide for themselves.

To this rule there are, indeed, many honourable exceptions; but that the instances of gratitude and actual advantage are sufficiently numerous to recommend the general bounty of the Government to the lower classes of emigrants, is a question worthy of much consideration.

The greatest limits to which the General or Local Government can extend its encouragement to settlers from Great Britain appear to be in the removal of the common obstacles that stand in their way. Before the emigrant leaves his native country or port, he may in some degree be made acquainted with the climate, peculiarities, advantages and disadvantages of the land he desires to adopt as his future home; and thus will he be freed from the disappointments that so frequently follow the representations of persons whose only object is to obtain "passage-money." His passage may be rendered safe and healthy, and protection may be afforded against the impositions of unprincipled and designing speculators. And wherever emigration is carried on upon an extensive scale by a public Company, the freest communications should be made between those who have advanced to and those who intend to remove to the country. Agents should be employed who will devote the whole of their time and attention to the assistance of emigrants at the ports where their arrival is at all numerous; and when, through sickness or any unforeseen cause, they are reduced to a state of distress, the bounty of the Government may be administered to their relief. Every facility should be afforded to enable the emigrant to obtain a lot of land without delay, if he possess the means of paying for it; and the price should never be fixed so high as to check the progress of industrious settlers. The scheme of granting the emigrant an outfit necessary to enable him to commence operations, the amount of which he binds himself to pay by instalments, or at the expiration of a certain number of years, is not politic. In some, this debt depresses the spirits; in others, it is viewed as a demand of the State, which the ignorant seldom feel bound to pay; and the humanity of the Government has ever been too great (and may it ever be!) to allow her officers to strip the shanty and hovel of the backwoods settler for the payment of a few acres of wild land upon which the subsistence of a whole family depends.

Emigration by public and incorporated Companies is very practi-

cable; and the construction of the contemplated railway between Halifax and Quebec, through the central forests of New Brunswick, would open a wide field for the operations of such bodies.

A due regard should always be had to the habits and kind of industry the immigrants have been trained to. Serious blunders have been committed, by locating people who had been brought up to fishing, in the forests remote from the sea,—and also by establishing families who had been bred to husbandry, upon a coast or river, where a part of their subsistence must necessarily be drawn from the water. The adopted home of every family brought across the Atlantic should correspond as nearly as possible with their former residence, and their pursuits should deviate as little as possible from those to which they are accustomed.

Many families of the lower classes of Irish have suffered great hardships upon their first landing in New Brunswick, notwithstanding hospitals are provided for the sick, and the Provincial Government and the inhabitants have been generous in their endeavours to prevent distress. Too often, poor emigrants linger about the sea-ports in the hope of obtaining employment, until all their means are exhausted, and they are reduced to pauperism and led into crime: yet, many such families have fairly begged their way into the country places, and finally become independent and steady settlers.

The above evils might be remedied by the judicious management of an Emigration Company, the chief objects of which should be to transport the poor emigrant to a place where, by his own industry and frugality, he could win a livelihood; but any attempt to hasten his operations by very free advances of money or provisions will generally meet with disappointment. It is the spirit and energy of the settler—it is the hope of final success and independence, that is to stimulate him to exertion, and such as do not possess this necessary ambition are not wanted in the country.

Of the great number of emigrants who land in New Brunswick from the returned timber-ships, only a few remain and establish themselves in the Province, where there are as many advantages for the agricultural or maritime settler as can be found in any part of America. The current of emigration flows into the different parts of the American Continent in proportion to the amount of employment offered to the

labouring classes. A great number of the immigrants into Canada during several past years have found employment on public works. From the great number of public works carried on in the United States by the inhabitants, and by the expenditure of much British capital, employment has been given to thousands of Irish immigrants, who have finally become settlers. The vast sums of money advanced by persons in England to construct canals, railways, and other public works in the Republican States, have not only been the means of extending every kind of improvement in that quarter, but have also increased and strengthened the population of a foreign Power. In New Brunswick there are no public works that require such labour. The chief part of the immigrants that land in the country soon depart for the United States, and the few that remain are of the most indigent class. Thousands of tradesmen who land in the Province also depart to the American towns, where they find employment in their particular occupations. The progress of manufacture in all new countries must be slow; and so long as the price of land remains low, and soil fit for tillage can be obtained by the industry of a labouring man, the price of labour will check manufacturing enterprise. The total number of immigrants that arrive in the Province from Great Britain is about 8,000 per annum: of that number not more than 2,000 become residents. Tradesmen, lumbermen, and farmers also come in from the United States and the neighbouring Provinces. The number of these will not exceed 1,000 per annum. And when there is any check applied to the timber trade, emigration from the Province proceeds rapidly.

The foundation of emigration into the North American Colonies is laid by the first visitors to a district, who, when they are successful, inform their relatives and friends "*at home*," as it is always called, and accessions are made to their numbers yearly. This, and causes before adverted to, has given rise to the floods of emigration that are annually poured into Canada and the United States; but New Brunswick, from being less, or scarcely at all, known in Great Britain, retains but few of the emigrants that land upon her shores, and her population therefore remains too scanty to act efficiently upon her resources.

NOTE A.

Emigration by Incorporated Companies.

WHEN it is intended to promote the work of emigration through the medium of a public Company formed for the purpose, it is necessary that, before any families are sent out from the Old Country for the object of opening a new township, the requisite quantity of land should be carefully selected, and its outlines defined, by some person who is well acquainted with the Province. Application may then be made to obtain the land upon the most advantageous terms, to have the payments made by instalments, and the Company incorporated by an Act of the Imperial Parliament or the Provincial Legislature. The Government have ever been ready to promote immigration upon an extended scale, and little difficulty need be apprehended in obtaining land upon very moderate conditions, and the Hon. T. Bailey, the Surveyor-General of the Province, will be found ready to supply information, plans, and descriptions, to any who desire to obtain lands for actual settlement. The New Brunswick and Nova Scotia Land Company is the only body of the kind who have taken up lands in the Province: they obtained 500,000 acres between the Nashwack and the Miramichi, and at present their settlement is in a flourishing state. The Government will order the required tract to be surveyed; this work should be performed by persons fully competent to the task. The tiers of lots should be laid out with due regard to the physical features of the country, rivers, future roads, and railways. An improper survey will retard the improvement of a whole settlement. The quality of the soil—its timber, fisheries, minerals—the future prospect of a market—the situation of the tract, in reference to water, or railway carriage—its proximity to a seaport, advantages for mills, its intervals, and many other circumstances, must be duly considered. Above all, the quality of the soil must be unexceptionable; and this cannot always be determined by the timber growing upon it, as the primitive wood has, at many places, been destroyed by fire, and suc-

ceeded by trees very different from the original growth. The situation of the settlement having been decided upon, the land surveyed in lots of one hundred acres each, with reserves for religious and educational objects, and the necessary arrangements made with the Provincial Government, a party of emigrants may be sent out and put under the direction of a qualified agent; by whom arrangements will be made for their reception, and to aid them in taking up their lots: provisions, and the necessary quantity of seed, grain, and potatoes, having been procured, according to the circumstances of the immigrants, and the regulations of the Company.

Emigrants who intend to settle in New Brunswick should arrive in the Province about the first of May, if possible; for by clearing away a few trees and some underbrush on their lands in that month and to the 25th of June, crops of potatoes (early bluenoses), turnips, oats, and buckwheat, may be raised in the same season. Time will also be afforded to build comfortable log-houses before the approach of winter. J. G., in the County of Gloucester, took possession of a lot of land on the 16th of May, 1832: in the same season, he cleared ground from which he raised eighty bushels of potatoes, ten bushels of turnips, and ten of buckwheat; with these, and the fish he took upon the shore, and five bushels of wheat, paid for in labour, he maintained his family (a wife and two children), until the second, and a much larger crop, was obtained. In the first year, he built a log-house, and a hovel for a cow, and chopped eight acres; in 1843, he raised eighty bushels of wheat, one hundred of oats, five hundred of potatoes, ten of barley, twenty-five tons hay, kept ten head of horned cattle and two horses, and was in independent and most comfortable circumstances. Many other similar cases might be quoted.

In some districts, wild hay may be procured to supply a few cows with fodder during the winter. In opening a settlement, even upon the most extensive scale, it is desirable that only a limited number of immigrants should at first arrive and commence operations: these should be young single men, or persons with small families; with these there should be a few active men of the Province, or backwoodsmen. After the villages are opened, immigrants may arrive at any time, and

persons who have a capital of £50 may also advance to the settlement at any season of the year; yet the one we have named is the most favourable, as it affords sufficient time to prepare for the succeeding winter. The advanced party, after they have provided shanties for themselves, may be employed by the agent in erecting log-houses and clearing for the Company. Eight men will build a comfortable log-house in two days; the roof will be covered with bark which "peels well in June," or broad cedar shingles, when they can be obtained. A cellar may be dug under the house after it is built, or opened near the cabin, and covered with brushwood and earth. The log-houses are built by felling the trees, (spruce and fir are preferred,) cutting them into blocks from fifteen to twenty-five feet in length, and laying them together with dovetails at the ends; a spacious fireplace is made of stones, when they can be procured, and the chimney is composed of short sticks, thickly plastered with clay mortar: the floor is made, in the first instance, of pieces of wood hewed on the upper side; openings are cut through the logs for a window and a door, and the open spaces or cracks between the logs are carefully filled with moss, and then plastered over with clay.

The New Brunswick and Nova Scotia Land Company offer for sale a great number of lots on their tract near Stanley, and within thirty miles of Fredericton. Lots may be purchased from the Company upon which log-houses have been erected, and clearings of several acres made. Wilderness tracts of one hundred acres each are offered by them for £31 sterling, payable by instalments in eleven years without interest. The lands in general are good, and roads have been opened, in different directions, across them. The Company have a church and resident clergyman, a school, and saw and flour mills, and their lands may be reached in twenty-four hours after leaving St. John.

The following table shows the contents in acres of each county of the Province, the number of acres which have been granted or located by the Crown, and the quantity of land still remaining vacant and at the disposal of the Provincial Government.

COUNTY.	Vacant.	Granted and Located.	Contents.
	acres.	acres.	acres.
Restigouche	1114560	152000	1266560
Gloucester	713440	324000	1037440
Northumberland	2216000	984000	3200000
Kent	552400	354000	806400
Westmoreland	532000	780000	1312000
St. John	126000	288720	414720
Charlotte	480000	303360	783360
King's	244000	605920	849920
Queen's	470000	491280	961280
Sunbury	413000	369080	782080
York	1280000	921600	2201600
Carleton	2088000	504000	2592000
Totals	10129400	6077960	16207360

There are upwards of 20,000 acres of land fit for settlement surveyed in each county. The first six counties border upon the sea, and abound in harbours and fishing stations, and they are well adapted for emigrants from the coasts of Great Britain.

The chief part of the emigrating population are persons without capital, and many of them are very poor. The greatest struggles of these people, in all cases where they have no relatives in the country, are after they arrive and before they can obtain labour or land whereby they can maintain themselves; and being ignorant of the country, its localities and soil, they are unable to select a place of settlement: their choice also is liable to be very injudiciously made. These, and many other evils, would be prevented by a Company, and each individual and his family would be able to proceed immediately to their lands, where they would receive such assistance as would enable them to make themselves comfortable, and to commence the clearing of their farms without delay. Much, however, would depend upon the system of the Company, and the qualifications of the agents employed, who should be well acquainted with the country and its peculiarities.

NOTE B.

Emigration by Associations.

PERSONS who have capital of £25, £50, or £100 each, would find it to their advantage to form an association previous to their embarkation from Great Britain. By it, individuals of the same habits and manners would be united and afford mutual assistance to each other. They might send an agent in advance, to examine and purchase from the Government the necessary quantity of land; and by opening a settlement of thirty or forty families, they would obtain their lands upon more favourable terms, receive a grant from the Legislature to open roads, and an allowance for schools, &c. As soon as the lands have been surveyed, the immigrants have taken possession, and shanties have been built, each settler will commence clearing by felling all but the largest trees, and rolling the logs into piles at the side of his field: the branches, and even the logs, may be burned. Upon the ground thus cleared, potatoes and other vegetables are to be immediately planted: wheat, Indian corn, oats, and buckwheat may be tried, if the season be not too far advanced. If the immigrant take possession of his lot on the first of June, he will be able to clear an acre, including a small kitchen-garden. Thousands of families who have settled upon wild lands in this manner, have, in a few years afterwards, abandoned the shanty of logs and bark, and moved into houses neatly painted; their barns and other outhouses, their live stock, &c., being the best testimonials of their industry, comfort, and independence. In travelling through these new villages, it is common to see a small log-house, and upon the same farm a large framed barn. At the fine springs of water, home-made linen is put out to bleach, stocking-yarn hung out to dry, a large wood pile for fuel, crotch harrows, carts, sleds, a grindstone—all indicating that the inhabitants are people of business “in doors and out.”

The articles required by the “new settler” are a comfortable supply of good clothing, a few culinary utensils, a spade or shovel, a sickle, scythe, the iron part of a plough; twenty-five harrow teeth, each ten inches long; two axes, one plane, three chisels, one drawknife, one

handsaw, one gouge, three augers from $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch to $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inches bore ; one hammer, four gimlets, five lbs. nails, a supply of leather, a few awls, a pair of pincers. He must have ingenuity enough to make shoes and mocassins ; he must be a carpenter, blacksmith, tanner, and cooper ; his wife and daughters must know how to spin, weave, knit, and make clothes—also to cook economically, and manage a dairy ; his son must swing the axe. In every village of ten families, there should be a cross-cut saw and a whip saw : a gun is occasionally useful ; but a hunting farmer is always a poor farmer. The rule should be, to shoot for the pot and fish for the pot. Every settlement should have its fiddler or piper : music, and occasionally a little innocent recreation, cheers the mind of the emigrant amidst his early struggles and privations.

To show the practicability of settlement upon this plan, we might mention numerous instances where the poorest class of Irish emigrants have congregated and squatted upon Crown lands, and after much toil and many privations, they have paid for those lands, and now drive their waggons drawn by fine horses to market ; and besides enjoying the common comforts of life, many of them have considerable sums of money "laid past." The inhabitants of the Province do not, however, desire the farther introduction of this class of emigrants, as occasionally, from idleness and intemperance, they become a burden upon society ; and should they arrive at independence, they assume airs of importance seldom observed among the immigrants from other parts of the mother-country.

The following are the latest regulations for the disposal of the wilderness lands :—

REGULATIONS for the Disposal of Crown Lands in the Province of New Brunswick. (By order of His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, 11th May, 1843.)

WHEREAS it is considered that much expense and trouble will be saved by persons who are desirous of purchasing Crown lands, especially in remote parts of the Province, by authorising local sales thereof to be held in convenient places ; and as it is expedient to prescribe certain regulations respecting applications for, and sales of, such Crown lands ; it is therefore ordered,—

1st. That in future, public sales of Crown lands will be held, as occasion

may require, on the first Tuesday in every month, by a Deputy-Surveyor thereunto specially appointed for each county.

2nd. That all applications be addressed by petition to His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor, and transmitted either by the applicant or through the Local Deputy, under cover, to the Surveyor-General, and accompanied by a Report from the Local Deputy, describing the land, and setting forth whether it is required for actual settlement, together with such other information as he may deem necessary to be communicated.

3rd. That if the application be approved of, and the land applied for be not already surveyed, a warrant will forthwith issue to authorise the survey to be executed, on guarantee to the Surveyor for the expenses of survey, according to such regulations and at such rates as may be prescribed for surveys in the department of the Surveyor-General; and where the applications for land in any locality may be numerous, care will be taken that the charges be proportionately reduced.

4th. That on the return of the survey duly executed, the description of the land, the time and place of sale, and the upset price, will be announced in the Royal Gazette, and also by handbills to be publicly posted in the county where the land lies, at least twenty days previous to the day of sale; and the charges for all such surveys shall be paid down by the purchaser or his agent at the time of sale, in addition to such part of the purchase-money as will be required, or the sale to be deemed null and void.

5th. That if the land applied for should have been previously surveyed, the like notice of the time and place of sale, &c. be forthwith published, and three-pence per acre, survey-money, paid down by the purchaser or his agent at the time of sale, in addition to the part of the purchase-money required as before, or the sale to be null and void.

6th. To facilitate these arrangements, outline maps of the several counties are to be made as soon as practicable, for the use of the Surveyor-General and Deputy-Surveyors, and for the information of the public, on which are to be recorded the situation and limits of the lands when surveyed and advertised for sale.

7th. The upset price of all Crown lands for actual settlement is to be not less than three shillings per acre, exclusive of the charge for surveying the same. Twenty-five per cent. of the sale price to be paid down, and the remainder to be payable in three equal annual instalments, to be secured by bond of the purchaser; each instalment to bear interest at six per cent. per annum, from and after the day the same becomes due. Purchasers who may pay down the full purchase-money at the time of sale will be allowed a deduction or discount of one-fifth for prompt payment.—(NOTE. No person is allowed to hold more than one hundred acres, payable by instalments.)

8th. That in future no consideration or allowance whatever will be made

on account of unauthorised improvements on Crown lands which shall not have been commenced or made on or before the 1st day of May of this present year; but the allotments, with such improvements, will be sold in the same manner as other Crown lands.

9th. That in cases of the sales of land where improvements may have been made prior to the 1st of May, and where the occupier is not the purchaser, the Surveyor-General or Deputy-Surveyor will value the same, subject to an appeal by petition to the Governor in cases of objection to such valuation; and the purchaser shall be required to pay such valuation on the day of sale to the person entitled thereto, or, in cases of appeal, to deposit the same, in addition to the purchase and survey money, as hereinbefore provided.

10th. That all Local Deputies making sales under these regulations be required to make a return thereof (as well as of all instalments received within the previous month for sales formerly made by such Deputy) to the Surveyor-General, within fourteen days after such sales respectively, and of all bonds which he may have taken for securing the payment of instalments.

11th. That every such Deputy be also required to transmit, within fourteen days after such sales respectively, a duplicate of the said return to the Receiver-General, and to remit to him all monies received on account of such sales (and also for instalments on former sales made by him, and surveys made at the expense of the Crown), except the sums paid for surveys and deposited for improvements, of which he is to render an account; and he will be allowed to retain for his remuneration a commission of five per cent. of the purchase-money so received—such per-centage in no case to exceed in the whole the sum of £100 per annum. And the Receiver-General shall, within six days after his receipt of such return and remittance, render to the Surveyor-General a copy of the return duly authenticated.

12th. That where the purchase-money has been paid down under the conditions of the 7th clause, a grant will immediately pass to the purchaser; but in other cases an occupation-ticket will be issued to him on the day of sale, signed by the Surveyor-General: such ticket will not give any power or authority to the occupant to cut and remove from his allotment any timber or logs until all the purchase-money is paid; but all timber and logs so cut shall be liable to seizure, unless paid for according to existing regulations for the disposal of Crown timber and lumber; in which case the amount so paid shall be carried to the credit of the purchaser and towards the liquidation of the instalments which remain due or unpaid for the said allotment.

13th. That every Deputy authorised to perform the foregoing duties will be required to give a bond to the Queen, with two approved securities, in the penal sum of £400, conditioned for the faithful performance of his duty.

14th. That no Deputy shall be permitted, either directly or indirectly, during

the continuance of his official employment, to purchase or be in any manner interested in any Crown lands whatsoever.

15th. That where large parties of settlers may associate and make application for the purchase of tracts of wilderness lands in situations distant from any settlements already formed or in progress, and to which communications may not have been opened through the forest, they will set forth in their petitions, and the Surveyors in their reports, all such particulars; and when the difficulties to be overcome may require greater facilities than are provided for in the foregoing Regulations, the case will be reserved for the special consideration of the Lieutenant-Governor and Council; and when such parties may engage to defray the charges of surveying their locations, and also of the bye-roads required to be opened to and through their settlement, and to which they are willing to apply their own labour, the Deputy-Surveyors will be authorised to execute such surveys. In laying out such locations, the Surveyors are to attend to the 6th clause of the Regulations of the second of December last, in reserving lines of road, and allotments for schools and places of worship, which reserves will not be allowed to be broken or sold.

NOTE C.

Emigration by Individuals or Families.

EMIGRANTS to New Brunswick may be divided into two classes—those who have some capital, and those who upon their landing have no means to support themselves, nor to obtain land. The first will have comparatively few difficulties to encounter. In every part of the Province there are farms for sale, of every description; the prices of which are from £50 to £1,000. Their value is estimated by the nature of the soil, quantity of cleared land, intervals, dike or marshes, proximity to market, pleasantness of situation, and facilities for trade and manufactures. The purchase-money is paid by instalments, and security is held upon the property by mortgage. Any individual with sufficient means may, therefore, establish himself as a farmer; yet there are many circumstances to be considered in the purchase of a farm, and much time may be lost before the purchaser is suited.

Respectable immigrants will not find it to their advantage to take expensive lodgings in the towns; but, rather, they should proceed at once into some country village, and commence an examination of the farms for sale in the district; and they must bear in mind that many of the

people of New Brunswick value themselves for being "keen for a bargain," and some are apt to make the stranger pay the highest price for everything he wishes to purchase. Many persons of ample funds have been ruined by unwise speculation, extravagance, or by what is more common, an attempt to introduce the expensive system of farming in England, where wages are low, into a new country, where labour is scarce and very dear. Indeed, the immigrant who has money is in greater danger than he who has none; one having everything to lose, and the other everything to gain.

Persons desirous of settling upon wild lands should proceed immediately into the interior country after they land, or to the shores if they are destined for the fisheries, where they will always find employment, especially during the summer season. The Deputy-Surveyors in each county will give them information in regard to ungranted lands, which they can visit previous to making a purchase. The improvements of squatters may sometimes be purchased upon moderate terms, and a grant of the land may be taken at the Crown Lands Office upon the payment of the fixed price. The following table is taken from the Official Reports of 1842:—

ABSTRACT OF PERSONS supposed to be settled or squatted on Crown Lands without any authority.

COUNTY.	No.	Acres.	AMOUNT.
Charlotte	142	14,200	£2,130 0 0
St. John.. .. .	62	6,200	930 0 0
King's	145	14,500	2,175 0 0
Queen's	139	13,900	2,085 0 0
Sunbury	95	9,500	1,425 0 0
York	142	14,200	2,130 0 0
Carleton	122	12,200	1,830 0 0
Restigouche	82	8,200	1,230 0 0
Gloucester	199	19,900	2,985 0 0
Northumberland	174	17,400	2,610 0 0
Kent	132	13,200	1,980 0 0
Westmoreland	166	16,600	2,490 0 0
Total	1,600	160,000	£24,000 0 0

Young or unmarried labouring men will always find employment in the Province, and the rate of wages is invariably high; but during a

year or two after their arrival, and before they are made acquainted with the work of the country, their wages are below the ordinary rate. By hiring with a farmer, or embarking as a lumberman, a steady and careful man may, at the end of four or five years, save enough of his earnings to purchase a hundred acres of wild land, and to establish himself upon his own property. In cases of this kind, the settler usually labours with a farmer, or a lumbering party, during the summer, when the wages are high, and improves his own lot by chopping in the winter, until he is able to maintain himself without "working out," when he usually marries. This is the system pursued by the young men of the Province. Young women also find employment, both in the towns and in the country, and their wages are from 10s. to 15s. currency per month. Boys and girls also obtain labour in the country villages.

It has been stated already that the chief part of the immigrants that arrive in New Brunswick are of the poorer classes. They are principally Irish, and the greater number of them proceed to the United States, where they find employment on public works. Those who intend to remain in New Brunswick, upon their arrival should apply to the Emigrant Agent of the Port for advice. Emigrants with families who have no means to obtain land, nor to maintain themselves, except by their labour, should come out under the care and direction of a Company, and not expose their families to want and misery, or throw them upon the charity of the community. There are no persons who are more successful in New Brunswick than steady mechanics. In general their wages are very high, and they have full employment. The following instance is quoted for illustration.

W. S., a tailor from London, of small stature, now owns a snug farm in the County of Albert, ten miles from Shepody. About twelve years ago, he commenced working at his trade, going from house to house in the village: five years afterwards, he purchased from the Government two hundred acres of land, nine miles from any inhabitant, and he carried his first seed, potatoes, and grain into the forest, where there was no road, that distance upon his back. During the five years, his wife and daughter by their industry more than maintained the whole family, and the earnings of S. were devoted to the clearing of his land. I was at this man's house in 1843: his farm was in a good state of cultivation;

he had four cows, one yoke of oxen, six young cattle, a horse, and plenty of pigs and poultry; his house was filled with the best provisions, and he had wheat for sale; upon his shelves there were cheese and numerous large cakes of maple sugar, and he acknowledged that he had put aside a little "cash for a rainy day." He said, independence and contentment had been his motto; he longed to see the steeple of St. Paul's once more, and maintained that after all there was "no place like *Lunnun*, although the forest of Shepody had been good to him." His land is of a superior quality.

Wages in New Brunswick, 1846 :—

Trade or Occupation.	Average Wages per diem, without board and lodging.	Average Wages per annum, with board and lodging.
	Currency. s. d.	£ s. d.
Blacksmiths	5 0	40 0 0
Bakers	3 6	25 0 0
Butchers	35 0 0
Brickmakers	4 6	
Bricklayers	6 3	
Curriers	6 3	
Carpenters and Joiners	5 0 to 6 3	40 0 0
Cabinetmakers	6 3	40 0 0
Coopers	5 0	35 0 0
Cooks (Females)	20 0 per month	
Dairywomen	12 10 0
Dressmakers	1 3	
Farm-labourers	25 0 0
Grooms	25 0 0
Millwrights	7 6	
Millers	30 0 0
Painters	6 3	
Plasterers	6 3	
Shoemakers	40 0 0
Shipwrights	6 3	
Stonemasons	6 3 to 7 6	
Sailmakers	6 3	
Tailors	4 6 to 5 0	
Wheelwrights	5 0	
Whitesmiths	4 0	

Lumbermen and Sawyers receive from £3 to £5 per month, and Foremen of the different branches 10s. per diem.

Prices of Agricultural Produce and Farming Stock in New Brunswick :—

Articles.	Price—Currency.
Wheat	£0 8 0
Barley	0 5 0
Rye	0 5 0
Indian Corn	0 5 0
Oats	0 2 3
Peas	0 8 0
Beans	0 10 0
Hay, per ton (in the country)	2 0 0 to £4 0 0
A good Cart Horse	20 0 0
Saddle Horse	30 0 0
A Yoke of Oxen	15 0 0 to 20 0 0
Sheep, per head	0 10 0
A Milch Cow	5 0 0 to 7 10 0
A breeding Sow	2 0 0 to 3 10 0
Pigs, sucking, each	0 5 0
Farmer's Cart	7 10 0
A Waggon	12 10 0
A Plough	3 0 0
A Harrow (double)	3 0 0
A narrow Axe	0 8 0
A broad Axe	0 15 0
A log Canoe	1 10 0
Beef, per quarter	0 0 4 per lb.
Fresh Pork	0 0 4 „
„ Veal	0 0 3½ „
„ Mutton	0 0 4½ „
„ Venison	0 0 4 „
Butter	0 1 0 „
Eggs	0 0 9 per dozen.

Potatoes usually 1s. 3d. per bushel. In 1845 great quantities were destroyed by the prevalent disease of that year, and the price has been raised in country places to 2s. 6d. per bushel.

The price of clearing an acre of land varies from £3 10s. to £4 10s. currency, according as it may be heavy or light timbered; or for

Chopping	£1 10 0
Piling and burning off	1 0 0
Fencing	1 0 0
	£3 10 0

A man will chop an acre of land in six days.

The price of the labour of a yoke of oxen is 2s. 6d. per day; oxen and driver, 5s.; horses and waggon, 10s. per day.

The prices of British manufactured goods are from 50 to 75 per cent. higher than they are in England. West India produce is comparatively low.

Emigrants are brought to New Brunswick from different ports in Great Britain in the timber ships, of which there are a great number employed in the trade. Before their departure, the time of their sailing and destination are advertised. Emigrants for any part of the Northern Counties or Coast of the Province should ship for Miramichi, Bathurst, Dalhousie, or Richibucto; and all those who intend to remain in the Southern Counties should embark for St. John or St. Andrew's: the neglect of this precaution has involved a number of emigrants in much unnecessary expense in travelling from one place to another. The communication from those places along the rivers in steamboats and towboats to the interior is cheap during the whole of the summer and autumn.

The cost of passages from the following different places is as follows:—

PLACES.	CABIN. Cost including Provisions.		STEEERAGE. Cost with Provisions.		Cost without Provisions.	
	£	£	£ s.	£	£ s.	£ s.
London	15	to 20	6	0 to 7	3	5 to 4 5
Liverpool	12	„ 15	3	10	2	10
Greenock.. ..	15		3	10	2	10
Dublin	13	„ 15	4	10	2	10
Londonderry ..	10	„ 12			2	10
Cork	12	„ 16	4	10	3	0*

The average passage from Great Britain to St. John is forty days; to the Northern Ports, forty-five days.

Passengers are entitled by law to be supported on board the vessel forty-eight hours after their arrival. A tax of five shillings currency is required from the master of every passenger ship for each adult brought from the United Kingdom. Two children between seven and fourteen, and three children under seven years of age, are reckoned as an adult.

* Simmonds's Colonial Magazine.

No fund has ever been provided upon which the immigrant has any claim; he must, therefore, depend upon his own means and exertions after he has landed in New Brunswick. Until he has been some time in the Province, and has made himself acquainted with the labour of the country, his services are not of much value; he should, therefore, be careful not to refuse even very moderate wages at first. Many have suffered severely by holding out for high wages on their first arrival. I have seen hundreds of Irish labourers, whose families were starving, stand idle in the streets of St. John, from week to week, rather than work for less than *sixpence an hour*; and when any individual would engage for a less sum, he was immediately caught and beaten by his companions.

NOTE D.

Currency.

THE pound sterling is *twenty-four shillings and fourpence currency*. The pound currency contains 4 dollars; 1 dollar contains 5 shillings; 1 shilling, 2 sixpences; 1 sixpence, 6 pennies; 1 penny, 2 coppers. The value of the pound currency is about 16s. 5¼*d.*; the dollar, 4s. 1¼*d.*; the shilling, 9½*d.*; the sixpence, nearly 5*d.* sterling. In ordinary dealing in New Brunswick, the current coins of Great Britain are usually paid away at the following rates:—sovereign, 24s. 6*d.*; crown, 6s. 1*d.*; half-crown, 3s. 0½*d.*; shilling, 1s. 2*d.*; sixpence, 7½*d.* These rates are liable to some variation.

The principal Emigrant Agent, M. H. Perley, Esq., resides at the City and Port of St. John. That gentleman is well acquainted with the Province, and assiduous in his duties. The Deputy Treasurers act as agents at the several outports.

THE END.

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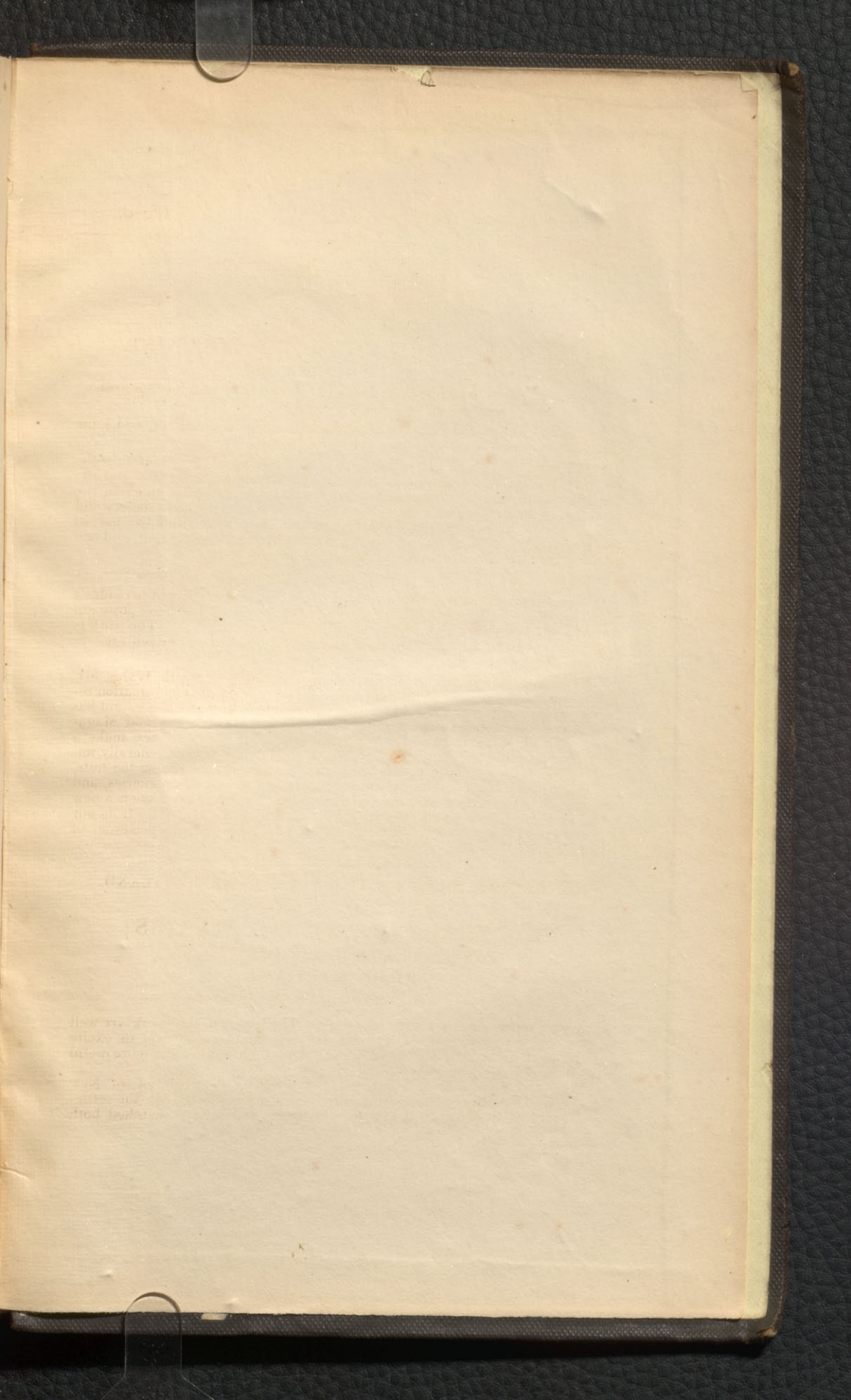
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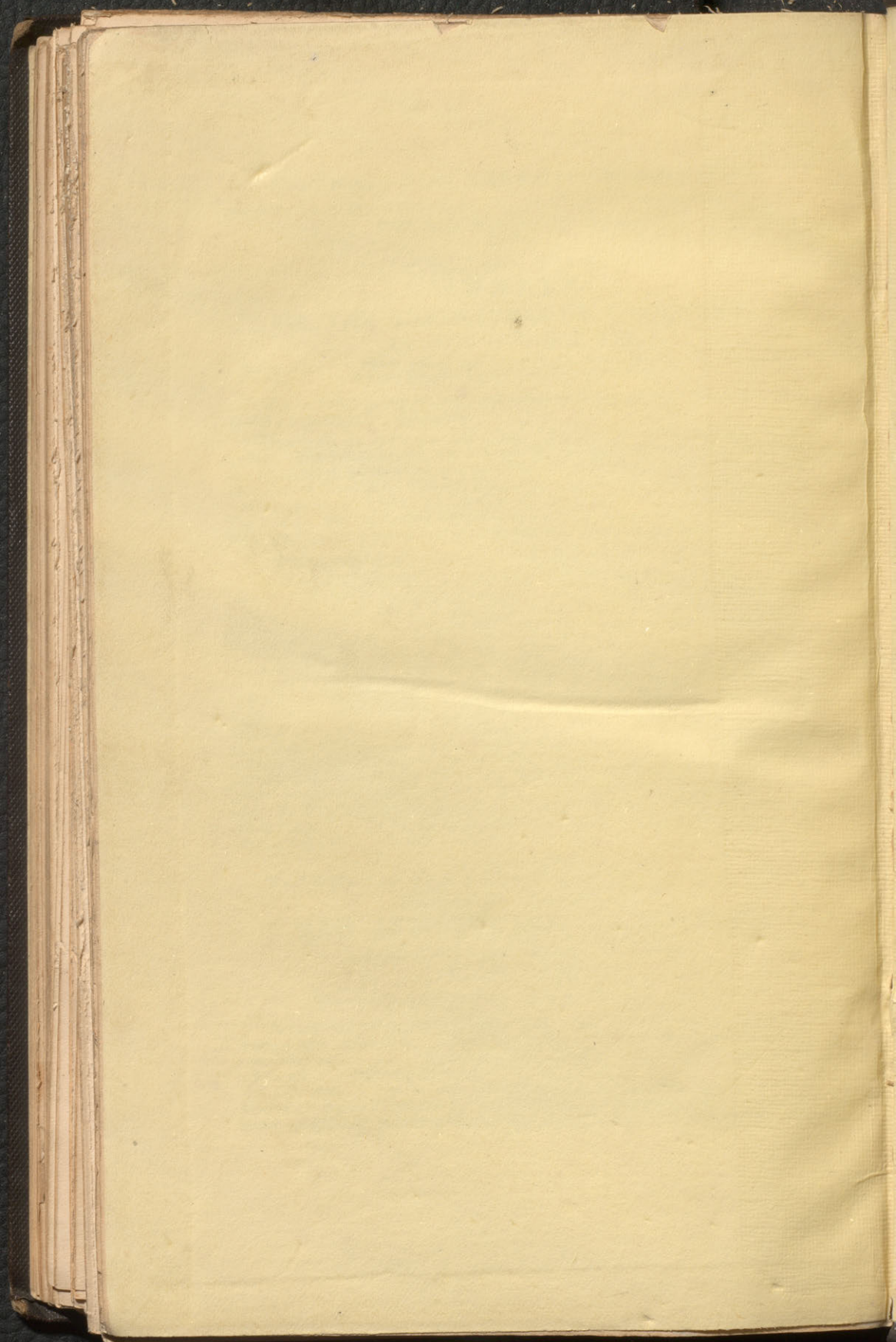
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