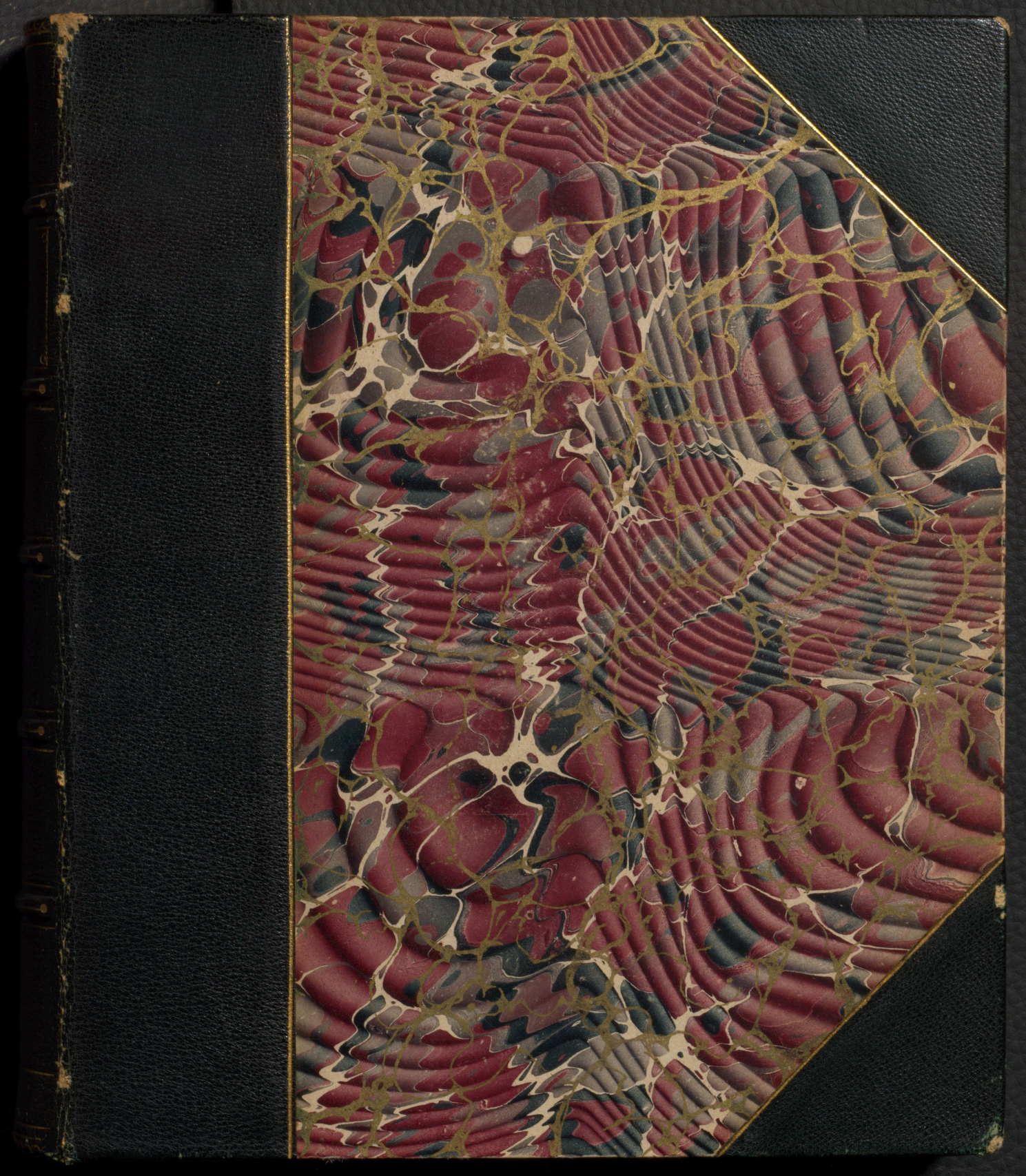


Dr. I. S. H. Fogg.

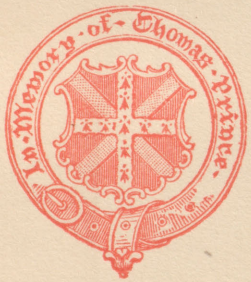
121 Champlain V. 1.

THE

Publications of the Prince Society.

Eſtabliſhed May 25th, 1858.

CHAMPLAIN'S VOYAGES.



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CHAMPLAIN (SAMUEL DE)
d'après un portrait gravé par Moncornet

VOYAGES

OF

SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH

BY CHARLES POMEROY OTIS, PH.D.

WITH HISTORICAL ILLUSTRATIONS,

AND A

MEMOIR

BY THE REV. EDMUND F. SLAFTER, A.M.

VOL. I.

1567–1635.

FIVE ILLUSTRATIONS.

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THE REV. EDMUND F. SLAFTER, A.M.

PREFACE.

THE labors and achievements of the navigators and explorers, who viſited our coaſts between the laſt years of the fifteenth and the early years of the ſeventeenth centuries, were naturally enough not fully appreciated by their contemporaries, nor were their relations to the future growth of European intereſts and races on this continent comprehended in the age in which they lived. Numberleſs events in which they were actors, and perſonal characteriſtics which might have illuſtrated and enriched their hiſtory, were therefore never placed upon record. In intimate connection with the career of Cabot, Cartier, Roberval, Ribaut, Laudonnière, Goſnold, Pring, and Smith, there were vaſt domains of perſonal incident and intereſting fact over which the waves of oblivion have paſſed forever. Nor has Champlain been more fortunate than the reſt. In ſtudying his life and character, we are conſtantly finding ourſelves longing to know much where we are permitted to know but little. His early

early years, the proceſſes of his education, his home virtues, his filial affection and duty, his ſocial and domeſtic habits and mode of life, we know imperfectly; gathering only a few rays of light here and there in numerous directions, as we follow him along his lengthened career. The reader will therefore fail to find very much that he might well deſire to know, and that I ſhould have been but too happy to embody in this work. In the poſitive abſence of knowledge, this want could only be ſupplied from the field of pure imagination. To draw from this ſource would have been alien both to my judgment and to my taſte.

But the eſſential and important events of Champlain's public career are happily embalmed in imperiſhable records. To gather theſe up and weave them into an impartial and truthful narrative has been the ſimple purpoſe of my preſent attempt. If I have ſucceeded in marſhalling the authentic deeds and purpoſes of his life into a complete whole, giving to each undertaking and event its true value and importance, ſo that the hiſtorian may more eaſily comprehend the fulneſs of that life which Champlain conſecrated to the progreſs of geographical knowledge, to the aggrandizement of France, and to the diſſemination of the Chriſtian faith in the church of which he was a member, I ſhall feel that my aim has been fully achieved.

The annotations which accompany Dr. Otis's faithful and ſcholarly tranſlation are intended to give to the reader ſuch information

information as he may need for a full understanding of the text and which he could not otherwise obtain without the inconvenience of troublesome, and, in many instances, of difficult and perplexing investigations. The sources of my information are so fully given in connection with the notes that no further reference to them in this place is required.

In the progress of the work, I have found myself under great obligations to numerous friends for the loan of rare books, and for valuable suggestions and assistance. The readiness with which historical scholars and the custodians of our great depositories of learning have responded to my inquiries, and the cordiality and courtesy with which they have uniformly proffered their assistance, have awakened my deepest gratitude. I take this opportunity to tender my cordial thanks to those who have thus obliged and aided me. And, while I cannot spread the names of all upon these pages, I hasten to mention, first of all, my friend, Dr. Otis, with whom I have been so closely associated, and whose courteous manner and kindly suggestions have rendered my task always an agreeable one. I desire, likewise, to mention Mr. George Lamb, of Boston, who has gratuitously executed and contributed a map, illustrating the explorations of Champlain; Mr. Justin Winsor, of the Library of Harvard College; Mr. Charles A. Cutter, of the Boston Athenæum; Mr. John Ward Dean, of the Library of the New England Historic Genealogical Society; Mrs. John Carter Brown, of Providence,

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dence, R. I.; Miſs S. E. Dorr, of Boſton; Monſieur L. Deliſle, Directeur Général de la Bibliothèque Nationale, of Paris; M. Meſchinet De Richemond, Archiviſte de la Charente Inférieure, La Rochelle, France; the Hon. Charles H. Bell, of Exeter, N. H.; Francis Parkman, LL.D., of Boſton; the Abbé H. R. Caſgrain, of Rivière Ouelle, Canada; John G. Shea, LL.D., of New York; Mr. James M. LeMoine, of Quebec; and Mr. George Prince, of Bath, Maine.

I take this occaſion to ſtate for the information of the members of the Prince Society, that ſome important facts contained in the Memoir had not been received when the text and notes of the ſecond volume were ready for the preſs, and, to prevent any delay in the completion of the whole work, Vol. II. was iſſued before Vol. I., as will appear by the dates on their reſpective title-pages.

E. F. S.

Boston, 14 Arlington Street,
November 10, 1880.

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Engraved Portrait of Champlain on Wood, after the Engraving of Moncornet by E. Ronjat, *heliotype.*

Map illustrating the Explorations of Champlain, *heliotype.*

Engraved Portrait of Champlain, after a Painting by Th. Hamel from an Engraving of Moncornet, *steel.*

Illuminated Title-page of the Voyage of 1615 et 1618, *heliotype.*

Carte de la Novvelle France, 1632, *heliotype.*

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BAY OF FUNDY
ATLANTIC
OCEAN

CALCUL des lieux du Soleil & de la Lune à Paris au temps du paſſage obſervé de la Lune au Méridien, le 16 Novembre 1750, à 15h 14′ 24″ temps vrai, & 14h 59′ 41″½ temps moyen, ſuivant l'équation du temps, priſe d'abord dans la Connoiſſance des Temps, où on la trouve pour cette heure de 14′ 42″½ ſouſtractive.

CALCUL DU LIEU DU SOLEIL.

Moyen mouvem. du Soleil pour 1750. . .	9f	10d	00′	21″
Pour le 16 Novembre.	10.	15.	24.	25
Pour 14h 59′ 41″½	0.	0.	36.	57
Longitude moyenne du Soleil	7.	26.	1.	43
Equation du centre du Soleil	—	1.	19.	57¾
Lieu du Soleil . . . . . ♏, ou	7.	24.	41.	45¼

Moyen mouvem. de l'apogée du Soleil pour 1750. .	3f	08d	35′	55″
Pour le 16 Novembre.	0.	0.	0.	55
. . . . .	0.	0.	0.	0
Longitude moyenne de l'apogée du Soleil. . . .	3.	8.	36.	50
A ſouſtraire de la longitude moyenne du Soleil. .	7.	26.	1.	43
Anomalie moyenne du Soleil.	4.	17.	24.	53

La première équat. du temps. .	—		5′	20″
La ſeconde.	—		9.	27
Equation du temps.	—		14.	47
Temps vrai.	15h		14.	24
Temps moyen corrrigé.			14.	59. 37

Si en 60′ : 1′ 30″ :: 24′ 53″ ! Equation du centre pour 4f 17d . . . . . 1d 20′ 35″
16021 — 0. 37¼
3822
19843 R. 0′ 37″¼ Eq. du cent. pour 4f 17d 24′ 53″.... 1. 19. 57¾

CALCUL DU LIEU DE LA LUNE.

Moyen mouvem. de la Lune pour 1750. . .	6f	08d	16′	19″
Pour le 16 Novembre.	8.	16.	26.	47
Pour 14h 59′ 37″.	0.	08.	13.	54⅓
Longitude moyenne de la Lune.	3.	02.	57.	00⅓
Première Equation.	+	00.	08.	06⅚
Lieu de la Lune premièrement corrigé . . .	3.	03.	05.	07⅙
Seconde Equation	—	00.	03.	13
Lieu de la Lune deuxièmement corrigé. . .	3.	03.	01.	54⅙
Troiſième Equation	+	00.	00.	39⅔
Lieu de la Lune troiſièmement corrigé. . .	3.	03.	02.	33⅚
Equation du centre.	+	06.	16.	28⅓
Lieu de la Lune quatrièmement corrigé. . .	3.	09.	19.	02⅙
Variation.	+	00.	36.	50½
Lieu de la Lune cinquièmement corrigé . .	3.	09.	55.	52⅔
Sixième Equation.	—	00.	00.	41
Vrai lieu de la Lune.	3.	09.	55.	11⅔
Réduction à l'Ecliptique	—	00.	04.	09
Longitude de la Lune. . . . . ♋	09.	51.	02⅔	
Latitude de la Lune auſtrale	0.	01.	35.	34
Demi-diamètre horizontal de la Lune	0.	00.	16.	04⅓
Parallaxe horizontale de la Lune.	0.	00.	58.	14¾

Moyen mouv. de l'apogée de la Lune pour 1750. . .	5f	20d	58′	52″
Pour le 16 Novembre.	1.	05.	39.	04
Pour 14h 59′ 37″.	0.	00.	04.	10⅙
Longitude moyenne de l'apogée de la Lune. . . .	6.	26.	42.	06⅙
Première Equation.	—	00.	13.	44⅓
Lieu de l'apogée de la Lune premièrement corrigé . .	6.	26.	28.	21⅚
Equation de l'apogée	+	09.	01.	37
Vrai lieu de l'apogée de la Lune	7.	05.	29.	58⅚
La plus grande d'entre les 2des équat. du moy. mouv. .	0f	00d	03′	52″½
La plus grande variation.	0.	00.	36.	50⅚
Lieu du Soleil.	7f	24d	41′	45″¼
Apogée de la Lune premièrement corrigé	6.	26.	28.	21⅓
Argument annuel	0.	28.	13.	23⅔
2de équat. du moy. mouv. en ſuppoſ. la plus grande de 3′ 45″. . .	—	00.	03.	07

Ainſi 2′ 45″ : 3′ 7″ :: 3′ 52″¼ : — 3′ 13″ Seconde équation vraie.

60′ : 15′ 10″ :: 13′ 23″ ! R. . . 0d 03′ 23″ 60′ : 2′ 6″ :: 13′ 23″ ! R. . . 0d 00′ 2″
8. 58. 14 7. 09. 0

Equat. de l'apog. . . . + 9. 01. 37 La plus gr. éq. du centre... 7. 08. 4

Lieu de la Lune troiſièmement corrigé.	3f	03d	02′	33″
Apogée.	—	7.	05.	29. 58
Anomalie moyenne de la Lune.	7.	27.	32	35

60′ : [3′ 39″ / 3. 57] :: 32′ 35″ : [1′ 59″ p.r la 3e col. 6d 06′ 33″ p.r la 4.e col. 6d 42′ 32″
2. 08⅓] + 01. 59 + 02. 05⅓
6. 08. 32 6. 44. 4⅓

39′ 30″ : 36′ 10″⅓ :: 8′ 40″ ! . . . . R. . . . . + 07. 56⅓ 6. 08. 32

Equation du centre . . . . . + 6. 16. 28⅓ Différ. . . . 0. 36. 1⅓

Lieu de la Lune quatrièmement corrigé	03f	09d	19′	02″
Lieu du Soleil.	07.	24.	41.	45
Diſtance de la Lune au Soleil.	07.	14.	37.	17

Pour 36′ . . . . . 35′ 59″⅓ ; pour 37′ . . . . . 36′ 59″⅓. Différence. . . . 1′ 0″
Donc pour 36′ 50″⅚ Variation . . . . + 36. 50½

Apogée de la Lune	07f	05d	29′	58⅓
Apogée du Soleil	03.	08.	36.	50
Diſtance des Apogées.	03.	26.	53.	08⅓
Diſtance de la Lune au Soleil.	07.	14.	37.	17
Somme des diſt. de la Lune au Soleil & des apogées...	11.	11.	30.	25⅚

Moyen mouvement du Nœud retr. pour 1750	9f	10d	15′	00″
Pour le 16 Novemb... 16d 56′ 44″ } Somme à ôter.	0.	16.	58.	43
Pour 14h &c. . . . . 00. 01. 59 }				
Longitude moyenne du Nœud	8.	23.	16.	17
Première Equation	+	00.	06.	31⅔
Lieu du Nœud premièrement corrigé.	8.	23.	22.	48⅓
Equation du Nœud	—	01.	14.	27⅙
Vrai lieu du Nœud.	8.	22.	08.	21½

Lieu du Soleil	07f	24d	41′	45″¼
Lieu du Nœud premièrement corrigé	08.	23.	22.	48⅓
Diſtance du Soleil au Nœud	11.	01.	18.	56⅔

60 : [1′ 44″ / 0. 15] :: 18′ 56″⅔ : [32″⅚ / 4⅓]

	1d 15′ 00″	5d 13′ 16″
	— 00. 32⅚	+ 00. 04⅓
Equat. du Nœud....	— 1. 14. 27⅙	5. 13. 20¾ Inclin. de l'orbite.

Vrai lieu de la Lune.	3f	09d	55′	11″⅓
Lieu du Nœud.	8.	22.	08.	21½
Argument de la Latitude	6.	17.	46.	56⅚

R : ſin. hyp. : : ſin. incl. R. ſin. 01d 35′ 34″ Latitude auſtrale.
17d 46′ 50″⅙ 5d 13′ 20″¾

R : tang. hyp. : : coſin. inclin...! R. tang. 17. 42. 41⅙ arc de l'Ecliptique.
17. 46. 50⅙ argum. de la Latit.
— 4. 09. Réduct. à l'Eclipt.

6d 00′ : 6″ :: 3d 32′⅓ ! 3″½	16. 17		16. 19
	— 03¾		— 03½
	16. 13½		16. 15½
39d 30′ : 21″ :: 8′ 40″ : ⅔.	+ 00⅔		16. 13½
Demi-diamètre	16. 14	Différence....	00. 02
Correction..	— 09⅔		
Demi-diamètre corrigé. . . .	16. 04⅓		

6d 00′ : [21″ / 23] :: 3′ 32″⅔ : [12″⅔ / 13⅔]	59. 01		59. 12
	— 12⅔		— 13⅔
	58. 48⅓		58. 58⅔
39d 30′ : 9″¾ : : 8′ 40″ ! . . . . . R.	00. 02⅙		58. 48⅓
Parallaxe horizontale.	58. 50¼	Différ....	00. 09¾
Correction.	— 36		
Parallaxe horizont. corr. . . .	58. 14¾		

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MEMOIR

OF

SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN.

CHAPTER I.

PARENTAGE. — BIRTH. — HOME AT BROUAGE. — ITS SITUATION. — A MILITARY STATION. — ITS SALT WORKS. — HIS EDUCATION. — EARLY LOVE OF THE SEA. — QUARTER-MASTER IN BRITTANY. — CATHOLICS AND HUGUENOTS. — CATHERINE DE MEDICIS. — THE LEAGUE. — DUKE DE MERCŒUR. — MARSHAL D'AUMONT. — DE SAINT LUC. — MARSHAL DE BRISSAC. — PEACE OF VERVINS.

CHAMPLAIN was deſcended from an anceſtry whoſe names are not recorded among the renowned families of France. He was the ſon of Antoine de Champlain, a captain in the marine, and his wife Marguerite LeRoy. They lived in the little village of Brouage, in the ancient province of Saintonge. Of their ſon Samuel, no contemporaneous record is known to exiſt indicating either the day or year of his birth. The period at which we find him engaged in active and reſponſible duties, ſuch as are uſually aſſigned to mature manhood, leads to the conjecture that he was born about

about the year 1567. Of his youth little is known. The forces that contributed to the formation of his character are moſtly to be inferred from the abode of his early years, the occupations of thoſe by whom he was ſurrounded, and the temper and ſpirit of the times in which he lived.

Brouage is ſituated in a low, marſhy region, on the ſouthern bank of an inlet or arm of the ſea, on the ſouthweſtern ſhores of France, oppoſite to that part of the Iſland of Oleron where it is ſeparated from the mainland only by a narrow channel. Although this little town can boaſt a great antiquity, it never at any time had a large population. It is mentioned by local hiſtorians as early as the middle of the eleventh century. It was a ſeigniory of the family of Pons. The village was founded by Jacques de Pons, after whoſe proper name it was for a time called Jacopolis, but ſoon reſumed its ancient appellation of Brouage.

An old chronicler of the ſixteenth century informs us that in his time it was a port of great importance, and the theatre of a large foreign commerce. Its harbor, capable of receiving large ſhips, was excellent, regarded, indeed, as the fineſt in the kingdom of France.[1] It was a favorite idea of Charles VIII. to have at all times ſeveral war-ſhips in this harbor, ready againſt any ſudden invaſion of this part of the coaſt.

At the period of Champlain's boyhood, the village of Brouage had two abſorbing intereſts. Firſt, it had then recently

[1] The following from Marſhal de Montluc refers to Brouage in 1568. Speaking of the Huguenots he ſays: — "Or ils n'en pouvoient choiſir un plus à leur advantage, que celui de la Rochelle, duquel dépend celui de Brouage, qui eſt le plus beau port de mer de la France." *Commentaires*, Paris, 1760, Tom. III., p. 340.

cently become a military post of importance; and ſecond, it was the centre of a large manufacture of ſalt. To theſe two intereſts, the whole population gave their thoughts, their energy, and their enterpriſe.

In the reign of Charles IX., a ſhort time before or perhaps a little after the birth of Champlain, the town was fortified, and diſtinguiſhed Italian engineers were employed to deſign and execute the work.[2] To prevent a ſudden attack, it was ſurrounded by a capacious moat. At the four angles formed by the moat were elevated ſtructures of earth and wood planted upon piles, with baſtions and projecting angles, and the uſual devices of military architecture for the attainment of ſtrength and facility of defence.[3]

During the civil wars, ſtretching over nearly forty years of the laſt half of the ſixteenth century, with only brief and fitful periods of peace, this little fortified town was a poſt ardently coveted by both of the contending parties. Situated on the ſame coaſt, and only a few miles from Rochelle, the ſtronghold of the Huguenots, it was obviouſly exceedingly important to them that it ſhould be in their poſſeſſion, both as the key to the commerce of the ſurrounding country and from the very great annoyance which an enemy holding it could offer to them in numberleſs ways. Notwithſtanding its ſtrong defences, it was nevertheleſs taken and retaken ſeveral times during the ſtruggles of that period.

[2] "La Riviere Puitaillé qui en étoit Gouverneur, fut chargé de faire travailler aux fortifications. Belarmat, Bephano, Caſtritio d'Urbin, & le Cavalier Orlogio, tous Ingénieurs Italiens, préſiderent aux travaux." — *Hiſtoire La Rochelle*, par Arcere, à la Rochelle, 1756, Tom. I., p. 121.

[3] *Hiſtoire de la Saintonge et de l'Aunis*, 1152–1548, par M. D. Maſſion, Paris, 1838, Vol. II., p. 406.

period. It was ſurrendered to the Huguenots in 1570, but was immediately reſtored on the peace that preſently followed. The king of Navarre[4] took it by ſtrategy in 1576, placed a ſtrong garriſon in it, repaired and ſtrengthened its fortifications; but the next year it was forced to ſurrender to the royal army commanded by the duke of Mayenne.[5] In 1585, the Huguenots made another attempt to gain poſſeſſion of the town. The Prince of Condé encamped with a ſtrong force on the road leading to Marennes, the only avenue to Brouage by land, while the inhabitants of Rochelle co-operated by ſending down a fleet which completely blocked up the harbor.[6] While the ſiege was in ſucceſsful progreſs, the prince

[4] The King of Navarre "ſent for Monſieur *de Mirabeau* under colour of treating with him concerning other buſineſſes, and forced him to deliver up Broüage into his hands, a Fort of great importance, as well for that it lies upon the Coaſt of the Ocean-sea, as becauſe it abounds with ſuch ſtore of ſalt-pits, which yeeld a great and conſtant revenue; he made the Sieur de Montaut Governour, and put into it a ſtrong Garriſon of his dependents, furniſhing it with ammunition, and fortifying it with exceeding diligence." — *His. Civ. Warres of France*, by Henrico Caterino Davila, London, 1647, p. 455.

[5] "The Duke of Mayenne, having without difficulty taken Thone-Charente, and Marans, had laid ſiege to Broüage, a place, for ſituation, ſtrength, and the profit of the ſalt-pits, of very great importance; when the Prince of Condé, having tryed all poſſible means to relieve the beſieged, the Hugonots after ſome difficulty were brought into ſuch a condition, that about the end of Auguſt they delivered it up, ſaving only the lives of the Souldiers and inhabitants, which agreement the Duke punctually obſerved." — *His. Civ. Warres*, by Davila, London, 1647, p. 472. See alſo *Memoirs of Sully*, Phila., 1817, Vol. I., p. 69.

"*Le Jeudi* XXVIII *Mars.* Fut tenu Conſeil au Cabinet de la Royne mere du Roy [pour] aviſer ce que M. du *Maine* avoit à faire, & j'ai mis en avant l'enterpriſe de *Brouage.* — *Journal de Henri III.*, Paris, 1744, Tom. III., p. 220.

[6] "The Prince of Condé reſolved to beſiege Broüage, wherein was the Sieur *de St. Luc*, one of the League, with no contemptible number of infantry and some other gentlemen of the Country. The Rochellers conſented to this Enterpriſe, both for their profit, and reputation which redounded by it; and having ſent a great many Ships thither, beſieged the Fortreſs by Sea, whilſt the Prince having poſſeſſed that paſſage which is the only way to Broüage by land, and having ſhut up the Defendants within the circuit of their walls, ſtraightned

prince unwiſely drew off a part of his command for the relief of the caſtle of Angiers;[7] and a month later the ſiege was abandoned and the Huguenot forces were badly cut to pieces by de Saint Luc,[8] the military governor of Brouage, who purſued them in their retreat.

The next year, 1586, the town was again threatened by the Prince of Condé, who, having collected another army, was met by De Saint Luc near the iſland of Oleron, who ſallied forth from Brouage with a ſtrong force; and a conflict ensued, laſting the whole day, with equal loſs on both ſides, but with no deciſive reſults.

Thus until 1589, when the King of Navarre, the leader of the Huguenots, entered into a truce with Henry III., from Champlain's birth through the whole period of his youth and until he entered upon his manhood, the little town within whoſe walls he was reared was the fitful ſcene of war and peace, of alarm and conflict.

But

ned the Siege very cloſely on that ſide." — *Davila*, p. 582. See alſo, *Hiſtoire de Thou*, à Londres, 1734, Tom. IX., p. 383.

The blocking up the harbor at this time appears to have been more effective than convenient. Twenty boats or rafts filled with earth and ſtone were ſunk with a purpoſe of deſtroying the harbor. De Saint Luc, the governor, ſucceeded in removing only four or five. The entrance for veſſels afterward remained difficult except at high tide. Subſequently Cardinal de Richelieu expended a hundred thouſand francs to remove the reſt, but did not ſucceed in removing one of them. — *Vide Hiſtoire de La Rochelle*, par Arcere, Tom. I. p. 121.

[7] The Prince of Condé. "Leaving Monſieur de St. Meſmes with the Infantry and Artillery at the Siege of Brouage, and giving order that the Fleet ſhould continue to block it up by ſea, hee departed upon the eight of October to relieve the Caſtle of Angiers with 800 Gentlemen and 1400 Harquebuziers on horſeback." — *Davila*, p. 583. See alſo *Memoirs of Sully*, Phila., 1817, Vol. I., p. 123; *Hiſtoire de Thou*, à Londres, 1734, Tom. IX., p. 385.

[8] "*St. Luc* ſallying out of Broüage, and following thoſe that were ſcattered ſeverall wayes, made a great ſlaughter of them in many places; whereupon the Commander, deſpairing to rally the Army any more, got away as well as they could poſſibly, to ſecure their own ſtrong holds." — *His. Civ. Warres of France*, by Henrico Caterino Davila, London, 1647, p. 588.

But in the intervals, when the waves of civil ſtrife ſettled into the calm of a temporary peace, the citizens returned with alacrity to their uſual employment, the manufacture of ſalt, which was the abſorbing article of commerce in their port.

This manufacture was carried on more extenſively in Saintonge than in any other part of France. The ſalt was obtained by ſubjecting water drawn from the ocean to ſolar evaporation. The low marſh-lands which were very extenſive about Brouage, on the ſouth towards Marennes and on the north towards Rochefort, were eminently adapted to this purpoſe. The whole of this vaſt region was cut up into ſalt baſins, generally in the form of parallelograms, excavated at different depths, the earth and rubbiſh scooped out and thrown on the ſides, forming a platform or path leading from baſin to baſin, the whole preſenting to the eye the appearance of a vaſt cheſs-board. The argillaceous earth at the bottom of the pans was made hard to prevent the eſcape of the water by percolation. This was done in the larger ones by leading horſes over the ſurface, until, ſays an old chronicler, the baſins "would hold water as if they were braſs." The water was introduced from the ſea, through ſluices and ſieves of pierced planks, paſſing over broad ſurfaces in ſhallow currents, furniſhing an opportunity for evaporation from the moment it left the ocean until it found its way into the numerous ſalt-baſins covering the whole expanſe of the marſhy plains. The water once in the baſins, the proceſs of evaporation was carried on by the ſun and the wind, aſſiſted by the workmen, who agitated the water to haſten the proceſs. The firſt formation of ſalt was on the ſurface, having

a white, creamy appearance, exhaling an agreeable perfume reſembling that of violets. This was the fineſt and moſt delicate ſalt, while that precipitated, or falling to the bottom of the baſin, was of a darker hue.

When the cryſtallization was completed, the ſalt was gathered up, drained, and piled in conical heaps on the platforms or paths along the ſides of the baſins. At the height of the ſeaſon, which began in May and ended in September, when the whole marſh region was covered with countleſs white cones of ſalt, it preſented an intereſting picture, not unlike the tented camp of a vaſt army.

The ſalt was carried from the marſhes on pack-horſes, equipped each with a white canvas bag, led by boys either to the quay, where large veſſels were lying, or to ſmall barques which could be brought at high tide, by natural or artificial inlets, into the very heart of the marſh-fields.

When the period for removing the ſalt came, no time was to be loſt, as a ſudden fall of rain might deſtroy in an hour the products of a month. A ſmall quantity only could be tranſported at a time, and conſequently great numbers of animals were employed, which were made to haſten over the ſinuous and angulated paths at their higheſt ſpeed. On reaching the ſhips, the burden was taken by men ſtationed for the purpoſe, the boys mounted in haſte, and galloped back for another.

The ſcene preſented in the labyrinth of an extenſive ſalt-marſh was lively and entertaining. The picturesque dreſs of the workmen, with their clean white frocks and linen tights; the horſes in great numbers mantled in their ſnowy ſalt-bags, winding their way on the narrow platforms, moving in

in all directions, turning now to the right hand and now to the left, doubling almoſt numberleſs angles, here advancing and again retreating, often going two leagues to make the diſtance of one, maintaining order in apparent confuſion, altogether preſented to the diſtant obſerver the aſpect of a grand equeſtrian maſquerade.

The extent of the works and the labor and capital inveſted in them were doubtleſs large for that period. A contemporary of Champlain informs us that the wood employed in the conſtruction of the works, in the form of gigantic ſluices, bridges, beam-partitions, and ſieves, was ſo vaſt in quantity that, if it were deſtroyed, the foreſts of Guienne would not ſuffice to replace it. He alſo adds that no one who had ſeen the ſalt works of Saintonge would eſtimate the expenſe of forming them leſs than that of building the city of Paris itſelf.

The port of Brouage was the buſy mart from which the ſalt of Saintonge was diſtributed not only along the coaſt of France, but in London and Antwerp, and we know not what other markets on the continent of Europe.[9]

The

[9] An old writer gives us ſome idea of the vaſt quantities of ſalt exported from France by the amount ſent to a ſingle country.

"Important denique ſexies mille vel circiter centenarios ſalis, quorum ſinguli conſtant centenis modiis, ducentenas ut minimum & vicenas quinas, vel & tricenas, pro ſalis ipſius candore puritateque, libras pondo pendentibus. ſena igitur illa centenariorum millia, computatis in ſingulos aureis nummis tricenis, centum & octoginta referunt aureorum millia." — *Belgicæ Deſcriptio*, a Lud. Gvicciardino, Amſtelodami, 1652, p. 244.

TRANSLATION. — They import in fine 6000 centenarii of ſalt, each one of which contains 100 buſhels, weighing at leaſt 225 or 230 pounds, according to the purity and whiteneſs of the ſalt; therefore ſix thouſand centenarii, computing each at thirty golden nummi, amount to 180,000 aurei.

It may not be eaſy to determine the value of this importation in money, ſince the value of gold is conſtantly changing, but the quantity imported may be readily determined, which was according to the above ſtatement, 67,500 tons.

A

The early years of Champlain were of neceſſity intimately aſſociated with the ſtirring ſcenes thus preſented in this proſperous little ſeaport. As we know that he was a careful obſerver, endowed by nature with an active temperament and an unuſual degree of practical ſenſe, we are ſure that no event eſcaped his attention, and that no myſtery was permitted to go unſolved. The military and commercial enterpriſe of the place brought him into daily contact with men of the higheſt character in their departments. The ſalt-factors of Brouage were perſons of experience and activity, who knew their buſineſs, its methods, and the markets at home and abroad. The fortreſs was commanded by diſtinguiſhed officers of the French army, and was a rendezvous of the young nobility; like other ſimilar places, a training-ſchool for military command. In this aſſociation, whether near or remote, young Champlain, with his eagle eye and quick ear, was receiving leſſons and influences which were daily ſhaping his unfolding capacities, and gradually compacting and cryſtallizing them into the firmneſs and ſtrength of character which he ſo largely diſplayed in after years.

His education, ſuch as it was, was of courſe obtained during this period. He has himſelf given us no intimation of its

A treaty of April 30, 1527, between Francis I. of France and Henry VIII. of England, provided as follows: — "And, beſides, ſhould furniſh unto the ſaid *Henry*, as long as hee lived, yearly, of the Salt of *Broüage*, the value of fifteene thouſand Crownes."—*Life and Raigne of Henry VIII.*, by Lord Herbert of Cherbury, London, 1649, p. 206.

Saintonge continued for a long time to be the ſource of large exports of ſalt. De Witt, writing about the year 1658, ſays they received in Holland of "ſalt, yearly, the lading of 500 or 600 ſhips, exported from Rochel, Maran, Brouage, the Iſland of Oleron, and Ree."—*Republick of Holland*, by John De Witt, London, 1702, p. 271. But it no longer holds the pre-eminence which it did three centuries ago. Saintonge long ſince yielded the palm to Brittany.

its character or extent. A careful examination of his numerous writings will, however, render it obvious that it was limited and rudimentary, ſcarcely extending beyond the fundamental branches which were then regarded as neceſſary in the ordinary tranſactions of buſineſs. As the reſult of inſtruction or aſſociation with educated men, he attained to a good general knowledge of the French language, but was never nicely accurate or eminently ſkilful in its uſe. He evidently gave ſome attention in his early years to the ſtudy and practice of drawing. While the ſpecimens of his work that have come down to us are marked by grave defects, he appears nevertheleſs to have acquired facility and ſome ſkill in the art, which he made exceedingly uſeful in the illuſtration of his diſcoveries in the new world.

During Champlain's youth and the earlier years of his manhood, he appears to have been engaged in practical navigation. In his addreſs to the Queen [10] he ſays, "this is the art which in my early years won my love, and has induced me to expoſe myself almoſt all my life to the impetuous waves of the ocean." That he began the practice of navigation at an early period may likewiſe be inferred from the fact that in 1599 he was put in command of a large French ſhip of 500 tons, which had been chartered by the Spaniſh authorities for a voyage to the Weſt Indies, of which we ſhall ſpeak more particularly in the ſequel. It is obvious that he could not have been intruſted with a command ſo difficult and of ſo great reſponſibility without practical experience in navigation; and, as it will appear hereafter that he was in the

[10] Vide *Œuvres de Champlain*, Quebec ed., Tom. III. p. v.

the army ſeveral years during the civil war, probably from 1592 to 1598, his experience in navigation muſt have been obtained anterior to that, in the years of his youth and early manhood.

Brouage offered an excellent opportunity for ſuch an employment. Its port was open to the commerce of foreign nations, and a large number of veſſels, as we have already ſeen, was employed in the yearly diſtribution of the ſalt of Saintonge, not only in the ſeaport towns of France, but in England and on the Continent. In theſe coaſting expeditions, Champlain was acquiring ſkill in navigation which was to be of very great ſervice to him in his future career, and likewiſe gathering up rich ſtores of experience, coming in contact with a great variety of men, obſerving their manners and cuſtoms, and quickening and ſtrengthening his natural taſte for travel and adventure. It is not unlikely that he was, at leaſt during ſome of theſe years, employed in the national marine, which was fully employed in guarding the coaſt againſt foreign invaſion, and in reſtraining the power of the Huguenots, who were firmly ſeated at Rochelle with a ſufficient naval force to give annoyance to their enemies along the whole weſtern coaſt of France.

In 1592, or ſoon after that date, Champlain was appointed quarter-maſter in the royal army in Brittany, diſcharging the office ſeveral years, until, by the peace of Vervins, in 1598, the authority of Henry IV. was firmly eſtabliſhed throughout the kingdom. This war in Brittany conſtituted the cloſing ſcene of that mighty ſtruggle which had been agitating the nation, waſting its reſources and its beſt blood for more than half a century. It began in its incipient ſtages as far back

back as the decade following 1530, when the preaching of Calvin in the Kingdom of Navarre began to make known his tranſcendent power. The new faith, which was making rapid ſtrides in other countries, eaſily awakened the warm heart and active temperament of the French. The principle of private judgment which lies at the foundation of Proteſtant teaching, its ſpontaneity as oppoſed to a faith impoſed by authority, commended it eſpecially to the learned and thoughtful, while the ſame principle awakened the quick and impulſive nature of the maſſes. The effort to put down the movement by the extermination of thoſe engaged in it, proved not only unſucceſsful, but recoiled, as uſual in ſuch caſes, upon the hand that ſtruck the blow. Confiſcations, impriſonments, and the ſtake daily increaſed the number of thoſe which theſe ſevere meaſures were intended to diminiſh. It was impoſſible to mark its progreſs. When at intervals all was calm and placid on the ſurface, at the ſame time, down beneath, where the eye of the detective could not penetrate, in the cloſet of the ſcholar and at the fireſide of the artiſan and the peaſant, the new goſpel, ſilently and without obſervation, was ſpreading like an all-pervading leaven.[11]

In 1562, the repreſſed forces of the Huguenots could no longer be reſtrained, and, burſting forth, aſſumed the form of

[11] In 1558, it was eſtimated that there were already 400,000 perſons in France who were declared adherents of the Reformation. — *Ranke's Civil Wars in France*, Vol. I., p. 234.

"Although our aſſemblies were moſt frequently held in the depth of midnight, and our enemies very often heard us paſſing through the ſtreet, yet ſo it was, that God bridled them in ſuch manner that we were preſerved under His protection." — *Bernard Paliſſy*, 1580. *Vide Morlay's Life of Paliſſy*, Vol. II., p. 274.

When Henry IV. beſieged Paris, its population was more than 200,000. — *Malte-Brun.*

of organized civil war. With the exception of temporary lulls, originating in policy or exhauſtion, there was no ceſſation of arms until 1598. Although it is uſually and perhaps beſt deſcribed as a religious war, the ſtruggle was not altogether between the Catholic and the Huguenot or Proteſtant. There were many other elements that came in to give their coloring to the conteſt, and eſpecially to determine the courſe and policy of individuals.

The ultra-Catholic deſired to maintain the old faith with all its ancient preſtige and power, and to cruſh out and exclude every other. With this party were found the court, certain ambitious and powerful families, and nearly all the officials of the church. In cloſe alliance with it were the Roman Pontiff, the King of Spain, and the Catholic princes of Germany.

The Huguenots deſired what is commonly known as liberty of conſcience; or, in other words, freedom to worſhip God according to their own views of the truth, without interference or reſtriction. And in cloſe alliance with them were the Queen of England and the Proteſtant princes of Germany.

Perſonal motives, irreſpective of principle, united many perſons and families with either of theſe great parties which ſeemed moſt likely to ſubſerve their private ambitions. The feudal ſyſtem was nearly extinct in form, but its ſpirit was ſtill alive. The nobles who had long held ſway in ſome of the provinces of France deſired to hold them as diſtinct and ſeparate governments, and to tranſmit them as an inheritance to their children. This motive often determined their political aſſociation.

During

During moſt of the period of this long civil war, Catherine de Médicis [12] was either regent or in the exerciſe of a controlling influence in the government of France. She was a woman of commanding perſon and extraordinary ability, ſkilful in intrigue, without conſcience and without perſonal religion. She heſitated at no crime, however black, if through it ſhe could attain the objects of her ambition. Neither of her three ſons, Francis, Charles, and Henry, who came ſucceſſively to the throne, left any legal heir to ſucceed him. The ſucceſſion became, therefore, at an early period, a queſtion of great intereſt. If not the potent cauſe, it was nevertheleſs intimately connected with moſt of the bloodſhed of that bloody period.

A ſolemn league was entered into by a large number of the ultra-Catholic nobles to ſecure two avowed objects, the ſucceſſion of a Catholic prince to the throne, and the utter extermination of the Huguenots. Henry, King of Navarre, afterwards Henry IV. of France, admitted to be the legal heir to the throne, was a Proteſtant, and therefore by the decree of the League diſqualified to ſucceed. Around his ſtandard, the Huguenots rallied in great numbers. With him were aſſociated the princes of Condé, of royal blood, and many other diſtinguiſhed nobles. They contended for the double purpoſe of ſecuring the throne to its rightful heir and of emancipating and eſtabliſhing the Proteſtant faith.

But there was another claſs, acting indeed with one or the other

[12] "Catherine de Médicis was of a large and, at the ſame time, firm and powerful figure; her countenance had an olive tint, and her prominent eyes and curled lip reminded the ſpectator of her great uncle, Leo X."— *Civil Wars in France*, by Leopold Ranke, London, 1852, p. 28.

other of theſe two great parties, nevertheleſs influenced by very different motives. It was compoſed of moderate Catholics, who cared little for the political ſchemes and civil power of the Roman Pontiff, who dreaded the encroachments of the King of Spain, who were firmly patriotic and deſired the aggrandizement and glory of France.

The ultra-Catholic party was, for a long period, by far the moſt numerous and the more powerful; but the Huguenots were ſufficiently ſtrong to keep up the ſtruggle with varying ſucceſs for nearly forty years.

After the alliance of Henry of Navarre with Henry III. againſt the League, the moderate Catholics and the Huguenots were united and fought together under the royal ſtandard until the cloſe of the war in 1598.

Champlain was perſonally engaged in the war in Brittany for ſeveral years. This province on the weſtern coast of France, conſtituting a tongue of land jutting out as it were into the ſea, iſolated and remote from the great centres of the war, was among the laſt to ſurrender to the arms of Henry IV. The Huguenots had made but little progreſs within its borders. The Duke de Mercœur[13] had been its governor for ſixteen years, and had bent all his energies to ſeparate

[18] Philippe Emanuel de Lorraine, Duc de Mercœur, born at Nomény, September 9, 1558, was the ſon of Nicolas, Count de Vaudemont, by his ſecond wife, Jeanne de Savoy, and was half-brother of Queen Louiſe, the wife of Henry III. He was made governor of Brittany in 1582. He embraced the party of the League before the death of Henry III., entered into an alliance with Philip II., and gave the Spaniards poſſeſſion of the port of Blavet in 1591. He made his ſubmiſſion to Henry IV. in 1598, on which occaſion his only daughter Françoiſe, probably the richeſt heireſs in the kingdom, was contracted in marriage to Céſar, Duc de Vendôme, the illegitimate ſon of Henry IV. by Gabrielle d'Eſtrées, the Ducheſs de Beaufort. The Duc de Mercœur died at Nuremburg, February 19, 1602. —*Vide Birch's Memoirs of Queen Elizabeth*, Vol. I., p. 82; *Davila's His. Civil Warres of France*, p. 1476.

ſeparate it from France, organize it into a diſtinct kingdom, and tranſmit its ſceptre to his own family.

Champlain informs us that he was quarter-maſter in the army of the king under Marſhal d'Aumont, de Saint Luc, and Marshal de Briſſac, diſtinguiſhed officers of the French army, who had been ſucceſſively in command in that province for the purpoſe of reducing it into obedience to Henry IV.

Marſhal d'Aumont[14] took command of the army in Brittany in 1592. He was then ſeventy years of age, an able and patriotic officer, a moderate Catholic, and an uncompromiſing foe of the League. He had expreſſed his ſympathy for Henry IV. a long time before the death of Henry III., and when that event occurred he immediately eſpouſed the cauſe of the new monarch, and was at once appointed to the command

[14] Jean d'Aumont, born in 1522, a Marſhal of France who ſerved under ſix kings, Francis I., Henry II., Francis II., Charles IX., Henry III., and Henry IV. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the battles of Dreux, Saint-Denis, Montcontour, and in the famous ſiege of Rochelle in 1573. After the death of Henry III., he was the firſt to recognize Henry IV., whom he ſerved with the ſame zeal as he had his five predeceſſors. He took part in the brilliant battle of Arques in 1589. In the following year, he ſo diſtinguiſhed himſelf at Ivry that Henry IV., inviting him to ſup with him after this memorable battle, addreſſed to him theſe flattering words, "Il eſt juſte que vous ſoyez du feſtin, après m'avoir ſi bien ſervi à mes noces." At the ſiege of the Château de Camper, in Upper Brittany, he received a muſket ſhot which fractured his arm, and died of the wound on the 19th of Auguſt, 1595, at the age of ſeventy-three years. "Ce grand capitaine qui avoit ſi bien merité du Roi et de la nation, emporta dans le tombeau les regrets des Officiers & des ſoldats, qui pleurerent amérement la perte de leur Général. La Bretagne qui le regardoit comme ſon pere, le Roi, tout le Royaume enfin, furent extremêment touchez de ſa mort. Malgré la haine mutuelle des factions qui diviſoient la France, il étoit ſi eſtimé dans les deux partis, que ſ'il ſe fût agi de trouver un chevalier François ſans reproche, tel que nos peres en ont autrefois eu, tout le monde auroit jetté les yeux ſur d'Aumont." — *Hiſtoire Univerſelle de Jacque-Auguſte de Thou*, à Londres, 1734, Tom. XII., p. 446. *Vide* alſo, *Larouſſe; Camden's His. Queen Elizabeth*, London, 1675, pp. 486, 487; *Memoirs of Sully*, Philadelphia, 1817, pp. 122, 210; *Œuvres de Brantôme*, Tom. IV., pp. 46–49; *Histoire de Bretagne*, par M. Daru, Paris, 1826, Vol. III. p. 319; *Freer's His. Henry IV.*, Vol. II., p. 70.

command of one of the three great diviſions of the French army. He received a wound at the ſiege of the Château de Camper, in Brittany, of which he died on the 19th of Auguſt, 1595.

De Saint Luc, already in the ſervice in Brittany, as lieutenant-general under D'Aumont, continued, after the death of that officer, in ſole command.[15] He raiſed the ſiege of the Château de Camper after the death of his ſuperior, and proceeded to capture ſeveral other poſts, marching through the lower part of the province, repreſſing the licenſe of the ſoldiery, and introducing order and diſcipline. On the 5th of September, 1596, he was appointed grand-maſter of the artillery of France, which terminated his ſpecial ſervice in Brittany.

The king immediately appointed in his place Marſhal de Briſſac,[16] an officer of broad experience, who added other great

[15] François d'Eſpinay de Saint-Luc, ſometimes called *Le Brave Saint Luc*, was born in 1554, and was killed at the battle of Amiens on the 8th of September, 1597. He was early appointed governor of Saintonge, and of the Fortreſs of Brouage, which he ſucceſsfully defended in 1585 againſt the attack of the King of Navarre and the Prince de Condé. He aſſiſted at the battle of Coutras in 1587. He ſerved as a lieutenant-general in Brittany from 1592 to 1596. In 1594, he planned with Briſſac, his brother-in-law, then governor of Paris for the League, for the ſurrender of Paris to Henry IV. For this he was offered the baton of a Marſhal of France by the king, which he modeſtly declined, and begged that it might be given to Briſſac. In 1578, through the influence or authority of Henry III., he married the heireſs, Jeanne de Coſſe-Briſſac, ſiſter of Charles de Coſſe-Briſſac, mentioned in note 16, *poſtea*, a lady of no perſonal attractions, but of excellent underſtanding and character. — *Vide Courcelles' Hiſtoire Généalogique des Pairs de France*, Vol. II.; *Birch's Memoirs of Queen Elizabeth*, Vol. I., pp. 163, 191; *Freer's Henry III.*, p. 162; *De Mezeray's His. France*, 1683, p. 861.

[16] Charles de Coſſe-Briſſac, a Marſhal of France and governor of Angiers. He was a member of the League as early as 1585. He conceived the idea of making France a republic after the model of ancient Rome. He laid his views before the chief Leaguers but none of them approved his plan. He delivered up Paris, of which he was governor, to Henry IV. in 1594, for which he received the Marſhal's baton. He died in 1621, at

great qualities to thoſe of an able ſoldier. No diſtinguiſhed battles ſignalized the remaining months of the civil war in this province. The exhauſted reſources and faltering courage of the people could no longer be ſuſtained by the flatteries or promiſes of the Duke de Mercœur. Wherever the ſquadrons of the marſhal made their appearance the flag of truce was raiſed, and town, city, and fortreſs vied with each other in their haſte to bring their enſigns and lay them at his feet.

On the ſeventh of June, 1598, the peace of Vervins was publiſhed in Paris, and the kingdom of France was a unit, with the general ſatisfaction of all parties, under the able, wiſe, and catholic ſovereign, Henry the Fourth.[17]

CHAPTER II.

at the ſiege of Saint Jean d'Angely.—*Vide Davila*, pp. 538, 584, 585; *Sully*, Philadelphia, 1817, Vol. I., p. 420; *Brantôme*, Vol. III., p. 84; *His. Collections*, London, 1598, p. 35; *De Thou*, a Londres, 1724, Tome XII., p. 449.

[17] "By the Articles of this Treaty the king was to reſtore the County of *Charolois* to the king of *Spain*, to be by him held of the Crown of *France;* who in exchange reſtor'd the towns of *Calice*, *Ardres*, *Montbulin*, *Dourlens*, *la Capelle*, and *le Catelet* in *Picardy*, and *Blavet* in *Britanny:* which Articles were Ratifi'd and Sign'd by his Majeſty the eleventh of June [1598]; who in his gayety of humour, at ſo happy a concluſion, told the Duke of *Eſpernon*, *That with one daſh of his Pen he had done greater things, than he could of a long time have perform'd with the beſt Swords of his Kingdom.*"—*Life of the Duke of Eſpernon*, London, 1670, p. 203; *Hiſtoire du Roy Henry le Grand*, par Prefixe, Paris, 1681, p. 243.

CHAPTER II.

QUARTER-MASTER. — VISIT TO WEST INDIES, SOUTH AMERICA, MEXICO. — HIS REPORT. — SUGGESTS A SHIP CANAL. — VOYAGE OF 1603. — EARLIER VOYAGES. — CARTIER, DE LA ROQUE, MARQUIS DE LA ROCHE, SIEUR DE CHAUVIN, DE CHASTES. — PRELIMINARY VOYAGE. — RETURN TO FRANCE. — DEATH OF DE CHASTES. — SIEUR DE MONTS OBTAINS A CHARTER, AND PREPARES FOR AN EXPEDITION TO CANADA.

THE ſervice of Champlain as quarter-maſter in the war in Brittany commenced probably with the appointment of Marſhal d'Aumont to the command of the army in 1592, and, if we are right in this conjecture, it covered a period of not far from ſix years. The activity of the army, and the difficulty of obtaining ſupplies in the general deſtitution of the province, impoſed upon him conſtant and perplexing duty. But in the midſt of his embarraſſments he was gathering up valuable experience, not only relating to the conduct of war, but to the tranſactions of buſineſs under a great variety of forms. He was brought into cloſe and intimate relations with men of character, ſtanding, and influence. The knowledge, diſcipline, and ſelf-control of which he was daily becoming maſter were unconſciouſly fitting him for a career, humble though it might ſeem in its ſeveral ſtages, but nevertheleſs noble and potent in its relations to other generations.

At the cloſe of the war, the army which it had called into exiſtence was diſbanded, the ſoldiers departed to their homes, the office of quarter-maſter was of neceſſity vacated, and Champlain was left without employment.

Caſting

Caſting about for ſome new occupation, following his inſtinctive love of travel and adventure, he conceived the idea of attempting an exploration of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, with the purpoſe of bringing back a report that should be uſeful to France. But this was an enterpriſe not eaſy either to inaugurate or carry out. The colonial eſtabliſhments of Spain were at that time hermetically ſealed againſt all intercourſe with foreign nations. Armed ſhips, like watch-dogs, were ever on the alert, and foreign merchantmen entered their ports only at the peril of confiſcation. It was neceſſary for Spain to ſend out annually a fleet, under a convoy of ſhips of war, for the tranſportation of merchandiſe and ſupplies for the colonies, returning laden with cargoes of almoſt priceleſs value. Champlain, fertile in expedient, propoſed to himſelf to viſit Spain, and there form ſuch acquaintances and obtain ſuch influence as would ſecure to him in ſome way a paſſage to the Indies in this annual expedition.

The Spaniſh forces, allies of the League in the late war, had not yet departed from the coaſt of France. He haſtened to the port of Blavet,[18] where they were about to embark, and learned to his ſurpriſe and gratification that ſeveral French ſhips had been chartered, and that his uncle, a diſtinguiſhed French mariner, commonly known as the *Provençal Cappitaine*, had received orders from Marſhal de Briſſac to conduct the fleet, on which the garriſon of Blavet was embarked, to Cadiz in Spain. Champlain eaſily arranged to accompany his

[18] Blavet was ſituated at the mouth of the River Blavet, on the ſouthern coaſt of Brittany. Its occupation had been granted to the Spaniſh by the Duke de Mercœur during the civil war, and, with other places held by the Spaniſh, was ſurrendered by the treaty of Vervins, in June, 1598. It was rebuilt and fortified by Louis XIII., and is now known as Port Louis.

his uncle, who was in command of the "St. Julian," a ſtrong, well-built ſhip of five hundred tons.

Having arrived at Cadiz, and the object of the voyage having been accompliſhed, the French ſhips were diſmiſſed, with the exception of the "St. Julian," which was retained, with the Provincial Captain, who had accepted the office of pilot-general for that year, in the ſervice of the King of Spain.

After lingering a month at Cadiz, they proceeded to St. Lucar de Barameda, where Champlain remained three months, agreeably occupied in making obſervations and drawings of both city and country, including a viſit to Seville, ſome fifty miles in the interior.

In the mean time, the fleet for the annual viſit to the Weſt Indies, to which we have already alluded, was fitting out at Saint Lucar, and about to ſail under the command of Don Franciſco Colombo, who, attracted by the ſize and good ſailing qualities of the "Saint Julian," chartered her for the voyage. The ſervices of the pilot-general were required in another direction, and, with the approbation of Colombo, he gave the command of the "Saint Julian" to Champlain. Nothing could have been more gratifying than this appointment, which aſſured to Champlain a viſit to the more important Spaniſh colonies under the moſt favorable circumſtances.

He accordingly ſet ſail with the fleet, which left Saint Lucar at the beginning of January, 1599.

Paſſing the Canaries, in two months and ſix days they ſighted the little iſland of Deſeada,[19] the *veſtibule* of the great

[19] *Deſeada*, ſignifying in Spaniſh the deſired land.

great Caribbean archipelago, touched at Guadaloupe, wound their way among the group called the Virgins, turning to the ſouth made for Margarita,[20] then famous for its pearl fiſheries, and from thence ſailed to St. Juan de Porto-rico. Here the fleet was divided into three ſquadrons. One was to go to Porto-bello, on the Iſthmus of Panama, another to the coaſt of South America, then called Terra Firma, and the third to Mexico, then known as New Spain. This latter ſquadron, to which Champlain was attached, coaſted along the northern ſhore of the iſland of Saint Domingo, otherwiſe Hiſpaniola, touching at Porto Platte, Mancenilla, Moſquitoes, Monte Chriſto, and Saint Nicholas. Skirting the ſouthern coaſt of Cuba, reconnoitring the Caymans,[21] they at length caſt anchor in the harbor of San Juan d'Ulloa, the iſland fortreſs near Vera Cruz. While here, Champlain made an inland journey to the City of Mexico, where he remained a month. He alſo ſailed in a *patache*, or advice-boat, to Porto-bello, when, after a month, he returned again to

[20] *Margarita*, a Spaniſh word from the Greek μαργαρίτης, ſignifying a pearl. The following account by an eye-witneſs will not be unintereſting: "Eſpecially it yieldeth ſtore of pearls, thoſe gems which the Latin writers call *Uniones*, becauſe *nulli duo reperiuntur diſcreti*, they always are found to grow in couples. In this Iſland there are many rich Merchants, who have thirty, forty, fifty *Blackmore* ſlaves only to fiſh out of the ſea about the rocks theſe pearls. . . . They are let down in baſkets into the Sea, and ſo long continue under the water, until by pulling the rope by which they are let down, they make their ſign to be taken up. . . . From *Margarita* are all the Pearls ſent to be refined and bored to *Carthagena*, where is a fair and goodly ſtreet of no other ſhops then of theſe Pearl dreſſers. Commonly in the month of *July* there is a ſhip or two at moſt ready in the Iſland to carry the King's revenue, and the Merchant's pearls to *Carthagena*. One of theſe ſhips is valued commonly at three ſcore thouſand or four ſcore thouſand ducats and ſometimes more, and therefore are reaſonable well manned; for that the *Spaniards* much fear our *Engliſh* and the *Holland* ſhips."—*Vide New Survey of the Weſt Indies*, by Thomas Gage, London, 1677, p. 174.

[21] *Caymans*, Crocodiles.

to San Juan d'Ulloa. The ſquadron then ſailed for Havana, from which place Champlain was commiſſioned to viſit, on public buſineſs, Cartagena, within the preſent limits of New Grenada, on the coaſt of South America. The whole *armada* was finally collected together at Havana, and from thence took its departure for Spain, paſſing through the channel of Bahama, or Gulf of Florida, ſighting Bermuda and the Azores, reaching Saint Lucar early in March, 1601, after an abſence from that port of two years and two months.[22]

On Champlain's return to France, he prepared an elaborate report of his obſervations and diſcoveries, luminous with ſixty-two illuſtrations ſketched by his own hand. As it was his avowed purpoſe in making the voyage to procure information that ſhould be valuable to his government, he undoubtedly communicated it in ſome form to Henry IV. The document remained in manuſcript two hundred and fifty-ſeven years, when it was firſt printed at London in an Engliſh tranſlation by the Hakluyt Society, in 1859. It is an exceedingly intereſting and valuable tract, containing a lucid deſcription of the peculiarities, manners, and cuſtoms of the people, the ſoil, mountains, and rivers, the trees, fruits, and plants, the animals, birds, and fiſhes, the rich mines found at different points, with frequent alluſions to the ſyſtem of colonial management, together with the character and ſources of the vaſt wealth which theſe ſettlements were annually yielding to the Spaniſh crown.

The

[22] For an intereſting account of the beſt route to and from the Weſt Indies in order to avoid the vigilant French and Engliſh corſairs, see *Notes on Giovanni da Verrazano*, by J. C. Brevoort, New York, 1874, p. 101.

The reader of this little treatiſe will not fail to ſee the drift and tendency of Champlain's mind and character unfolded on nearly every page. His indomitable perſeverance, his careful obſervation, his honeſt purpoſe and amiable ſpirit are at all times apparent. Although a Frenchman, a foreigner, and an entire ſtranger in the Spaniſh fleet, he had won the confidence of the commander ſo completely, that he was allowed by ſpecial permiſſion to viſit the City of Mexico, the Iſthmus of Panama, and the coaſt of South America, all of which were prominent and important centres of intereſt, but nevertheleſs lying beyond the circuit made by the ſquadron to which he was attached.

For the moſt part, Champlain's narrative of what he ſaw and of what he learned from others is given in ſimple terms, without inference or comment.

His views are, however, clearly apparent in his deſcription of the Spaniſh method of converting the Indians by the Inquiſition, reducing them to ſlavery or the horrors of a cruel death, together with the retaliation practiſed by their ſurviving comrades, reſulting in a milder method. This treatment of the poor ſavages by their more ſavage maſters Champlain illuſtrates by a graphic drawing, in which two ſtolid Spaniards are guarding half a dozen poor wretches who are burning for their faith. In another drawing he repreſents a miſerable victim receiving, under the eye and direction of the prieſt, the blows of an uplifted baton, as a penalty for not attending church.

Champlain's forecaſt and fertility of mind may be clearly ſeen in his ſuggeſtion that a ship-canal acroſs the Iſthmus of Panama would be a work of great practical utility, ſaving, in the

the voyage to the Pacific ſide of the Iſthmus, a diſtance of more than fifteen hundred leagues.[23]

As it was the policy of Spain to withhold as much as poſſible all knowledge of her colonial ſyſtem and wealth in the Weſt Indies, we may add, that there is probably no work extant, on this ſubject, written at that period, ſo full, impartial, and truthful as this tract by Champlain. It was undoubtedly written out from notes and ſketches made on the ſpot

[23] At the time that Champlain was at the iſthmus, in 1599–1601, the gold and ſilver of Peru were brought to Panama, then tranſported on mules a diſtance of about four leagues to a river, known as the Rio Chagres, whence they were conveyed by water firſt to Chagres, and thence along the coaſt to Porto-bello, and there ſhipped to Spain.

Champlain refers to a ſhip-canal in the following words: "One might judge, if the territory four leagues in extent lying between Panama and this river were cut through, he could paſs from the ſouth ſea to that on the other ſide, and thus ſhorten the route by more than fifteen hundred leagues. From Panama to the Straits of Magellan would conſtitute an iſland, and from Panama to New Foundland another, ſo that the whole of America would be in two iſlands." — *Vide Brief Diſcovrs des Choſes Plvs Remarqvables*, par Sammvel Champlain de Brovage, 1599, Quebec ed., Vol. I. p. 41. This project of a ſhip canal acroſs the iſthmus thus ſuggeſted by Champlain two hundred and eighty years ago is now attracting the public attention both in this country and in Europe. Several ſchemes are on foot for bringing it to paſs, and it will undoubtedly be accompliſhed, if it ſhall be found after the moſt careful and thorough inveſtigation to be within the ſcope of human power, and to offer adequate commercial advantages.

Some of the difficulties to be overcome are ſuggeſted by Mr. Marſh in the following excerpt:—

"The moſt coloſſal project of canalization ever ſuggeſted, whether we conſider the phyſical difficulties of its execution, the magnitude and importance of the waters propoſed to be united, or the diſtance which would be ſaved in navigation, is that of a channel between the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific, acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien. I do not now ſpeak of a lock-canal, by way of the Lake of Nicaragua, or any other route, — for ſuch a work would not differ eſſentially from other canals and would ſcarcely poſſeſs a geographical character, — but of an open cut between the two ſeas. The late ſurvey by Captain Selfridge, ſhowing that the loweſt point on the dividing ridge is 763 feet above the ſea-level, muſt be conſidered as determining in the negative the queſtion of the poſſibility of ſuch a cut, by any means now at the control of man; and both the ſanguine expectations of benefits, and the dreary ſuggeſtions of danger from the realization of this great dream, may now be diſmiſſed as equally chimerical." — *Vide The Earth as Modified by Human Action*, by George P. Marſh, New York, 1874, p. 612.

ſpot, and probably occupied the early part of the two years that followed his return from this expedition, during which period we are not aware that he entered upon any other important enterpriſe.[24]

This tour among the Spaniſh colonies, and the deſcription which Champlain gave of them, information ſo much deſired and yet ſo difficult to obtain, appear to have made a ſtrong and favorable impreſſion upon the mind of Henry IV., whose quick comprehenſion of the character of men was one of the great qualities of this diſtinguiſhed ſovereign. He clearly ſaw that Champlain's character was made up of thoſe elements which are indiſpenſable in the ſervants of the executive will. He accordingly aſſigned him a penſion to enable him to reſide near his perſon, and probably at the ſame time honored him with a place within the charmed circle of the nobility.[25]

While Champlain was reſiding at court, rejoicing doubtleſs in his new honors and full of the marvels of his recent travels, he formed the acquaintance, or perhaps renewed an old one, with Commander de Chaſtes,[26] for many years governor

[24] A tranſlation of Champlain's Voyage to the Weſt Indies and Mexico was made by Alice Wilmere, edited by Norton Shaw, and publiſhed by the Hakluyt Society, London, 1859.

[25] No poſitive evidence is known to exiſt as to the time when Champlain was ennobled. It ſeems moſt likely to have been in acknowledgment of his valuable report made to Henry IV. after his viſit to the Weſt Indies.

[26] Amyar de Chaſtes died on the 13th of May, 1603, greatly reſpected and beloved by his fellow-citizens. He was charged by his government with many important and reſponſible duties. In 1583, he was ſent by Henry III., or rather by Catherine de Médicis, to the Azores with a military force to ſuſtain the claims of Antonio, the Prior of Crato, to the throne of Portugal. He was a warm friend and ſupporter of Henry IV., and took an active part in the battles of Ivry and Arques. He commanded the French fleet on the coaſts of Brittany; and, during the long ſtruggle of this monarch with internal enemies and external foes, he was in frequent communication

ernor of Dieppe, who had given a long life to the ſervice of his country, both by ſea [27] and by land, and was a warm and attached friend of Henry IV. The enthuſiaſm of the young voyager and the long experience of the old commander made their interviews mutually inſtructive and entertaining. De Chaſtes had obſerved and ſtudied with great intereſt the recent efforts at colonization on the coaſt of North America. His zeal had been kindled and his ardor deepened doubtleſs by the glowing recitals of his young friend. It was eaſy for him to believe that France, as well as Spain, might gather in the golden fruits of colonization. The territory claimed by France was farther to the north, in climate and in ſources of wealth widely different, and would require a different management. He had determined, therefore, to ſend out an expedition for the purpoſe of obtaining more definite information than he already poſſeſſed, with the view to ſurrender ſubſequently his government of Dieppe, take up his abode in the new world, and there dedicate his remaining years to the ſervice of God and his king. He accordingly obtained

cation with the Engliſh to ſecure their co-operation, particularly againſt the Spaniſh. He accompanied the Duke de Boullon, the diſtinguiſhed Huguenot nobleman, to England, to be preſent and witneſs the oath of Queen Elizabeth to the treaty made with France.

On this occaſion he received a valuable jewel as a preſent from the Engliſh queen. He afterwards directed the ceremonies and entertainment of the Earl of Shrewſbury, who was deputed to receive the ratification of the before-mentioned treaty by Henry IV. *Vide Buſk's His. Spain and Portugal*, London, 1833, p. 129 *et paſſim; Denis' His. Portugal*, Paris, 1846, p. 296; *Freer's Life of Henry IV.*, Vol. I. p. 121, *et paſſim; Memoirs of Sully*, Philadelphia, 1817, Vol. I. p. 204; *Birch's Memoirs Queen Elizabeth*, London, 1754, Vol. II. pp. 121, 145, 151, 154, 155; *Aſſelini MSS. Chron.*, cited by Shaw in *Nar. Voyage to Weſt Ind. and Mexico*, Hakluyt Soc., 1859, p. xv.

[27] "Au même tems les nouvelles vinrent. . . . . que le Commandeur de Chaſtes dreſſoit une grande Armée de Mer en Bretagne." — *Journal de Henri III.* (1586), Paris, 1744, Tom. III. p. 279.

obtained a commiſſion from the king, aſſociating with himſelf ſome of the principal merchants of Rouen and other cities, and made preparations for deſpatching a pioneer fleet to reconnoitre and fix upon a proper place for ſettlement, and to determine what equipment would be neceſſary for the convenience and comfort of the colony. He ſecured the ſervices of Pont Gravé,[28] a diſtinguiſhed merchant and Canadian fur-trader, to conduct the expedition. Having laid his views open fully to Champlain, he invited him alſo to join the exploring party, as he deſired the opinion and advice of ſo careful an obſerver as to a proper plan of future operations.

No propoſition could have been more agreeable to Champlain than this, and he expreſſed himſelf quite ready for the enterpriſe, provided De Chaſtes would ſecure the conſent of the king, to whom he was under very great obligations. De Chaſtes readily obtained the deſired permiſſion, coupled, however, with an order from the king to Champlain to bring back to him a faithful report of the voyage. Leaving Paris, Champlain haſtened to Honfleur, armed with a letter of inſtructions from M. de Geſures, the ſecretary of the king, to Pont Gravé, directing him to receive Champlain and afford him every facility for ſeeing and exploring the country which they were about to viſit. They ſailed for the ſhores of the New World on the 15th of March, 1603.

The reader ſhould here obſerve that anterior to this date no colonial ſettlement had been made on the northern coaſts of America.

[28] Du Pont Gravé was a merchant of St. Malo. He had been aſſociated with Chauvin in the Canada trade, and continued to viſit the St. Lawrence for this purpoſe almoſt yearly for thirty years. He was greatly reſpected by Champlain, and was cloſely aſſociated with him till 1629. After the Engliſh captured Quebec, he appears to have retired, forced to do ſo by the infirmities of age.

America. Theſe regions had, however, been frequented by European fiſhermen at a very early period, certainly within the decade after its diſcovery by John Cabot in 1497. But the Baſques, Bretons, and Normans,[29] who viſited theſe coaſts, were intent upon their employment, and conſequently brought home only meagre information of the country from whoſe ſhores they yearly bore away rich cargoes of fiſh.

The firſt voyage made by the French for the purpoſe of diſcovery in our northern waters of which we have any authentic record was by Jacques Cartier in 1534, and another was made for the ſame purpoſe by this diſtinguiſhed navigator in 1535. In the former, he coaſted along the ſhores of Newfoundland, entered and gave its preſent name to the Bay of Chaleur, and at Gaſpé took formal poſſeſſion of the country in the name of the king. In the ſecond, he aſcended the St. Lawrence as far as Montreal, then an Indian village known by the aborigines as Hochelaga, ſituated on an iſland at the baſe of an eminence which they named *Mont-Royal*, from which the present commercial metropolis of the Dominion derives its name. After a winter of great ſuffering, which they paſſed on the St. Charles, near Quebec, and the death of many of his company, Cartier returned to France early in the ſummer of 1536. In 1541, he made a third voyage, under the patronage of François de la Roque, Lord de Roberval, a nobleman of Picardy. He ſailed up the St. Lawrence,

[29] Jean Parmentier, of Dieppe, author of the *Diſcorſo d'un gran capitano* in Ramuſio, Vol. III., p. 423, wrote in the year 1539, and he ſays the Bretons and Normans were in our northern waters thirty-five years before, which would be in 1504. *Vide* Mr. Parkman's learned note and citations in *Pioneers of France in the New World*, pp. 171, 172. The above is doubtleſs the authority on which the early writers, such as Pierre Biard, Champlain, and others, make the year 1504 the period when the French voyages for fiſhing commenced.

rence, anchoring probably at the mouth of the river Cap Rouge, about four leagues above Quebec, where he built a fort which he named *Charleſbourg-Royal.* Here he paſſed another dreary and diſheartening winter, and returned to France in the ſpring of 1542. His patron, De Roberval, who had failed to fulfil his intention to accompany him the preceding year, met him at St. John, Newfoundland. In vain Roberval urged and commanded him to retrace his courſe; but the reſolute old navigator had too recent an experience and ſaw too clearly the inevitable obſtacles to ſucceſs in their undertaking to be diverted from his purpoſe. Roberval proceeded up the Saint Lawrence, apparently to the fort juſt abandoned by Cartier, which he repaired and occupied the next winter, naming it *Roy-François;*[30] but the diſaſters which followed, the ſickneſs and death of many of his company, ſoon forced him, likewiſe, to abandon the enterpriſe and return to France.

Of these voyages, Cartier, or rather his pilot-general, has left full and elaborate reports, giving intereſting and detailed accounts of the mode of life among the aborigines, and of the character and products of the country.

The entire want of ſucceſs in all theſe attempts, and the abſorbing and waſting civil wars in France, paralyzed the zeal and put to reſt all aſpirations for colonial adventure for more than half a century.

But in 1598, when peace again began to dawn upon the nation, the ſpirit of colonization revived, and the Marquis de la Roche, a nobleman of Brittany, obtained a royal commiſſion

[30] *Vide Voyage of Iohn Alphonſe of Xanctoigne*, Hakluyt, Vol. III., p. 293.

miſſion with extraordinary and excluſive powers of government and trade, identical with thoſe granted to Roberval nearly ſixty years before. Having fitted out a veſſel and placed on board forty convicts gathered out of the priſons of France, he embarked for the northern coaſts of America. The firſt land he made was Sable Iſland, a moſt forlorn ſandheap riſing out of the Atlantic Ocean, ſome thirty leagues ſoutheaſt of Cape Breton. Here he left theſe wretched criminals to be the ſtrength and hope, the bone and ſinew of the little kingdom which, in his fancy, he pictured to himſelf riſing under his foſtering care in the New World. While reconnoitring the mainland, probably ſome part of Nova Scotia, for the purpoſe of ſelecting a ſuitable location for his intended ſettlement, a furious gale ſwept him from the coaſt, and, either from neceſſity or inclination, he returned to France, leaving his hopeful coloniſts to a fate hardly ſurpaſſed by that of Selkirk himſelf, and at the ſame time diſmiſſing the bright viſions that had ſo long haunted his mind, of perſonal aggrandizement at the head of a colonial eſtabliſhment.

The next year, 1599, Sieur de Saint Chauvin, of Normandy, a captain in the royal marine, at the ſuggeſtion of Pont Gravé, of Saint Malo, an experienced fur-trader, to whom we have already referred, and who had made ſeveral voyages to the northweſt anterior to this, obtained a commiſſion ſufficiently comprehenſive, amply providing for a colonial ſettlement and the propagation of the Chriſtian faith, with, indeed, all the privileges accorded by that of the Marquis de la Roche. But the chief and preſent object which Chauvin and Pont Gravé hoped to attain was the monopoly of

of the fur trade, which they had good reaſon to believe they could at that time conduct with ſucceſs. Under this commiſſion, an expedition was accordingly fitted out and ſailed for Tadouſſac. Succeſsful in its main object, with a full cargo of valuable furs, they returned to France in the autumn, leaving, however, ſixteen men, ſome of whom periſhed during the winter, while the reſt were reſcued from the ſame fate by the charity of the Indians. In the year 1600, Chauvin made another voyage, which was equally remunerative, and a third had been projected on a much broader ſcale, when his death intervened and prevented its execution.

The death of Sieur de Chauvin appears to have vacated his commiſſion, at leaſt practically, opening the way for another, which was obtained by the Commander de Chaſtes, whoſe expedition, accompanied by Champlain, as we have already ſeen, left Honfleur on the 15th of March, 1603. It conſiſted of two barques of twelve or fifteen tons, one commanded by Pont Gravé, and the other by Sieur Prevert, of Saint Malo, and was probably accompanied by one or more advice-boats. They took with them two Indians who had been in France ſome time, doubtleſs brought over by De Chauvin on his laſt voyage. With favoring winds, they ſoon reached the banks of Newfoundland, ſighted Cape Ray, the northern point of the Iſland of Cape Breton, Anticoſti and Gaspé, coaſting along the ſouthern ſide of the river Saint Lawrence as far as the Bic, where, croſſing over to the northern ſhore, they anchored in the harbor of Tadouſſac. After reconnoitring the Saguenay twelve or fifteen leagues, leaving their veſſels at Tadouſſac, where an active fur trade was in progreſs with the Indians, they proceeded up the St. Lawrence

Lawrence in a light boat, paſſed Quebec, the Three Rivers, Lake St. Peter, the Richelieu, which they called the river of the Iroquois, making an excurſion up this ſtream five or ſix leagues, and then, continuing their courſe, paſſing Montreal, they finally caſt anchor on the northern ſide, at the foot of the Falls of St. Louis, not being able to proceed further in their boat.

Having previouſly conſtructed a ſkiff for the purpoſe, Pont Gravé and Champlain, with five ſailors and two Indians with a canoe, attempted to paſs the falls. But after a long and perſevering trial, exploring the ſhores on foot for ſome miles, they found any further progreſs quite impoſſible with their preſent equipment. They accordingly abandoned the undertaking and ſet out on their return to Tadouſſac. They made ſhort ſtops at various points, enabling Champlain to purſue his inveſtigations with thoroughneſs and deliberation. He interrogated the Indians as to the courſe and extent of the St. Lawrence, as well as that of the other large rivers, the location of the lakes and falls, and the outlines and general features of the country, making rude drawings or maps to illuſtrate what the Indians found difficult otherwiſe to explain.[31]

The ſavages alſo exhibited to them ſpecimens of native copper, which they repreſented as having been obtained from the diſtant north, doubtleſs from the neighborhood of Lake Superior. On reaching Tadouſſac, they made another excurſion in one of the barques as far as Gaſpé, obſerving the rivers,

[31] Compare the reſult of theſe inquiries as ſtated by Champlain, p. 252 of this vol. and *New Voyages*, by Baron La Hontan, 1684, ed. 1735, Vol. I. p. 30.

rivers, bays, and coves along the route. When they had completed their trade with the Indians and had ſecured from them a valuable collection of furs, they commenced their return voyage to France, touching at ſeveral important points, and obtaining from the natives ſome general hints in regard to the exiſtence of certain mines about the head waters of the Bay of Fundy.

Before leaving, one of the Sagamores placed his ſon in charge of Pont Gravé, that he might ſee the wonders of France, thus exhibiting a commendable appreciation of the advantages of foreign travel. They alſo obtained the gift of an Iroquois woman, who had been taken in war, and was ſoon to be immolated as one of the victims at a cannibal feaſt. Beſides theſe, they took with them alſo four other natives, a man from the coaſt of La Cadie, and a woman and two boys from Canada.

The two little barques left Gaſpé on the 24th of Auguſt; on the 5th of September they were at the fiſhing ſtations on the Grand Banks, and on the 20th of the ſame month arrived at Havre de Grâce, having been abſent ſix months and ſix days.

Champlain received on his arrival the painful intelligence that the Commander de Chaſtes, his friend and patron, under whoſe auſpices the late expedition had been conducted, had died on the 13th of May preceding. This event was a perſonal grief as well as a ſerious calamity to him, as it deprived him of an intimate and valued friend, and caſt a cloud over the bright viſions that floated before him of diſcoveries and colonies in the New World. He loſt no time in repairing to the court, where he laid before his ſovereign,

Henry IV.,

Henry IV., a map conſtructed by his own hand of the regions which he had juſt viſited, together with a very particular narrative of the voyage.

This "petit diſcours," as Champlain calls it, is a clear, compact, well-drawn paper, containing an account of the character and products of the country, its trees, plants, fruits, and vines, with a deſcription of the native inhabitants, their mode of living, their clothing, food and its preparation, their banquets, religion, and method of burying their dead, with many other intereſting particulars relating to their habits and cuſtoms.

Henry IV. manifeſted a deep intereſt in Champlain's narrative. He liſtened to its recital with great apparent ſatiſfaction, and by way of encouragement promiſed not to abandon the undertaking, but to continue to beſtow upon it his royal favor and patronage.

There chanced at this time to be reſiding at court, a Huguenot gentleman who had been a faithful adherent of Henry IV. in the late war, Pierre du Guaſt, Sieur de Monts, gentleman ordinary to the king's chamber, and governor of Pons in Saintonge. This nobleman had made a trip for pleaſure or recreation to Canada with De Chauvin, ſeveral years before, and had learned ſomething of the country, and eſpecially of the advantages of the fur trade with the Indians. He was quite ready, on the death of De Chaſtes, to take up the enterpriſe which, by this event, had been brought to a ſudden and diſaſtrous termination. He immediately deviſed a ſcheme for the eſtabliſhment of a colony under the patronage of a company to be compoſed of merchants of Rouen, Rochelle, and of other places, their contributions for covering

ing the expenſe of the enterpriſe to be ſupplemented, if not rendered entirely unneceſſary, by a trade in furs and peltry to be conducted by the company.

In leſs than two months after the return of the laſt expedition, De Monts had obtained from Henry IV., though contrary to the advice of his moſt influential miniſter,[32] a charter conſtituting him the king's lieutenant in La Cadie, with all neceſſary and deſirable powers for a colonial ſettlement. The grant included the whole territory lying between the 40th and 46th degrees of north latitude. Its ſouthern boundary was on a parallel of Philadelphia, while its northern was on a line extended due weſt from the moſt eaſterly point of the Iſland of Cape Breton, cutting New Brunſwick on a parallel near Fredericton, and Canada near the junction of the river Richelieu and the St. Lawrence. It will be obſerved that the parts of New France at that time beſt known were not included in this grant, viz., Lake St. Peter, Three Rivers, Quebec, Tadouſſac, Gaſpé, and the Bay Chaleur. Theſe were points of great importance, and had doubtleſs been left out of the charter by an overſight ariſing from an almoſt total want of a definite geographical knowledge of our northern coaſt. Juſtly apprehending that the places above mentioned might not be included within the limits of his grant, De Monts obtained, the next month, an extenſion of the bounds of his excluſive right of trade, ſo that

[32] The Duke of Sully's diſapprobation is expreſſed in the following words: "The colony, that was ſent to Canada this year, was among the number of thoſe things that had not my approbation; there was no kind of riches to be expected from all thoſe countries of the new world, which are beyond the fortieth degree of latitude. His majeſty gave the conduct of this expedition to the Sieur du Mont."—*Memoirs of Sully*, Philadelphia, 1817, Vol. III. p. 185.

that it ſhould comprehend the whole region of the gulf and river of St. Lawrence.[33]

The following winter, 1603–4, was devoted by De Monts to organizing his company, the collection of a ſuitable band of coloniſts, and the neceſſary preparations for the voyage. His commiſſion authorized him to ſeize any idlers in the city or country, or even convicts condemned to tranſportation, to make up the bone and ſinew of the colony. To what extent he reſorted to this method of filling his ranks, we know not. Early in April he had gathered together about a hundred and twenty artiſans of all trades, laborers, and ſoldiers, who were embarked upon two ſhips, one of 120 tons, under the direction of Sieur de Pont Gravé, commanded, however, by Captain Morel, of Honfleur; another of 150 tons, on which De Monts himſelf embarked with ſeveral noblemen and gentlemen, having Captain Timothée, of Havre de Grâce, as commander.

De Monts extended to Champlain an invitation to join the expedition, which he readily accepted, but, nevertheleſs, on the condition, as in the previous voyage, of the king's aſſent, which was freely granted, nevertheleſs with the command that he ſhould prepare a faithful report of his obſervations and diſcoveries.

CHAPTER III.

[33] "Frequenter, negocier, et communiquer durant ledit temps de dix ans, depuis le Cap de Raze juſques au quarantiéme degré, comprenant toute la côte de la Cadie, terre et Cap Breton, Bayes de Sainct-Cler, de Chaleur, Ile Percée, Gachepé, Chinſchedec, Meſamichi, Leſquemin, Tadouſſac, et la riviere de Canada, tant d'un côté que d'autre, et toutes les Bayes et rivieres qui entrent au dedans deſdites côtes."—Extract of Commiſſion, *Hiſtoire de la Nouvelle-France*, par Leſcarbot, Paris, 1866, Vol. II. p. 416.

CHAPTER III.

DE MONTS LEAVES FOR LA CADIE — THE COASTS OF NOVA SCOTIA. — THE BAY OF FUNDY. — SEARCH FOR COPPER MINE. — CHAMPLAIN EXPLORES THE PENOBSCOT. — DE MONTS'S ISLAND. — SUFFERINGS OF THE COLONY. — EXPLORATION OF THE COAST AS FAR AS NAUSET, ON CAPE COD.

DE MONTS, with Champlain and the other noblemen, left Havre de Grâce on the 7th April, 1604, while Pont Gravé, with the other veſſel, followed three days later, to rendezvous at Canſeau.

Taking a more ſoutherly courſe than he had originally intended, De Monts came in ſight of La Hève on the 8th of May, and on the 12th entered Liverpool harbor, where he found Captain Roſſignol, of Havre de Grâce, carrying on a contraband trade in furs with the Indians, whom he arreſted, and confiſcated his veſſel.

The next day they anchored at Port Mouton, where they lingered three or four weeks, awaiting news from Pont Gravé, who had in the mean time arrived at Canſeau, the rendezvous agreed upon before leaving France. Pont Gravé had there diſcovered ſeveral Baſque ſhips engaged in the fur-trade. Taking poſſeſſion of them, he ſent their maſters to De Monts. The ſhips were ſubſequently confiſcated and ſent to Rochelle.

Captain Fouques was deſpatched to Canſeau in the veſſel which had been taken from Roſſignol, to bring forward the ſupplies which had been brought over by Pont Gravé.

Having tranſſhipped the proviſions intended for the colony, Pont Gravé

Pont Gravé proceeded through the Straits of Canſeau up the St. Lawrence, to trade with the Indians, upon the profits of which the company relied largely for repleniſhing their treaſury.

In the mean time Champlain was ſent in a barque of eight tons, with the ſecretary Sieur Ralleau, Mr. Simon, the miner, and ten men, to reconnoitre the coaſt towards the weſt. Sailing along the ſhore, touching at numerous points, doubling Cape Sable, he entered the Bay of Fundy, and after exploring St. Mary's Bay, and diſcovering ſeveral mines of both ſilver and iron, returned to Port Mouton and made to De Monts a minute and careful report.

De Monts immediately weighed anchor and ſailed for the Bay of St. Mary, where he left his veſſel, and, with Champlain, the miner, and ſome others, proceeded to explore the Bay of Fundy. They entered and examined Annapolis harbor, coaſted along the weſtern ſhores of Nova Scotia, touching at the Bay of Mines, paſſing over to New Brunſwick, ſkirting its whole ſoutheaſtern coaſt, entering the harbor of St. John, and finally penetrating Paſſamaquoddy Bay as far as the mouth of the river St. Croix, and fixed upon De Monts's Iſland [34] as the ſeat of their colony. The veſſel at

[34] *De Monts's Iſland.* Of this iſland Champlain ſays: "This place was named by Sieur De Monts the Iſland of St. Croix."—*Vide* Vol. II. p. 32, note 86. St. Croix has now for a long time been applied as the name of the river in which this iſland is found. The French denominated this ſtream the River of the Etechemins, after the name of the tribe of ſavages inhabiting its ſhores. *Vide* Vol. II. p. 31. It continued to be ſo called for a long time. Denys ſpeaks of it under this name in 1672. "Depuis la riviere de Pentagoüet, juſques à celle de ſaint Jean, il peut y avoir quarante à quarante cinq lieuës; la premiere riviere que l'on rencontre le long de la coſte, eſt celle des Etechemins, qui porte le nom du pays, depuis Baſton juſques au Port royal, dont les Sauvages qui habitent toute cette étenduë, portent auſſi le meſme nom." — *Deſcription Geographique et Hiſtorique des Coſtes de L'Amerique Septentrionale*, par Nicholas Denys, Paris, 1672, p. 29, *et verſo.*

at St. Mary's with the coloniſts was ordered to join them, and immediately active meaſures were taken for laying out gardens, erecting dwellings and ſtorehouſes, and all the neceſſary preparations for the coming winter. Champlain was commiſſioned to deſign and lay out the town, if ſo it could be called.

When the work was ſomewhat advanced, he was ſent in a barque of five or ſix tons, manned with nine ſailors, to ſearch for a mine of pure copper, which an Indian named Meſſamoüet had aſſured them he could point out to them on the coaſt towards the river St. John. Some twenty-five miles from the river St. Croix, they found a mine yielding eighteen per cent, as eſtimated by the miner; but they did not diſcover any pure copper, as they had hoped.

On the laſt day of Auguſt, 1604, the veſſel which had brought out the colony, together with that which had been taken from Roſſignol, took their departure for the ſhores of France. In it ſailed Poutrincourt, Ralleau the ſecretary of De Monts, and Captain Roſſignol.

From the moment of his arrival on the coaſt of America, Champlain employed his leiſure hours in making ſketches and drawings of the moſt important rivers, harbors, and Indian ſettlements which they had viſited.

While the little colony at De Monts's Iſland was active in getting its appointments arranged and ſettled, De Monts wiſely determined, though he could not accompany it himſelf, nevertheleſs to ſend out an expedition during the mild days of autumn, to explore the region ſtill further to the ſouth, then called by the Indians Norumbegue. Greatly to the ſatisfaction of Champlain, he was perſonally charged with this

this important expedition. He ſet out on the 2d of September, in a barque of ſeventeen or eighteen tons, with twelve ſailors and two Indian guides. The inevitable fogs of that region detained them nearly a fortnight before they were able to leave the banks of Paſſamaquoddy. Paſſing along the rugged ſhores of Maine, with its endleſs chain of iſlands riſing one after another into view, which they called the Ranges, they at length came to the ancient Pemetiq, lying cloſe in to the ſhore, having the appearance at ſea of ſeven or eight mountains drawn together and ſpringing from the ſame baſe. This Champlain named *Monts Déſerts*, which we have anglicized into Mount Deſert,[35] an appellation which has ſurvived the viciſſitudes of two hundred and ſeventy-five years, and now that the iſland, with its ſalubrious air and cool ſhades, its bold and picturesque ſcenery, is attracting thouſands from the great cities during the heats of ſummer, the name is likely to abide far down into a diſtant and indefinite future.

Leaving Mount Deſert, winding their way among numerous iſlands, taking a northerly direction, they ſoon entered the Penobſcot,[36] known by the early navigators as the river Norumbegue.

[35] Champlain had, by his own explorations and by conſulting the Indians, obtained a very full and accurate knowledge of this iſland at his firſt viſit, on the 5th of September, 1604, when he named it *Monts-déſerts*, which we preſerve in the English form, MOUNT DESERT. He obſerved that the diſtance acroſs the channel to the mainland on the north ſide was leſs than a hundred paces. The rocky and barren ſummits of this cluſter of little mountains obviouſly induced him to give to the iſland its appropriate and deſcriptive name. *Vide* Vol. II. p. 39. Dr. Edward Ballard derives the Indian name of this iſland, *Pemetiq*, from *pemé'te*, ſloping, and *ki*, land. He adds that it probably denoted a ſingle locality which was taken by Biard's company as the name of the whole iſland. *Vide Report of U. S. Coaſt Survey* for 1868, p. 253.

[36] *Penobſcot* is a corruption of the Abnaki *pa"na∞a"bſkek*. A nearly exact tranſlation is "at the fall of the rock," or "at the deſcending rock." *Vide Trumball's*

Norumbegue. They proceeded up the river as far as the mouth of an affluent now known as the Kenduſkeag,[37] which was then called, or rather the place where it made a junction with the Penobſcot was called by the natives, *Kadeſquit*, ſituated at the head of tide-water, near the preſent ſite of the city of Bangor. The falls above the city intercepted their further progreſs. The river-banks about the harbor were fringed with a luxurious growth of foreſt trees. On one ſide, lofty pines reared their gray trunks, forming a natural paliſade along the ſhore. On the other, maſſive oaks alone were to be ſeen, lifting their ſturdy branches to the ſkies, gathered into clumps or ſtretching out into long lines, as if a landſcape gardener had planted them to pleaſe the eye and gratify the taſte. An exploration revealed the whole ſurrounding region clothed in a ſimilar wild and primitive beauty.

After a leiſurely ſurvey of the country, they returned to the mouth of the river. Contrary to what might have been expected, Champlain found ſcarcely any inhabitants dwelling on the borders of the Penobſcot. Here and there they ſaw a few deſerted wigwams, which were the only marks of human occupation. At the mouth of the river, on the borders of

Trumball's Ind. Geog. Names, Collections Conn. His. Society, Vol. II. p. 19. This name was originally given probably to ſome part of the river to which its meaning was particularly applicable. This may have been at the mouth of the river a Fort Point, a rocky elevation not leſs than eighty feet in height. Or it may have been the "fall of water coming down a ſlope of ſeven or eight feet," as Champlain expreſſes it, a ſhort diſtance above the ſite of the preſent city of Bangor. That this name was first obtained by thoſe who only viſited the mouth of the river would ſeem to favor the former ſuppoſition.

[37] Dr. Edward Ballard ſuppoſes the original name of this ſtream, *Kadeſquit*, to be derived from *kaht*, a Micmac word for *eel*, denoting *eel ſtream*, now corrupted into *Kenduſkeag*. The preſent ſite of the city of Bangor is where Biard intended to eſtabliſh his miſſion in 1613, but he was finally induced to fix it at Mount Deſert. —*Vide Relations des Jéſuites*, Quebec ed., Vol. I. p. 44.

of Penobſcot Bay, the native inhabitants were numerous. They were of a friendly diſpoſition, and gave their viſitors a cordial welcome, readily entered into negotiations for the ſale of beaver-ſkins, and the two parties mutually agreed to maintain a friendly intercourſe in the future.

Having obtained from the Indians ſome valuable information as to the ſource of the Penobſcot, and obſerved their mode of life, which did not differ from that which they had ſeen ſtill further eaſt, Champlain departed on the 20th of September, directing his courſe towards the Kennebec. But, encountering bad weather, he found it neceſſary to take ſhelter under the lee of the iſland of Monhegan.

After ſailing three or four leagues farther, finding that his proviſions would not warrant the continuance of the voyage, he determined, on the 23d of September, to return to the ſettlement at Saint Croix, or what is now known as De Monts's Iſland, where they arrived on the 2d day of October, 1604.

De Monts's Iſland, having an area of not more than ſix or ſeven acres, is ſituated in the river Saint Croix, midway between its oppoſite ſhores, directly upon the dividing line between the townſhips of Calais and Robinſton in the State of Maine. At the northern end of the iſland, the buildings of the ſettlement were cluſtered together in the form of a quadrangle with an open court in the centre. Firſt came the magazine and lodgings of the ſoldiers, then the manſion of the governor, De Monts, ſurmounted by the colors of France. Houſes for Champlain and the other gentlemen,[38] for the curé, the artiſans and workmen, filled up and

[38] The other gentlemen whoſe names we have learned were Meſſieurs d'Orville, Champdoré, Beaumont, la Motte Bourioli, Fougeray or Foulgeré de Vitré, Geneſtou,

and completed the quadrangle. Below the houſes, gardens were laid out for the ſeveral gentlemen, and at the ſouthern extremity of the iſland cannon were mounted for protection againſt a ſudden aſſault.

In the ample foreſts of Maine or New Brunſwick, rich in oak and maple and pine, abounding in deer, partridge, and other wild game, watered by cryſtal fountains ſpringing from every acre of the ſoil, we naturally picture for our coloniſts a winter of robuſt health, phyſical comfort, and ſocial enjoyment. The little iſland which they had choſen was indeed a charming ſpot in a ſummer's day, but we can hardly comprehend in what view it could have been regarded as ſuitable for a colonial plantation. In ſpace it was wholly inadequate; it was deſtitute of wood and freſh water, and its ſoil was ſandy and unproductive. In fixing the location of their ſettlement and in the conſtruction of their houſes, it is obvious that they had entirely miſapprehended the character of the climate. While the latitude was nearly the ſame, the temperature was far more rigorous than that of the ſunny France which they had left. The ſnow began to fall on the 6th of October. On the 3d of December the ice was ſeen floating on the ſurface of the water. As the ſeason advanced, and the tide came and went, huge floes of ice, day after day, ſwept by the iſland, rendering it impracticable to navigate the river or paſs over to the mainland. They were therefore impriſoned in their own home. Thus cut off from the game with which the neighboring foreſts abounded, they were compelled to ſubſiſt almoſt excluſively upon ſalted meats.

Geneſtou, Sourin, and Boulay. The orthography of the names, as they are mentioned from time to time, is various.

meats. Nearly all the foreſt trees on the iſland had been uſed in the conſtruction of their houſes, and they had conſequently but a meagre ſupply of fuel to reſiſt the chilling winds and penetrating froſts. For freſh water, their only reliance was upon melted ſnow and ice. Their ſtore-houſe had not been furniſhed with a cellar, and the froſt left nothing untouched; even cider was diſpenſed in ſolid blocks. To crown the gloom and wretchedneſs of their ſituation, the colony was viſited with diſeaſe of a virulent and fatal character. As the malady was beyond the knowledge, ſo it baffled the ſkill of the ſurgeons. They called it *mal de la terre.* Of the ſeventy-nine perſons, compoſing the whole number of the colony, thirty-five died, and twenty others were brought to the verge of the grave. In May, having been liberated from the baleful influence of their winter priſon and revived by the genial warmth of the vernal ſun and by the freſh meats obtained from the ſavages, the diſeaſe abated, and the ſurvivors gradually regained their ſtrength.

Diſheartened by the bitter experiences of the winter, the governor, having fully determined to abandon his preſent eſtabliſhment, ordered two boats to be conſtructed, one of fifteen and the other of ſeven tons, in which to tranſport his colony to Gaſpé, in caſe he received no ſupplies from France, with the hope of obtaining a paſſage home in ſome of the fiſhing veſſels on that coaſt. But from this diſagreeable alternative he was happily relieved. On the 15th of June, 1605, Pont Gravé arrived, to the great joy of the little colony, with all needed ſupplies. The purpoſe of returning to France was at once abandoned, and, as no time was to be loſt, on the 18th of the ſame month, De Monts, Champlain, ſeveral

ſeveral gentlemen, twenty ſailors, two Indians, Panounias and his wife, ſet ſail for the purpoſe of diſcovering a more eligible ſite for his colony ſomewhere on the ſhores of the preſent New England. Paſſing ſlowly along the coaſt, with which Champlain was already familiar, and conſequently without extenſive explorations, they at length reached the waters of the Kennebec,[39] where the ſurvey of the previous year had terminated and that of the preſent was about to begin.

On the 5th of July, they entered the Kennebec, and, bearing to the right, paſſed through Back River,[40] grazing their barque on the rocks in the narrow channel, and then ſweeping down round the ſouthern point of Jerremiſquam Iſland, or Weſtport, they aſcended along its eaſtern ſhores till they came near the preſent ſite of Wiſcaſſet, from whence they returned on the weſtern ſide of the iſland, through Monſeag Bay, and threading the narrow paſſage between Arrowſick and Woolwich, called the Upper Hell-gate, and again entering the Kennebec, they finally reached Merrymeeting Bay. Lingering here but a ſhort time, they returned through the Sagadahock, or lower Kennebec, to the mouth of the river.

This exploration did not yield to the voyagers any very intereſting or important reſults. Several friendly interviews were held with the ſavages at different points along the route. Near the head waters of the Sheepſcot, probably in Wiſcaſſet Bay, they had an interview, an intereſting and joy-

ous

[39] *Kennebec.* Biard, in the *Relation de la Nouvelle France, Relations des Jéſuites*, Quebec ed., Vol. I. p. 35, writes it *Quinibequi*, and Champlain writes it *Quinibequy* and *Quinebequi;* hence Mr. Trumball infers that it is probably equivalent in meaning to *quinni-pi-ohke*, meaning "long water place," derived from the Abnaki, *K∞ né-be-ki.* — *Vide Ind. Geog. Names*, Col. Conn. His. Soc. Vol. II. p. 15.

[40] *Vide* Vol. II. note 110.

ous meeting, with the chief Manthoumerme and his twenty-five or thirty followers, with whom they exchanged tokens of friendſhip. Along the ſhores of the Sheepſcot their attention was attracted by ſeveral pleaſant ſtreams and fine expanſes of meadow; but the ſoil obſerved on this expedition generally, and eſpecially on the Sagadahock,[41] or lower Kennebec, was rough and barren, and offered, in the judgment of De Monts and Champlain, no eligible ſite for a new ſettlement.

Proceeding, therefore, on their voyage, they ſtruck directly acroſs Caſco Bay, not attempting, in their ignorance, to enter the fine harbor of Portland.

On the 9th of July, they made the bay that ſtretches from Cape Elizabeth to Fletcher's Neck, and anchored under the lee of Stratton Iſland, directly in ſight of Old Orchard Beach, now a famous watering place during the ſummer months.

The ſavages having ſeen the little French barque approaching in the diſtance, had built fires to attract its attention, and came down upon the ſhore at Prout's Neck, formerly known as Black Point, in large numbers, indicating their friendlineſs by lively demonſtrations of joy. From this anchorage, while awaiting the influx of the tide to enable them to paſs over the bar and enter a river which they ſaw flowing into the bay, De Monts paid a viſit to Richmond's Iſland,

[41] *Sagadahock.* This name is particularly applied to the lower part of the Kennebec. It is from the Abnaki, *ſa"ghede'aki*, "land at the mouth." — *Vide Indian Geographical Names*, by J. H. Trumball, Col. Conn. His. Society, Vol. II. p. 30. Dr. Edward Ballard derives it from *ſanktai-i-wi*, to finiſh, and *onk*, a locative, "the finiſhing place," which means the mouth of a river. — *Vide Report of U. S. Coaſt Survey*, 1868, p. 258.

Iſland, about four miles diſtant, with which he was greatly delighted, as he found it richly ſtudded with oak and hickory, whoſe bending branches were wreathed with luxuriant grape-vines loaded with green cluſters of unripe fruit. In honor of the god of wine, they gave to the iſland the claſſic name of Bacchus.[42] At full tide they paſſed over the bar and caſt anchor within the channel of the Saco.

The Indians whom they found here were called Almouchiquois, and differed in many reſpects from any which they had ſeen before, from the Sourequois of Nova Scotia and the Etechemins of the northern part of Maine and New Brunſwick. They ſpoke a different language, and, unlike their neighbors on the eaſt, did not ſubſiſt mainly by the chaſe, but upon the products of the ſoil, ſupplemented by fiſh, which were plentiful and of excellent quality, and which they took with facility about the mouth of the river. De Monts and Champlain made an excurſion upon the ſhore, where their eyes were refreſhed by fields of waving corn, and gardens of ſquaſhes, beans, and pumpkins, which were then burſting into flower.[43] Here they saw in cultivation the

[42] *Bacchus Iſland.* This was Richmond's Iſland, as we have ſtated in Vol. II. note 123. It will be admitted that the Bacchus Iſland of Champlain was either Richmond's Iſland or one of thoſe in the bay of the Saco. Champlain does not give a ſpecific name to any of the iſlands in the bay, as may be ſeen by referring to the explanations of his map of the bay, Vol. II. p. 65. If one of them had been Bacchus Iſland, he would not have failed to refer to it, according to his uniform cuſtom, under that name. Hence it is certain that his Bacchus Iſland was not one of thoſe figured on his local map of the bay of the Saco. By reference to the large map of 1632, it will be ſeen that Bacchus Iſland is repreſented by the number 50, which is placed over againſt the largeſt iſland in the neighborhood and that fartheſt to the eaſt, which, of courſe, muſt be Richmond's Iſland. It is, however, proper to ſtate that theſe reference figures are not in general ſo carefully placed as to enable us to rely upon them in fixing a locality, particularly if unſupported by other evidence. But in this caſe other evidence ls not wanting.

[43] *Vide* Vol. II. pp. 64–67.

the rank narcotic *petun*, or tobacco,[44] juſt beginning to ſpread out its broad velvet leaves to the ſun, the ſole luxury of ſavage life. The foreſts were thinly wooded, but were nevertheleſs rich in primitive oak, in lofty aſh and elm, and in the more humble and ſturdy beech. As on Richmond's Iſland ſo here, along the bank of the river they found grapes in luxurious growth, from which the ſailors buſied themſelves in making verjuice, a delicious beverage in the meridian heats of a July ſun. The natives were gentle and amiable, graceful in figure, agile in movement, and exhibited unuſual taſte, dreſſing their hair in a variety of twiſts and braids, intertwined with ornamental feathers.

Champlain obſerved their method of cultivating Indian corn, which the experience of two hundred and ſeventy-five years has in no eſſential point improved or even changed. They planted three or four ſeeds in hills three feet apart, and heaped the earth about them, and kept the ſoil clear of weeds. Such is the method of the ſucceſsful New England farmer to-day. The experience of the ſavage had taught him how many individuals of the rank plant could occupy prolifically a given area, how the ſoil muſt be gathered about the roots to ſuſtain the heavy ſtock, and that there muſt be no rival near it to draw away the nutriment on which the voracious plant feeds and grows. Civilization has invented implements to facilitate the proceſſes of culture, but the obſervation of the ſavage had led him to a knowledge of all that is abſolutely neceſſary to enſure a prolific harveſt.

After lingering two days at Saco, our explorers proceeded on

[44] *Nicotiana ruſtica. Vide* Vol. II. by Charles Pickering, M.D. Boſton, note 130. *Chronological His. Plants*, 1879. p. 741, *et paſſim.*

on their voyage. When they had advanced not more than twenty miles, driven by a fierce wind, they were forced to caſt anchor near the ſalt marſhes of Wells. Having been driven by Cape Porpoiſe, on the ſubſidence of the wind, they returned to it, reconnoitred its harbor and adjacent iſlands, together with Little River, a few miles ſtill further to the eaſt. The ſhores were lined all along with nut-trees and grape-vines. The iſlands about Cape Porpoiſe were matted all over with wild currants, ſo that the eye could ſcarcely diſcern any thing elſe. Attracted doubtleſs by this fruit, clouds of wild pigeons had aſſembled there, and were having a mid-ſummer's feſtival, fearleſs of the treacherous ſnare or the hunter's deadly aim. Large numbers of them were taken, which added a coveted luxury to the not over-ſtocked larder of the little French barque.

On the 15th of July, De Monts and his party left Cape Porpoiſe, keeping in and following cloſely the ſinuoſities of the ſhore. They ſaw no ſavages during the day, nor any evidences of any, except a riſing ſmoke, which they approached, but found to be a lone beacon, without any ſurroundings of human life. Thoſe who had kindled the fire had doubtleſs concealed themſelves, or had fled in diſmay. Poſſibly they had never ſeen a ſhip under ſail. The fiſhermen who frequented our northern coaſt rarely came into theſe waters, and the little craft of our voyagers, moving without oars or any apparent human aid, ſeemed doubtleſs to them a monſter gliding upon the wings of the wind. At the ſetting of the ſun, they were near the flat and ſandy coaſt, now known as Wallace's Sands. They ſought in vain for a roadſtead where they might anchor ſafely for the night. When they were oppoſite

oppoſite to Little Boar's Head, with the Iſles of Shoals directly eaſt of them, and the reflected rays of the ſun were ſtill throwing their light upon the waters, they ſaw in the diſtance the dim outline of Cape Anne, whither they directed their courſe, and, before morning, came to anchor near its eaſtern extremity, in ſixteen fathoms of water. Near them were the three well-known iſlands at the apex of the cape, covered with foreſt-trees, and the woodleſs cluſter of rocks, now called the Savages, a little further from the ſhore.

The next morning five or ſix Indians timidly approached them in a canoe, and then retired and ſet up a dance on the ſhore, as a token of friendly greeting. Armed with crayon and drawing-paper, Champlain was deſpatched to ſeek from the natives ſome important geographical information. Diſpenſing knives and biſcuit as a friendly invitation, the ſavages gathered about him, aſſured by their gifts, when he proceeded to impart to them their firſt leſſon in topographical drawing. He pictured to them the bay on the north ſide of Cape Anne, which he had juſt traverſed, and ſignifying to them that he deſired to know the courſe of the ſhore on the ſouth, they immediately gave him an example of their apt ſcholarſhip by drawing with the ſame crayon an accurate outline of Maſſachuſetts Bay, and finiſhed up Champlain's own ſketch by introducing the Merrimac River, which, not having been ſeen, owing to the preſence of Plum Iſland, which ſtretches like a curtain before its mouth, he had omitted to portray. The intelligent natives volunteered a bit of hiſtory. By placing ſix pebbles at equal diſtances, they intimated that Maſſachuſetts Bay was occupied by ſix tribes,

tribes, and governed by as many chiefs.[45] He learned from them, likewiſe, that the inhabitants of this region ſubſiſted by agriculture, as did thoſe at the mouth of the Saco, and that they were very numerous.

Leaving Cape Anne on Saturday, the 16th of July, De Monts entered Maſſachuſetts Bay, ſailed into Boſton harbor, and anchored on the weſtern ſide of Noddle's Iſland, now better known as Eaſt Boſton. In paſſing into the bay, they obſerved large patches of cleared land, and many fields of waving corn both upon the iſlands and the mainland. The water and the iſlands, the open fields and lofty foreſt-trees, preſented fine contraſts, and rendered the ſcenery attractive and beautiful. Here for the firſt time Champlain obſerved the log canoe. It was a clumſy though ſerviceable boat in ſtill waters, nevertheleſs unſtable and dangerous in unſkilful hands. They ſaw, iſſuing into the bay, a large river, coming from the weſt, which they named River du Guaſt, in honor of Pierre du Guaſt, Sieur de Monts, the patentee of La Cadie, and the patron and director of this expedition. This was Charles River, ſeen, evidently juſt at its confluence with the Myſtic.[46]

On Sunday, the 17th of July, 1605, they left Boſton harbor, threading their way among the iſlands, paſſing leiſurely along

[45] Daniel Gookin, who wrote in 1674, ſpeaks of the following ſubdiviſions among the Maſſachuſetts Indians: "Their chief ſachem held dominion over many other petty governours; as thoſe of Weechagaſkas, Neponſitt, Punkapaog, Nonantam, Naſhaway, and ſome of the Nipmuck people." — *Vide Gookin's His. Col.*

[46] *Vide* Vol. II. note 159. *Muſhauwomuk*, which we have converted into *Shawmut*, means, "where there is going-by-boat." The French, if they heard the name and learned its meaning, could hardly have failed to ſee the appropriateneſs of it as applied by the aborigines to Boſton harbor. — *Vide Trumball* in Connecticut Hiſtorical Society's Collections, Vol. II. p. 5.

along the ſouth ſhore, rounding Point Allerton on the peninſula of Nantaſket, gliding along near Cohaſſet and Scituate, and finally caſt anchor at Brant Point, upon the ſouthern borders of Marſhfield. When they left the harbor of Boſton, the iſlands and mainland were ſwarming with the native population. The Indians were, naturally enough, intenſely intereſted in this viſit of the little French barque. It may have been the firſt that had ever made its appearance in the bay. Its ſize was many times greater than any water-craft of their own. Spreading its white wings and gliding ſilently away without oarſmen, it filled them with ſurpriſe and admiration. The whole population was aſtir. The cornfields and fiſhing ſtations were deſerted. Every canoe was manned, and a flotilla of their tiny craft came to attend, honor, and ſpeed the parting gueſts, experiencing, doubtleſs, a ſenſe of relief that they were going, and filled with a painful curioſity to know the meaning of this myſterious viſit.

Having paſſed the night at Brant Point, they had not advanced more than two leagues along a ſandy ſhore dotted with wigwams and gardens, when they were forced to enter a ſmall harbor, to await a more favoring wind. The Indians flocked about them, greeted them with cordiality, and invited them to enter the little river which flows into the harbor, but this they were unable to do, as the tide was low and the depth inſufficient. Champlain's attention was attracted by ſeveral canoes in the bay, which had juſt completed their morning's work in fiſhing for cod. The fiſh were taken with a primitive hook and line, apparently in a manner not very different from that of the preſent day. The line was made of a filament of bark ſtripped from the trunk

trunk of a tree; the hook was of wood, having a ſharp bone, forming a barb, laſhed to it with a cord of a graſſy fibre, a kind of wild hemp, growing ſpontaneouſly in that region. Champlain landed, diſtributed trinkets among the natives, examined and ſketched an outline of the place, which identifies it as Plymouth harbor, which Captain John Smith viſited in 1614, and where the May Flower, ſtill ſix years later, landed the firſt permanent colony planted upon New England ſoil.

After a day at Plymouth, the little barque weighed anchor, ſwept down Cape Cod Bay, approaching near to the reefs of Billingſgate, deſcribing a complete ſemicircle, and finally, with ſome difficulty, doubled the cape, whoſe white ſands they had ſeen in the diſtance glittering in the ſunlight, and which they appropriately named *Cap Blanc.* This cape, however, had been viſited three years before by Bartholomew Goſnold, and named Cape Cod, which appellation it has retained to the preſent time. Paſſing down on the outſide of the cape ſome diſtance, they came to anchor, ſent explorers on ſhore, who, aſcending one of the lofty ſand-banks [47] which may ſtill be ſeen there ſilently reſiſting the winds and the waves, diſcovered, further to the ſouth, what is now known as Nauſet harbor, entirely ſurrounded by Indian cabins. The next day, the 20th of July, 1605, they effected an

[47] It was probably on this very bluff, from which was ſeen Nauſet harbor on the 19th of July, 1605, that, after the lapſe of two hundred and ſeventy-four years, on the 17th of November, 1879, the citizens of the United States, with the flags of America, France, and England gracefully waving over their heads, addreſſed their congratulations by telegraph to the citizens of France, at Breſt, on the communication between the two countries, that day completed, through ſubmarine wires, under the auſpices of the "Compagnie Françaiſe du Télégraphe de Paris à New York."

an entrance without much difficulty. The bay was ſpacious, being nine or ten miles in circumference. Along the borders, there were, here and there, cultivated patches, interſperſed with dwellings of the natives. The wigwam was cone-ſhaped, heavily thatched with reeds, having an orifice at the apex for the emiſſion of ſmoke. In the fields were growing Indian corn, Brazilian beans, pumpkins, radiſhes, and tobacco; and in the woods were oak and hickory and red cedar. During their ſtay in the harbor they encountered an eaſterly ſtorm, which continued four days, ſo raw and chilling that they were glad to hug their winter cloaks about them on the 22d of July. The natives were friendly and cordial, and entered freely into converſation with Champlain; but, as the language of each party was not underſtood by the other, the information he obtained from them was moſtly by ſigns, and conſequently too general to be hiſtorically intereſting or important.

The firſt and only act of hoſtility by the natives which De Monts and his party had thus far experienced in their explorations on the entire coaſt occurred in this harbor. Several of the men had gone aſhore to obtain freſh water. Some of the Indians conceived an uncontrollable deſire to capture the copper veſſels which they ſaw in their hands. While one of the men was ſtooping to dip water from a ſpring, one of the ſavages darted upon him and ſnatched the coveted veſſel from his hand. An encounter followed, and, amid ſhowers of arrows and blows, the poor ſailor was brutally murdered. The victorious Indian, fleet as the reindeer, eſcaped with his companions, bearing his prize with him into the depths of the foreſt. The natives on the ſhore, who

who had hitherto ſhown the greateſt friendlineſs, ſoon came to De Monts, and by ſigns diſowned any participation in the act, and aſſured him that the guilty parties belonged far in the interior. Whether this was the truth or a piece of adroit diplomacy, it was nevertheleſs accepted by De Monts, ſince puniſhment could only be adminiſtered at the riſk of cauſing the innocent to ſuffer inſtead of the guilty.

The young ſailor whoſe earthly career was thus ſuddenly terminated, whoſe name even has not come down to us, was doubtleſs the firſt European, if we except Thorvald, the Northman, whoſe mortal remains ſlumber in the ſoil of Maſſachuſetts.

As this voyage of diſcovery had been planned and proviſioned for only ſix weeks, and more than five had already elapſed, on the 25th of July DeMonts and his party left Nauſett harbor, to join the colony ſtill lingering at St. Croix. In paſſing the bar, they came near being wrecked, and conſequently gave to the harbor the ſignificant appellation of *Port de Mallebarre*, a name which has not been loſt, but nevertheleſs, like the ſhifting ſands of that region, has floated away from its original moorings, and now adheres to the ſandy cape of Monomoy.

On their return voyage, they made a brief ſtop at Saco, and likewiſe at the mouth of the Kennebec. At the latter point they had an interview with the ſachem, Anaſſou, who informed them that a ſhip had been there, and that the men on board her had ſeized, under color of friendſhip, and killed five ſavages belonging to that river. From the deſcription given by Anaſſou, Champlain was convinced that the ſhip was Engliſh, and ſubſequent events render it quite certain that

that it was the "Archangel," fitted out by the Earl of Southampton and Lord Arundel of Wardour, and commanded by Captain George Weymouth. The design of the expedition was to fix upon an eligible site for a colonial plantation, and, in pursuance of this purpose, Weymouth anchored off Monhegan on the 28th of May, 1605, *new style*, and, after spending a month in explorations of the region contiguous, left for England on the 26th of June.[48] He had seized and carried away five of the natives, having concealed them in the hold of his ship, and Anassou, under the circumstances, naturally supposed they had been killed. The statement of the sachem, that the natives captured belonged to the river where Champlain then was, namely, the Kennebec, goes far to prove that Weymouth's explorations were in the Kennebec, or at least in the network of waters then comprehended under that appellation, and not in the Penobscot or in any other river farther east, as some historical writers have supposed.

It would appear that while the French were carefully surveying the coasts of New England, in order to fix upon an eligible site for a permanent colonial settlement, the English were likewise upon the ground, engaged in a similar investigation for the same purpose. From this period onward, for more than a century and a half, there was a perpetual conflict and struggle for territorial possession on the northern coast of America, between these two great nations, sometimes active and violent, and at others subsiding into a semi-slumber, but never ceasing until every acre of soil belonging to

[48] *Vide* Vol. II. p. 91, note 176.

to the French had been transferred to the Engliſh by a ſolemn international compact.

On this exploration, Champlain noticed along the coaſt from Kennebec to Cape Cod, and deſcribed ſeveral objects in natural hiſtory unknown in Europe, ſuch as the horſe-foot crab,[49] the black ſkimmer, and the wild turkey, the latter two of which have long ſince ceaſed to viſit this region.

CHAPTER IV.

ARRIVAL OF SUPPLIES AND REMOVAL TO PORT ROYAL. — DE MONTS RETURNS TO FRANCE. — SEARCH FOR MINES. — WINTER. — SCURVY. — LATE ARRIVAL OF SUPPLIES AND EXPLORATIONS ON THE COAST OF MASSACHUSETTS. — GLOCESTER HARBOR, STAY AT CHATHAM AND ATTACK OF THE SAVAGES. — WOOD'S HOLL. — RETURN TO ANNAPOLIS BASIN.

ON the 8th of Auguſt, the exploring party reached St. Croix. During their abſence, Pont Gravé had arrived from France with additional men and proviſions for the colony. As no ſatisfactory ſite had been found by De Monts in his recent tour along the coaſt, it was determined to remove the colony temporarily to Port Royal, ſituated within the bay now known as Annapolis Baſin. The buildings at St. Croix, with

[49] The Horſefoot-crab, *Limulus polyphemus*. Champlain gives the Indian name, *ſiguenoc*. Hariot ſaw, while at Roanoke Iſland, in 1585, and deſcribed the ſame cruſtacean under the name of *ſeekanauk*. The Indian word is obviouſly the ſame, the differing French and Engliſh orthography repreſenting the ſame ſound. It thus appears that this ſhell-fiſh was at that time known by the aborigines under the ſame name for at leaſt a thouſand miles along the Atlantic coaſt, from the Kennebec, in Maine, to Roanoke Iſland, in North Carolina. *Vide Hariot's Briefe and True Report of the New Found Land of Virginia*, Hakluyt, Vol. III. p. 334. See alſo Vol. II. of this work, notes 171, 172, 173, for ſome account of the black ſkimmer and the wild turkey.

with the exception of the ſtore-houſe, were taken down and tranſported to the bay. Champlain and Pont Gravé were ſent forward to ſelect a place for the ſettlement, which was fixed on the north ſide of the baſin, directly oppoſite to Goat Iſland, near or upon the preſent ſite of Lower Granville. The ſituation was protected from the piercing and dreaded winds of the northweſt by a lofty range of hills,[50] while it was elevated and commanded a charming view of the placid bay in front. The dwellings which they erected were arranged in the form of a quadrangle with an open court in the centre, as at St. Croix, while gardens and pleaſure-grounds were laid out by Champlain in the immediate vicinity.

When the work of the new ſettlement was well advanced, De Monts, having appointed Pont Gravé as his lieutenant, departed for France, where he hoped to obtain additional privileges from the government in his enterpriſe of planting a colony in the New World. Champlain preferred to remain, with the purpoſe of executing more fully his office as geographer to the king, by making diſcoveries on the Atlantic coaſt ſtill further to the ſouth.

From the beginning, the patentee had cheriſhed the deſire of diſcovering valuable mines ſomewhere on his domains, whoſe wealth, as well as that of the fur-trade, might defray ſome part of the heavy expenſes involved in his colonial enterpriſe. While ſeveral inveſtigations for this purpoſe had proved abortive, it was hoped that greater ſucceſs would be attained by ſearches along the upper part of the Bay of Fundy. Before the approach of winter, therefore, Champlain

[50] On Leſcarbot's map of 1609, this elevation is denominated *Mont de la Roque*. *Vide* alſo Vol. II. note 180.

plain and the miner, Maſter Jaques, a Sclavonian, made a tour to St. John, where they obtained the ſervices of the Indian chief, Secondon, to accompany them and point out the place where copper ore had been diſcovered at the Bay of Mines. The ſearch, thorough as was practicable under the circumſtances, was, in the main, unſucceſsful; the few ſpecimens which they found were meagre and inſignificant.

The winter at Port Royal was by no means ſo ſevere as the preceding one at St. Croix. The Indians brought in wild game from the foreſts. The colony had no want of fuel and pure water. But experience, bitter as it had been, did not yield to them the fruit of practical wiſdom. They referred their ſufferings to the climate, but took too little pains to protect themſelves againſt its rugged power. Their dwellings, haſtily thrown together, were cold and damp, ariſing from the green, unſeaſoned wood of which they were doubtleſs in part conſtructed, and from the ſtanding rain-water with which their foundations were at all times inundated, which was neither diverted by embankments nor drawn away by drainage. The dreaded *mal de la terre*, or ſcurvy, as might have been anticipated, made its appearance in the early part of the ſeaſon, cauſing the death of twelve out of the forty-five compriſing their whole number, while others were proſtrated by this painful, repulſive, and depreſſing diſeaſe.

The purpoſe of making further diſcoveries on the ſouthern coaſt, warmly cheriſhed by Champlain, and entering fully into the plans of De Monts, had not been forgotten. Three times during the early part of the ſummer they had equipped their barque, made up their party, and left Port Royal for this

this undertaking, and as many times had been driven back by the violence of the winds and the waves.

In the mean time, the ſupplies which had been promiſed and expected from France had not arrived. This naturally gave to Pont Gravé, the lieutenant, great anxiety, as without them it was clearly inexpedient to venture upon another winter in the wilds of La Cadie. It had been ſtipulated by De Monts, the patentee, that if ſuccors did not arrive before the middle of July, Pont Gravé ſhould make arrangements for the return of the colony by the fiſhing veſſels to be found at the Grand Banks. Accordingly, on the 17th of that month, Pont Gravé ſet ſail with the little colony in two barques, and proceeded towards Cape Breton, to ſeek a paſſage home. But De Monts had not been remiſs in his duty. He had, after many difficulties and delays, deſpatched a veſſel of a hundred and fifty tons, called the "Jonas," with fifty men and ample proviſions for the approaching winter. While Pont Gravé with his two barques and his retreating colony had run into Yarmouth Bay for repairs, the "Jonas" paſſed him unobſerved, and anchored in the baſin before the deſerted ſettlement of Port Royal. An advice-boat had, however, been wiſely deſpatched by the "Jonas" to reconnoitre the inlets along the ſhore, which fortunately intercepted the departing colony near Cape Sable, and, elated with freſh news from home, they joyfully returned to the quarters they had ſo recently abandoned.

In addition to a conſiderable number of artiſans and laborers for the colony, the "Jonas" had brought out Sieur De Poutrincourt, to remain as lieutenant of La Cadie, and likewiſe Marc Leſcarbot, a young attorney of Paris, who had already

already made ſome ſcholarly attainments, and who ſubſequently diſtinguiſhed himſelf as an author, eſpecially by the publication of a hiſtory of New France.

De Poutrincourt immediately addreſſed himſelf to putting all things in order at Port Royal, where it was obviouſly expedient for the colony to remain, at leaſt for the winter. As ſoon as the "Jonas" had been unladen, Pont Gravé and moſt of thoſe who had ſhared his recent hardſhips, departed in her for the ſhores of France. When the tenements had been cleanſed, refitted, and refurniſhed, and their proviſions had been ſafely ſtored, De Poutrincourt, by way of experiment, to teſt the character of the climate and the capability of the ſoil, deſpatched a ſquad of gardeners and farmers five miles up the river, to the grounds now occupied by the village of Annapolis,[51] where the ſoil was open, clear of foreſt trees, and eaſy of cultivation. They planted a great variety of ſeeds, wheat, rye, hemp, flax, and of garden eſculents, which grew with extraordinary luxuriance, but, as the ſeaſon was too late for any of them to ripen, the experiment failed either as a teſt of the ſoil or the climate.

On a former viſit in 1604, De Poutrincourt had conceived a great admiration for Annapolis baſin, its protected ſituation, its fine ſcenery, and its rich ſoil. He had a ſtrong deſire to bring his family there and make it his permanent abode. With this deſign, he had requeſted and received from De Monts a perſonal grant of this region, which had alſo been confirmed to him[52] by Henry IV. But De Monts wiſhed to plant

[51] Leſcarbot locates Poutrincourt's fort on the ſame ſpot which he called *Mariefort*, the ſite of the preſent village of Annapolis.

[52] "Doncques l'an 1607, tous les François eſtans reuenus (ainſi qu'a eſté dict) le Sieur de Potrincourt preſenta à feu d'immortelle memorie Henry le Grand la donnation à luy faicte

plant his La Cadian colony in a milder and more genial climate. He had therefore enjoined upon De Poutrincourt, as his lieutenant, on leaving France, to continue the explorations for the ſelection of a ſite ſtill farther to the ſouth. Accordingly, on the 5th of September, 1606, De Poutrincourt left Annapolis Baſin, which the French called Port Royal, in a barque of eighteen tons, to fulfil this injunction.

It was Champlain's opinion that they ought to ſail directly for Nauſet harbor, on Cape Cod, and commence their explorations where their ſearch had terminated the preceding year, and thus advance into a new region, which had not already been ſurveyed. But other counſels prevailed, and a large part of the time which could be ſpared for this inveſtigation was exhauſted before they reached the harbor of Nauſet. They made a brief viſit to the iſland of St. Croix, in which De Monts had wintered in 1604–5, touched alſo at Saco, where the Indians had already completed their harveſt, and the grapes at Bacchus Iſland were ripe and luſcious. Thence ſailing directly to Cape Anne, where, finding no ſafe roadſtead, they paſſed round to Glouceſter harbor, which they found ſpacious, well protected, with good depth of water, and which, for its great excellence and attractive ſcenery, they named *Beauport*, or the beautiful harbor. Here they remained ſeveral days. It was a native ſettlement, compriſing two hundred ſavages, who were cultivators of the ſoil, which was prolific in corn, beans, melons, pumpkins, tobacco, and grapes. The harbor was environed with fine foreſt trees, as hickory, oak, aſh, cypreſs, and ſaſſafras. Within the

faicte par le ſieur de Monts, requerant humblement Sa Majeſté de la ratifier. Le Roy eut pour agreable la dicte Requeſte," &c. *Relations des Jéſuites*, 1611, Quebec ed., Vol. I. p. 25. *Vide* Vol. II. of this work, p. 37.

the town there were ſeveral patches of cultivated land, which the Indians were gradually augmenting by felling the trees, burning the wood, and after a few years, aided by the natural proceſs of decay, eradicating the ſtumps. The French were kindly received and entertained with generous hoſpitality. Grapes juſt gathered from the vines, and ſquaſhes of ſeveral varieties, the trailing bean ſtill well known in New England, and the Jeruſalem artichoke criſp from the unexhauſted ſoil, were preſented as offerings of welcome to their gueſts. While theſe gifts were doubtleſs tokens of a genuine friendlineſs ſo far as the ſavages were capable of that virtue, the lurking ſpirit of deceit and treachery which had been inherited and foſtered by their habits and mode of life, could not be reſtrained.

The French barque was lying at anchor a ſhort diſtance northeaſt of Ten Pound Iſland. Its boat was undergoing repairs on a peninſula near by, now known as Rocky Neck, and the ſailors were waſhing their linen juſt at the point where the peninſula is united to the mainland. While Champlain was walking on this cauſeway, he obſerved about fifty ſavages, completely armed, cautiouſly ſcreening themſelves behind a clump of buſhes on the edge of Smith's Cove. As ſoon as they were aware that they were ſeen, they came forth, concealing their weapons as much as poſſible, and began to dance in token of a friendly greeting. But when they diſcovered De Poutrincourt in the wood near by, who had approached unobſerved, with eight armed muſketeers to diſperſe them in caſe of an attack, they immediately took to flight, and, ſcattering in all directions, made no further hoſtile demonſtrations.[53] This ſerio-comic incident did not interfere

[53] This ſcene is well repreſented on Champlain's map of *Beauport* or Gloucester Harbor. *Vide* Vol. II. p. 114.

terfere with the interchange of friendly offices between the two parties, and when the voyagers were about to leave, the ſavages urged them with great earneſtneſs to remain longer, aſſuring them that two thouſand of their friends would pay them a viſit the very next day. This invitation was, however, not heeded. In Champlain's opinion it was a *ruſe* contrived only to furniſh a freſh opportunity to attack and overpower them.

On the 30th of September, they left the harbor of Glouceſter, and, during the following night, ſailing in a ſoutherly direction, paſſing Brant Point, they found themſelves in the lower part of Cape Cod Bay. When the ſun roſe, a low, ſandy ſhore ſtretched before them. Sending their boat forward to a place where the ſhore ſeemed more elevated, they found deeper water and a harbor, into which they entered in five or ſix fathoms. They were welcomed by three Indian canoes. They found oyſters in ſuch quantities in this bay, and of ſuch excellent quality, that they named it *Le Port aux Huiſtres*,[54] or Oyſter Harbor. After a few hours, they weighed anchor, and directing their courſe north, a quarter northeaſt, with a favoring wind, ſoon doubled Cape Cod. The next day, the 2d of October, they arrived off Nauſet. De Poutrincourt, Champlain, and others entered the harbor in a ſmall boat, where they were greeted by a hundred and fifty ſavages with ſinging and dancing, according to their uſual cuſtom. After a brief viſit, they returned to the barque and continued their courſe along the ſandy ſhore. When near the heel of the cape, off Chatham, they found themſelves imperilled among breakers and ſand-banks, ſo dangerous as to

[54] *Le Port aux Huiſtres*, Barnſtable Harbor. *Vide* Vol. II. Note 208.

to render it inexpedient to attempt to land, even with a ſmall boat. The ſavages were obſerving them from the ſhore, and ſoon manned a canoe, and came to them with ſinging and demonſtrations of joy. From them, they learned that lower down a harbor would be found, where their barque might ride in ſafety. Proceeding, therefore, in the ſame direction, after many difficulties, they ſucceeded in rounding the peninſula of Monomoy, and finally, in the gray of the evening, caſt anchor in the offing near Chatham, now known as Old Stage Harbor. The next day they entered, paſſing between Harding's Beach Point and Morris Iſland, in two fathoms of water, and anchored in Stage Harbor. This harbor is about a mile long and half a mile wide, and at its weſtern extremity is connected by tide-water with Oyſter Pond, and with Mill Cove on the eaſt by Mitchell's River. Mooring their barque between theſe two arms of the harbor, towards the weſterly end, the explorers remained there about three weeks. It was the centre of an Indian ſettlement, containing five or ſix hundred perſons. Although it was now well into October, the natives of both ſexes were entirely naked, with the exception of a ſlight band about the loins. They ſubſiſted upon fiſh and the products of the ſoil. Indian corn was their ſtaple. It was ſecured in the autumn in bags made of braided graſs, and buried in the ſand-banks, and withdrawn as it was needed during the winter. The ſavages were of fine figure and of olive complexion. They adorned themſelves with an embroidery ſkilfully interwoven with feathers and beads, and dreſſed their hair in a variety of braids, like thoſe at Saco. Their dwellings were conical in ſhape, covered with thatch of ruſhes and corn-huſks, and ſurrounded by

by cultivated fields. Each cabin contained one or two beds, a kind of matting, two or three inches in thickneſs, ſpread upon a platform on which was a layer of elaſtic ſtaves, and the whole raiſed a foot from the ground. On theſe they ſecured refreſhing repoſe. Their chiefs neither exerciſed nor claimed any ſuperior authority, except in time of war. At all other times and in all other matters complete equality reigned throughout the tribe.

The ſtay at Chatham was neceſſarily prolonged in baking bread to ſerve the remainder of the voyage, and in repairing their barque, whoſe rudder had been badly ſhattered in the rough paſſage round the cape. For theſe purpoſes, a bakery and a forge were ſet up on ſhore, and a tent pitched for the convenience and protection of the workmen. While theſe works were in progreſs, De Poutrincourt, Champlain, and others made frequent excurſions into the interior, always with a guard of armed men, ſometimes making a circuit of twelve or fifteen miles. The explorers were faſcinated with all they ſaw. The aroma of the autumnal foreſt and the balmy air of October ſtimulated their ſenſes. The nut-trees were loaded with ripe fruit, and the rich cluſters of grapes were hanging temptingly upon the vines. Wild game was plentiful and delicious. The fiſh of the bay were sweet, delicate, and of many varieties. Nature, unaided by art, had thus ſupplied ſo many human wants that Champlain gravely put upon record his opinion that this would be a most excellent place in which to lay the foundations of a commonwealth, if the harbor were deeper and better protected at its mouth.

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days, the Indians, tempted by the implements which they ſaw about the forge and bakery, conceived the idea of taking forcible poſſeſſion of them, in order to appropriate them to their own uſe. As a preparation for this, and particularly to put themſelves in a favorable condition in caſe of an attack or repriſal, they were ſeen removing their women, children, and effects into the foreſts, and even taking down their cabins. De Poutrincourt, obſerving this, gave orders to the workmen to paſs their nights no longer on ſhore, but to go on board the barque to aſſure their perſonal ſafety. This command, however, was not obeyed. The next morning, at break of day, four hundred ſavages, creeping ſoftly over a hill in the rear, ſurrounded the tent, and poured ſuch a volley of arrows upon the defenceleſs workmen that eſcape was impoſſible. Three of them were killed upon the ſpot; a fourth was mortally and a fifth badly wounded. The alarm was given by the ſentinel on the barque. De Poutrincourt, Champlain, and the reſt, arouſed from their ſlumbers, ruſhed half-clad into the ſhip's boat, and haſtened to the reſcue. As ſoon as they touched the ſhore, the ſavages, fleet as the greyhound, eſcaped to the wood. Purſuit, under the circumſtances, was not to be made; and, if it had been, would have ended in their utter deſtruction. Freed from immediate danger, they collected the dead and gave them Chriſtian burial near the foot of a croſs, which had been erected the day before. While the ſervice of prayer and ſong was offered, the ſavages in the diſtance mocked them with deriſive attitudes and hideous howls. Three hours after the French had retired to their barque, the miſcreants returned, tore down the croſs, diſinterred the dead, and carried off the garments

garments in which they had been laid to reſt. They were immediately driven off by the French, the croſs was reſtored to its place, and the dead reinterred.

Before leaving Chatham, ſome anxiety was felt in regard to their ſafety in leaving the harbor, as the little barque had ſcarcely been able to weather the rough ſeas of Monomoy on their inward voyage. A boat had been ſent out in ſearch of a ſafer and a better roadway, which, creeping along by the ſhore ſixteen or eighteen miles, returned, announcing three fathoms of water, and neither bars nor reefs. On the 16th of October they gave their canvas to the breeze, and ſailed out of Stage Harbor, which they had named *Port Fortuné*,[55] an appellation probably ſuggeſted by their narrow eſcape in entering and by the bloody tragedy to which we have juſt referred. Having gone eighteen or twenty miles, they ſighted the iſland of Martha's Vineyard lying low in the diſtance before them, which they called *La Soupçonneuſe*, the ſuſpicious one, as they had ſeveral times been in doubt whether it were not a part of the mainland. A contrary wind forced them to return to their anchorage in Stage Harbor. On the 20th they ſet out again, and continued their courſe in a ſouthweſterly direction until they reached the entrance of Vineyard Sound. The rapid current of tide water flowing from Buzzard's Bay into the ſound through the rocky channel

[55] *Port Fortuné.* In giving this name there was doubtleſs an alluſion to the goddeſs FORTUNA of the ancients, whoſe office it was to diſpenſe riches and poverty, pleaſures and pains, bleſſings and calamities. They had experienced good and evil at her fickle hand. They had entered the harbor in peril and fear, but nevertheleſs in ſafety. They had ſuffered by the attack of the ſavages, but fortunately had eſcaped utter annihilation, which they might well have feared. It had been to them eminently the port of hazard or chance. *Vide* Vol. II. Note 231. *La Soupçonneuſe.* *Vide* Vol. II, Note 227.

nel between Nonameſſet and Wood's Holl, they took to be a river coming from the mainland, and named it *Rivière de Champlain.*

This point, in front of Wood's Holl, is the ſouthern limit of the French explorations on the coaſt of New England, reached by them on the 20th of October, 1606.

Encountering a ſtrong wind, approaching a gale, they were again forced to return to Stage Harbor, where they lingered two or three days, awaiting favoring winds for their return to the colony at the bay of Annapolis.

We regret to add that, while they were thus detained, under the very ſhadow of the croſs they had recently erected, the emblem of a faith that teaches love and forgiveneſs, they decoyed, under the guiſe of friendſhip, ſeveral of the poor ſavages into their power, and inhumanly butchered them in cold blood. This deed was perpetrated on the baſe principle of *lex talionis*, and yet they did not know, much leſs were they able to prove, that their victims were guilty or took any part in the late affray. No form of trial was obſerved, no witneſſes teſtified, and no judge adjudicated. It was a ſimple murder, for which we are ſure any Chriſtian's cheek would mantle with ſhame who ſhould offer for it any defence or apology.

When this piece of barbarity had been completed, the little French barque made its final exit from Stage Harbor, paſſed ſucceſsfully round the ſhoals of Monomoy, and anchored near Nauſet, where they remained a day or two, leaving on the 28th of October, and ſailing directly to Iſle Haute in Penobſcot Bay. They made brief ſtops at ſome of the iſlands at the mouth of the St. Croix, and at the Grand

Grand Manan, and arrived at Annapolis Baſin on the 14th of November, after an exceedingly rough paſſage and many hair-breadth eſcapes.

CHAPTER V.

RECEPTION OF THE EXPLORERS AT ANNAPOLIS BASIN. — A DREARY WINTER RELIEVED BY THE ORDER OF BON TEMPS. — NEWS FROM FRANCE. — BIRTH OF A PRINCE. — RUIN OF DE MONTS'S COMPANY. — TWO EXCURSIONS AND DEPARTURE FOR FRANCE. — CHAMPLAIN'S EXPLORATIONS COMPARED. — DE MONTS'S NEW CHARTER FOR ONE YEAR AND CHAMPLAIN'S RETURN IN 1608 TO NEW FRANCE AND THE FOUNDING OF QUEBEC. — CONSPIRACY OF DU VAL AND HIS EXECUTION.

WITH the voyage which we have deſcribed in the laſt chapter, Champlain terminated his explorations on the coaſt of New England. He never afterward ſtepped upon her ſoil. But he has left us, nevertheleſs, an invaluable record of the character, manners, and cuſtoms of the aborigines as he ſaw them all along from the eaſtern borders of Maine to the Vineyard Sound, and carefully ſtudied them during the period of three conſecutive years. Of the value of theſe explorations we need not here ſpeak at length. We ſhall refer to them again in the ſequel.

The return of the explorers was hailed with joy by the coloniſts at Annapolis Baſin. To give *éclat* to the occaſion, Leſcarbot compoſed a poem in French, which he recited at the head of a proceſſion which marched with gay repreſentations to the water's edge, to receive their returning friends. Over the gateway of the quadrangle formed by their dwellings,

ings, dignified by them as their fort, were the arms of France, wreathed in laurel, together with the motto of the king:—

DVO PROTEGIT VNVS.

Under this, the arms of De Monts were diſplayed, overlaid with evergreen, and bearing the following inſcription:—

DABIT DEVS HIS QVOQVE FINEM.

Then came the arms of Poutrincourt, crowned alſo with garlands, and inſcribed:—

IN VIA VIRTVTI NVLLA EST VIA.

When the excitement of the return had paſſed, the little ſettlement ſubſided into its uſual routine. The leiſure of the winter was devoted to various objects bearing upon the future proſperity of the colony. Among others, a corn mill was erected at a fall on Allen River, four or five miles from the ſettlement, a little eaſt of the preſent ſite of Annapolis. A road was commenced through the foreſt leading from Lower Granville towards the mouth of the bay. Two ſmall barques were built, to be in readineſs in anticipation of a failure to receive ſuccors the next ſummer, and new buildings were erected for the accommodation of a larger number of coloniſts. Still, there was much unoccupied time, and, ſhut out as they were from the uſual aſſociations of civilized life, it was hardly poſſible that the winter ſhould not ſeem long and dreary, eſpecially to the gentlemen.

To break up the monotony and add variety to the dull routine of their life, Champlain contrived what he called L'ORDRE DE BON TEMPS, or The Rule of Mirth, which was introduced and carried out with ſpirit and ſucceſs. The fifteen gentlemen who ſat at the table of De Poutrincourt, the governor,

ernor, compriſing the whole number of the order, took turns in performing the duties of ſteward and caterer, each holding the office for a ſingle day. With a laudable ambition, the Grand Maſter for the time being laid the foreſt and the ſea under contribution, and the table was conſtantly furniſhed with the moſt delicate and well ſeaſoned game, and the ſweeteſt as well as the choiceſt varieties of fish. The frequent change of office and the ingenuity diſplayed, offered at every repaſt, either in the viands or mode of cooking, ſomething new and tempting to the appetite. At each meal, a ceremony becoming the dignity of the order was ſtrictly obſerved. At a given ſignal, the whole company marched into the dining-hall, the Grand Maſter at the head, with his napkin over his ſhoulder, his ſtaff of office in his hand, and the glittering collar of the order about his neck, while the other members bore each in his hand a diſh loaded and ſmoking with ſome part of the delicious repaſt. A ceremony of a ſomewhat ſimilar character was obſerved at the bringing in of the fruit. At the cloſe of the day, when the laſt meal had been ſerved, and grace had been ſaid, the maſter formally completed his official duty by placing the collar of the order upon the neck of his ſucceſſor, at the ſame time preſenting to him a cup of wine, in which the two drank to each other's health and happineſs. Theſe ceremonies were generally witneſſed by thirty or forty ſavages, men, women, boys, and girls, who gazed in reſpectful admiration, not to ſay awe, upon this exhibition of European civilization. When Membertou,[56] the venerable chief of the tribe, or other ſagamores were

[56] *Membertou.* See Pierre Biard's account of his death in 1611. *Relations des Jéſuites.* Quebec ed., Vol. I. p. 32.

were preſent, they were invited to a ſeat at the table, while bread was gratuitouſly diſtributed to the reſt.

When the winter had paſſed, which proved to be an exceedingly mild one, all was aſtir in the little colony. The preparation of the ſoil, both in the gardens and in the larger fields, for the ſpring ſowing, created an agreeable excitement and healthy activity.

On the 24th May, in the midſt of theſe agricultural enterpriſes, a boat arrived in the bay, in charge of a young man from St. Malo, named Chevalier, who had come out in command of the "Jonas," which he had left at Canſeau engaged in fiſhing for the purpoſe of making up a return cargo of that commodity. Chevalier brought two items of intelligence of great intereſt to the coloniſts, but differing widely in their character. The one was the birth of a French prince, the Duke of Orleans; the other, that the company of De Monts had been broken up, his monopoly of the fur-trade withdrawn, and his colony ordered to return to France. The birth of a prince demanded expreſſions of joy, and the event was loyally celebrated by bonfires and a *Te Deum*. It was, however, giving a ſong when they would gladly have hung their harps upon the willows.

While the ſcheme of De Monts's colonial enterpriſe was defective, containing in itſelf a principle which muſt ſooner or later work its ruin, the diſappointment occaſioned by its ſudden termination was none the leſs painful and humiliating. The monopoly on which it was baſed could only be maintained by a degree of ſeverity and apparent injuſtice, which always creates enemies and engenders ſtrife. The ſeizure and confiſcation of ſeveral ſhips with their valuable cargoes on

on the ſhores of Nova Scotia, had awakened a perſonal hoſtility in influential circles in France, and the ſufferers were able, in turn, to ſtrike back a damaging blow upon the author of their loſſes. They eaſily and perhaps juſtly repreſented that the monopoly of the fur-trade ſecured to De Monts was ſapping the national commerce and diverting to perſonal emolument revenues that properly belonged to the ſtate. To an impoveriſhed ſovereign with an empty treaſury this appeal was irreſiſtible. The ſacredneſs of the king's commiſſion and the loſs to the patentee of the property already embarked in the enterpriſe had no weight in the royal ſcales. De Monts's privilege was revoked, with the tantalizing ſalvo of ſix thouſand livres in remuneration, to be collected at his own expenſe from unproductive ſources.

Under theſe circumſtances, no money for the payment of the workmen or proviſions for the coming winter had been ſent out, and De Poutrincourt, with great reluctance, proceeded to break up the eſtabliſhment. The goods and utenſils, as well as ſpecimens of the grain which they had raiſed, were to be carefully packed and ſent round to the harbor of Canſeau, to be ſhipped by the "Jonas," together with the whole body of the coloniſts, as ſoon as ſhe ſhould have received her cargo of fiſh.

While theſe preparations were in progreſs, two excurſions were made; one towards the weſt, and another northeaſterly towards the head of the Bay of Fundy. Leſcarbot accompanied the former, paſſing ſeveral days at St. John and the iſland of St. Croix, which was the weſterly limit of his explorations and perſonal knowledge of the American coaſt. The other excurſion was conducted by De Poutrincourt, accompanied

accompanied by Champlain, the object of which was to ſearch for ores of the precious metals, a ſpecies of wealth earneſtly coveted and overvalued at the court of France. They ſailed along the northern ſhores of Nova Scotia, entered Mines Channel, and anchored off Cape Fendu, now Angliciſed into the uneuphonious name of Cape Split. De Poutrincourt landed on this headland, and aſcended a ſteep and lofty ſummit which is not leſs than four hundred feet in height. Moſs ſeveral feet in thickneſs, the growth of centuries, had gathered upon it, and, when he ſtood upon the pinnacle, it yielded and trembled like gelatine under his feet. He found himſelf in a critical ſituation. From this giddy and unſtable height he had neither the ſkill or courage to return. After much anxiety, he was at length reſcued by ſome of his more nimble ſailors, who managed to put a hawſer over the ſummit, by means of which he ſafely deſcended. They named it *Cap de Poutrincourt.*

They proceeded as far as the head of the Baſin of Mines, but their ſearch for mineral wealth was fruitleſs, beyond a few meagre ſpecimens of copper. Their labors were chiefly rewarded by the diſcovery of a moſs-covered croſs in the laſt ſtages of decay, the relic of fiſhermen, or other Chriſtian mariners, who had, years before, been upon the coaſt.

The exploring parties having returned to Port Royal, to their ſettlement in what is now known as Annapolis Baſin, the bulk of the coloniſts departed in three barques for Canſeau, on the 30th of July, while De Poutrincourt and Champlain, with a complement of ſailors, remained ſome days longer, that they might take with them ſpecimens of wheat ſtill in the field and not yet entirely ripe.

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On the 11th of Auguſt they likewiſe bade adieu to Port Royal amid the tears of the aſſembled ſavages, with whom they had lived in friendſhip, and who were diſappointed and grieved at their departure. In paſſing round the peninſula of Nova Scotia in their little ſhallop, it was neceſſary to keep cloſe in upon the ſhore, which enabled Champlain, who had not before been upon the coaſt eaſt of La Hève, to make a careful ſurvey from that point to Canſeau, the reſults of which are fully ſtated in his notes, and delineated on his map of 1613.

On the 3d of September, the "Jonas," bearing away the little French colony, ſailed out of the harbor of Canſeau, and, directing its courſe towards the ſhores of France, arrived at Saint Malo on the 1ſt of October, 1607.

Champlain's explorations on what may be ſtrictly called the Atlantic coaſt of North America were now completed. He had landed at La Hève in Nova Scotia on the 8th of May, 1604, and had conſequently been in the country three years and nearly four months. During this period he had carefully examined the whole ſhore from Canſeau, the eaſtern limit of Nova Scotia, to the Vineyard Sound on the ſouthern boundaries of Maſſachuſetts. This was the moſt ample, accurate, and careful ſurvey of this region which was made during the whole period from the diſcovery of the continent in 1497 down to the eſtabliſhment of the Engliſh colony at Plymouth in 1620. A numerous train of navigators had paſſed along the coaſt of New England: Sebaſtian Cabot, Eſtévan Gomez, Jean Alfonſe, André Thevet, John Hawkins, Bartholomew Goſnold, Martin Pring, George Weymouth, Henry Hudſon, John Smith, and the reſt, but the knowledge

knowledge of the coaſt which we obtain from them is exceedingly meagre and unſatisfactory, eſpecially as compared with that contained in the full, ſpecific, and detailed deſcriptions, maps, and drawings left us by this diſtinguiſhed pioneer in the ſtudy and illuſtration of the geography of the New England coaſt.[57]

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[57] Had the diſtinguiſhed navigators who early viſited the coaſts of North America illuſtrated their narratives by drawings and maps, it would have added greatly to their value. Capt. John Smith's map, though neceſſarily indefinite and general, is indiſpenſable to the ſatisfactory ſtudy of his ſtill more indefinite "Deſcription of New England." It is, perhaps, a ſufficient apology for the vagueneſs of Smith's ſtatements, and therefore it ought to be borne in mind, that his work was originally written, probably, from memory, at leaſt for the moſt part, while he was a priſoner on board a French man-of-war in 1615. This may be inferred from the following ſtatement of Smith himſelf. In ſpeaking of the movement of the French fleet, he ſays: "Still we ſpent our time about the Iles neere *Fyall:* where to keepe my perplexed thoughts from too much meditation of my miſerable eſtate, I writ this diſcourſe." *Vide Deſcription of New England* by Capt. John Smith, London, 1616.

While the deſcriptions of our coaſt left by Champlain are invaluable to the hiſtorian and cannot well be overeſtimated, the proceſs of making theſe ſurveys, with his profound love of ſuch explorations and adventures, muſt have given him great perſonal ſatisfaction and enjoyment. It would be difficult to find any region of ſimilar extent that could offer, on a ſummer's excurſion, ſo much beauty to his eager and critical eye as this. The following deſcription of the Gulf of Maine, which comprehends the major part of the field ſurveyed by Champlain, that lying between the headlands of Cape Sable and Cape Cod, gives an excellent idea of the infinite variety and the unexpected and marvellous beauties that are ever revealing themſelves to the voyager as he paſſes along our coaſt: —

"This ſhoreland is alſo remarkable, being ſo battered and frayed by ſea and ſtorm, and worn perhaps by arctic currents and glacier beds, that its natural front of ſome 250 miles is multiplied to an extent of not leſs than 2,500 miles of ſalt-water line; while at an average diſtance of about three miles from the mainland, ſtretches a chain of outpoſts conſiſting of more than three hundred iſlands, fragments of the main, ſtriking in their diverſity on the weſt; low, wooded and graſſy to the water's edge, and riſing eaſtward through bolder types to the crowns and cliffs of Mount Deſert and Quoddy Head, an advancing ſeries from beauty to ſublimity; and behind all theſe are deep baſins and broad river-mouths, affording convenient and ſpacious harbors, in many of which the navies of nations might ſafely ride at anchor. . . . Eſpecially attractive was the region between the Piſcataqua and Penobſcot, in its marvellous beauty of ſhore and ſea, of iſland and inlet, of bay and river and harbor, ſurpaſſing any other equally extenſive portion of the Atlantic coaſt, and compared

The winter of 1607–8 Champlain paſſed in France, where he was pleaſantly occupied in ſocial recreations which were eſpecially agreeable to him after an abſence of more than three years, and in recounting to eager liſteners his experiences in the New World. He took an early opportunity to lay before Monſieur de Monts the reſults of the explorations which he had made in La Cadie ſince the departure of the latter from Annapolis Baſin in the autumn of 1605, illuſtrating his narrative by maps and drawings which he had prepared of the bays and harbors on the coaſt of Nova Scotia, New Brunſwick, and New England.

While moſt men would have been diſheartened by the oppoſition which he encountered, the mind of De Monts was, nevertheleſs, rekindled by the recitals of Champlain with freſh zeal in the enterpriſe which he had undertaken. The viſion of building up a vaſt territorial eſtabliſhment, contemplated by his charter of 1604, with his own perſonal aggrandizement and that of his family, had undoubtedly vaniſhed. But he clung, nevertheleſs, with extraordinary tenacity to his original purpoſe of planting a colony in the New World. This he reſolved to do in the face of many obſtacles, and notwithſtanding the withdrawment of the royal protection and bounty. The generous heart of Henry IV. was by no means inſenſible to the merits of his faithful ſubject, and, on his ſolicitation, he granted to him letters-patent for the excluſive right of trade in America, but for the ſpace only of a ſingle year. With this ſmall boon from the royal hand, De Monts haſtened to fit out two veſſels for the expedition. One

pared by travellers earlieſt and lateſt, with the famed archipelago of the Ægean." *Vide Maine, Her Place in History*, by Joſhua L. Chamberlain, LL.D., Preſident of Bowdoin College, Auguſta, 1877, pp. 4–5.

One was to be commanded by Pont Gravé, who was to devote his undivided attention to trade with the Indians for furs and peltry; the other was to convey men and material for a colonial plantation.

Champlain, whoſe energy, zeal, and prudence had impreſſed themſelves upon the mind of De Monts, was appointed lieutenant of the expedition, and intruſted with the civil adminiſtration, having a ſufficient number of men for all needed defence againſt ſavage intruders, Baſque fiſhermen, or interloping fur-traders.

On the 13th of April, 1608, Champlain left the port of Honfleur, and arrived at the harbor of Tadouſſac on the 3d of June. Here he found Pont Gravé, who had preceded him by a few days in the voyage, in trouble with a Baſque fur-trader. The latter had perſiſted in carrying on his traffic, notwithſtanding the royal commiſſion to the contrary, and had ſucceeded in diſabling Pont Gravé, who had but little power of reſiſtance, killing one of his men, ſeriouſly wounding Pont Gravé himſelf, as well as ſeveral others, and had forcibly taken poſſeſſion of his whole armament.

When Champlain had made full inquiries into all the circumſtances, he ſaw clearly that the difficulty muſt be compromiſed; that the exerciſe of force in overcoming the intruding Baſque would effectually break up his plans for the year, and bring utter and final ruin upon his undertaking. He wiſely decided to pocket the inſult, and let juſtice ſlumber for the preſent. He conſequently required the Baſque, who began to ſee more clearly the illegality of his courſe, to enter into a written agreement with Pont Gravé that neither ſhould interfere with the other while they remained in the country,

country, and that they ſhould leave their differences to be ſettled in the courts on their return to France.

Having thus poured oil upon the troubled waters, Champlain proceeded to carry out his plans for the location and eſtabliſhment of his colony. The difficult navigation of the St. Lawrence above Tadouſſac was well known to him. The dangers of its numberleſs rocks, ſand-bars, and fluctuating channels had been made familiar to him by the voyage of 1603. He determined, therefore, to leave his veſſel in the harbor of Tadouſſac, and conſtruct a ſmall barque of twelve or fourteen tons, in which to aſcend the river and fix upon a place of ſettlement.

While the work was in progreſs, Champlain reconnoitred the neighborhood, collecting much geographical information from the Indians relating to Lake St. John and a traditionary ſalt ſea far to the north, exploring the Saguenay for ſome diſtance, of which he has given us a deſcription ſo accurate and ſo carefully drawn that it needs little reviſion after the lapſe of two hundred and ſeventy years.

On the laſt of June, the barque was completed, and Champlain, with a complement of men and material, took his departure. As he glided along in his little craft, he was exhilarated by the fragrance of the atmoſphere, the bright coloring of the foliage, the bold, picturesque ſcenery that conſtantly revealed itſelf on both ſides of the river. The lofty mountains, the expanding valleys, the luxuriant foreſts, the bold headlands, the enchanting little bays and inlets, and the numerous tributaries burſting into the broad waters of the St. Lawrence, were all carefully examined and noted in his journal. The expedition ſeemed more like a holiday excurſion

excurſion than the grave prelude to the founding of a city to be renowned in the hiſtory of the continent.

On the fourth day, they approached the ſite of the preſent city of Quebec. The expanſe of the river had hitherto been from eight to thirteen miles. Here a lofty headland, approaching from the interior, advances upon the river and forces it into a narrow channel of three-fourths of a mile in width. The river St. Charles, a ſmall ſtream flowing from the northweſt, uniting here with the St. Lawrence, forms a baſin below the promontory, ſpreading out two miles in one direction and four in another. The rocky headland, jutting out upon the river, riſes up nearly perpendicularly, and to a height of three hundred and forty-five feet, commanding from its ſummit a view of water, foreſt and mountain of ſurpaſſing grandeur and beauty. A narrow belt of fertile land formed by the crumbling *débris* of ages, ſtretches along between the water's edge and the baſe of the precipice, and was then covered with a luxurious growth of nut-trees. The magnificent baſin below, the protecting wall of the headland in the rear, the deep water of the river in front, rendered this ſpot peculiarly attractive. Here on this narrow plateau, Champlain reſolved to place his ſettlement, and forthwith began the work of felling trees, excavating cellars, and conſtructing houſes.

On the 3d day of July, 1608, Champlain laid the foundation of Quebec. The name which he gave to it had been applied to it by the ſavages long before. It is derived from the Algonquin word *quebio*, or *quebec*, ſignifying a *narrowing*, and was deſcriptive of the form which the river takes at that place, to which we have already referred.

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A few days after their arrival, an event occurred of exciting intereſt to Champlain and his little colony. One of their number, Jean du Val, an abandoned wretch, who poſſeſſed a large ſhare of that ſtrange magnetic power which ſome men have over the minds of others, had ſo ſkilfully practiſed upon the credulity of his comrades that he had drawn them all into a ſcheme which, aſide from its atrocity, was weak and ill-contrived at every point. It was nothing leſs than a plan to aſſaſſinate Champlain, ſeize the property belonging to the expedition, and ſell it to the Baſque fur-traders at Tadouſſac, under the hallucination that they ſhould be enriched by the pillage. They had even entered into a ſolemn compact, and whoever revealed the ſecret was to be viſited by inſtant death. Their purpoſe was to ſeize Champlain in an unguarded moment and ſtrangle him, or to ſhoot him in the confuſion of a falſe alarm to be raiſed in the night by themſelves. But before the plan was fully ripe for execution, a barque unexpectedly arrived from Tadouſſac with an inſtalment of utenſils and proviſions for the colony. One of the men, Antoine Natel, who had entered into the conſpiracy with reluctance, and had been reſtrained from a diſcloſure by fear, ſummoned courage to reveal the plot to the pilot of the boat, firſt ſecuring from him the aſſurance that he ſhould be ſhielded from the vengeance of his fellow-conſpirators. The ſecret was forthwith made known to Champlain, who, by a ſtroke of fineſſe, placed himſelf beyond danger before he ſlept. At his ſuggeſtion, the four leading ſpirits of the plot were invited by one of the ſailors to a ſocial repaſt on the barque, at which two bottles of wine which he pretended had been given him at Tadouſſac were to be uncorked. In the midſt of

of the feſtivities, the "four worthy heads of the conſpiracy," as Champlain ſatirically calls them, were ſuddenly clapped into irons. It was now late in the evening, but Champlain nevertheleſs ſummoned all the reſt of the men into his preſence, and offered them a full pardon, on condition that they would diſcloſe the whole ſcheme and the motives which had induced them to engage in it. This they were eager to do, as they now began to comprehend the dangerous compact into which they had entered, and the peril which threatened their own lives. Theſe preliminary inveſtigations rendered it obvious to Champlain that grave conſequences muſt follow, and he therefore proceeded with great caution.

The next day, he took the depoſitions of the pardoned men, carefully reducing them to writing. He then departed for Tadouſſac, taking the four conſpirators with him. On conſultation, he decided to leave them there, where they could be more ſafely guarded until Pont Gravé and the principal men of the expedition could return with them to Quebec, where he propoſed to give them a more public and formal trial. This was accordingly done. The priſoners were duly confronted with the witneſſes. They denied nothing, but freely admitted their guilt. With the advice and concurrence of Pont Gravé, the pilot, ſurgeon, mate, boatſwain, and others, Champlain condemned the four conſpirators to be hung; three of them, however, to be ſent home for a confirmation or reviſion of their ſentence by the authorities in France, while the ſentence of Jean Du Val, the arch-plotter of the malicious ſcheme, was duly executed in their preſence, with all the ſolemn forms and ceremonies uſual on ſuch occaſions. Agreeably to a cuſtom of that period,

period, the ghaſtly head of Du Val was elevated on the higheſt pinnacle of the fort at Quebec, looking down and uttering its ſilent warning to the buſy coloniſts below; the grim ſignal to all beholders, that "the way of the tranſgreſſor is hard."

The cataſtrophe, had not the plot been nipped in the bud, would have been ſure to take place. The final purpoſe of the conſpirators might not have been realized; it muſt have been defeated at a later ſtage; but the hand of Du Val, prompted by a malignant nature, was nerved to ſtrike a fatal blow, and the life of Champlain would have been ſacrificed at the opening of the tragic ſcene.

The puniſhment of Du Val, in its character and degree, was not only agreeable to the civil policy of the age, but was neceſſary for the protection of life and the maintenance of order and diſcipline in the colony. A conſpiracy on land, under the preſent circumſtances, was as dangerous as a mutiny at ſea; and the calm, careful, and dignified procedure of Champlain in firmly viſiting upon the criminal a ſevere though merited puniſhment, reveals the wiſdom, prudence, and humanity which were prominent elements in his mental and moral conſtitution.

CHAPTER VI.

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ERECTION OF BUILDINGS AT QUEBEC. — THE SCURVY AND THE STARVING SAVAGES. — DISCOVERY OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN, AND THE BATTLE AT TICONDEROGA. — CRUELTIES INFLICTED ON PRISONERS OF WAR, AND THE FESTIVAL AFTER VICTORY. — CHAMPLAIN'S RETURN TO FRANCE AND HIS INTERVIEW WITH HENRY IV. — VOYAGE TO NEW FRANCE AND PLANS OF DISCOVERY. — BATTLE WITH THE IROQUOIS NEAR THE MOUTH OF THE RICHELIEU. — REPAIR OF BUILDINGS AT QUEBEC. — NEWS OF THE ASSASSINATION OF HENRY IV. — CHAMPLAIN'S RETURN TO FRANCE AND HIS CONTRACT OF MARRIAGE. — VOYAGE TO QUEBEC IN 1611.

ON the 18th of September, 1608, Pont Gravé, having obtained his cargo of furs and peltry, ſailed for France.

The autumn was fully occupied by Champlain and his little band of coloniſts in completing the buildings and in making ſuch other proviſions as were needed againſt the rigors of the approaching winter. From the foreſt trees beams were hewed into ſhape with the axe, boards and plank were cut from the green wood with the ſaw, walls were reared from the rough ſtones gathered at the baſe of the cliff, and plots of land were cleared near the ſettlement, where wheat and rye were ſown and grapevines planted, which ſucceſsfully teſted the good qualities of the ſoil and climate.

Three lodging-houſes were erected on the northweſt angle formed by the junction of the preſent ſtreets St. Peter and Sous le Fort, near or on the ſite of the Church of Notre Dame. Adjoining, was a ſtore-houſe. The whole was ſurrounded by a moat fifteen feet wide and ſix feet deep, thus giving

giving the ſettlement the character of a fort; a wiſe precaution againſt a ſudden attack of the treacherous ſavages.[58]

At length the ſunny days of autumn were gone, and the winter, with its fierce winds and its penetrating froſts and deep banks of ſnow, was upon them. Little occupation could be furniſhed for the twenty-eight men that compoſed the colony. Their idleneſs ſoon brought a deſpondency that hung like a pall upon their ſpirits. In February, diſeaſe made its approach. It had not been expected. Every defence within their knowledge had been provided againſt it. Their houſes were cloſely ſealed and warm; their clothing was abundant; their food nutritious and plenty. But a diet too excluſively of ſalt meat had, notwithſtanding, in the opinion of Champlain, and we may add the want, probably, of exerciſe and the preſence of bad air, induced the *mal de la terre* or ſcurvy, and it made fearful havoc with his men. Twenty, five out of each ſeven of their whole number, had been carried to their graves before the middle of April, and half of the remaining eight had been attacked by the loathſome ſcourge.

While the mind of Champlain was oppreſſed by the ſuffering and death that were at all times preſent in their abode, his ſympathies were ſtill further taxed by the condition of the ſavages, who gathered in great numbers about the ſettlement, in the moſt abject miſery and in the laſt ſtages of ſtarvation. As Champlain could only furniſh them, from his limited ſtores, temporary and partial relief, it was the more painful to ſee them ſlowly dragging their feeble frames about in

[58] The ſituation of Quebec and an engraved repreſentation of the buildings may be ſeen by reference to Vol II. pp. 175, 183.

in the ſnow, gathering up and devouring with avidity diſcarded meat in which the proceſs of decompoſition was far advanced, and which was already too potent with the ſtench of decay to be approached by his men.

Beyond the ravages of diſeaſe [59] and the ſtarving Indians, Champlain adds nothing more to complete the gloomy picture of his firſt winter in Quebec. The gales of wind that ſwept round the wall of precipice that protected them in the rear, the drifts of ſnow that were piled up in freſh inſtalments with every ſtorm about their dwelling, the biting froſt, more piercing and benumbing than they had ever experienced before, the unceaſing groans of the ſick within, the ſemi-weekly proceſſion bearing one after another of their diminiſhing numbers to the grave, the myſtery that hung over the diſeaſe, and the impotency of all remedies, we know were prominent features in the picture. But the imagination ſeeks in vain for more than a ſingle circumſtance that could throw upon it a beam of modifying and ſoftening light, and that was the preſence of the brave Champlain, who bore all without a murmur, and, we may be ſure, without a throb of unmanly fear or a ſenſation of cowardly diſcontent.

But the winter, as all winters do, at length melted reluctantly away, and the ſpring came with its verdure and its new life. The ſpirits of the little remnant of a colony began to revive. Eight of the twenty-eight with which the winter began were ſtill ſurviving. Four had eſcaped attack, and four were rejoicing convaleſcents.

On the 5th of June, news came that Pont Gravé had arrived from France, and was then at Tadouſſac, whither Champlain

[59] Scurvy, or *mal de la terre.* — *Vide* Vol. II. note 105.

Champlain immediately repaired to confer with him, and particularly to make arrangements at the earlieſt poſſible moment for an exploring expedition into the interior, an undertaking which De Monts had enjoined upon him, and which was not only agreeable to his own wiſhes, but was a kind of enterpriſe which had been a paſſion with him from his youth.

In anticipation of a tour of exploration during the approaching ſummer, Champlain had already aſcertained from the Indians that, lying far to the ſouthweſt, was an extenſive lake, famous among the ſavages, containing many fair iſlands, and ſurrounded by a beautiful and productive country. Having expreſſed a deſire to viſit this region, the Indians readily offered to act as guides, provided, nevertheleſs, that he would aid them in a warlike raid upon their enemies, the Iroquois, the tribe known to us as the Mohawks, whoſe homes were beyond the lake in queſtion. Champlain without heſitation acceded to the condition exacted, but with little appreciation, as we confidently believe, of the bitter conſequences that were deſtined to follow the alliance thus inaugurated; from which, in after years, it was inexpedient, if not impoſſible, to recede.

Having fitted out a ſhallop, Champlain left Quebec on his tour of exploration on the 18th of June, 1609, with eleven men, together with a party of Montagnais, a tribe of Indians who, in their hunting and fiſhing excurſions, roamed over an indefinite region on the north ſide of the St. Lawrence, but whoſe headquarters were at Tadouſſac. After aſcending the St. Lawrence about ſixty miles, he came upon an encampment of two hundred or three hundred ſavages,

Hurons [60] and Algonquins, the former dwelling on the borders of the lake of the ſame name, the latter on the upper waters of the Ottawa. They had learned ſomething of the French from a ſon of one of their chiefs, who had been at Quebec the preceding autumn, and were now on their way to enter into an alliance with the French againſt the Iroquois. After formal negotiations and a return to Quebec to viſit the French ſettlement and witneſs the effect of their firearms, of which they had heard and which greatly excited their curioſity, and after the uſual ceremonies of feaſting and dancing, the whole party proceeded up the river until they reached the mouth of the Richelieu. Here they remained two days, as gueſts of the Indians, feaſting upon fiſh, veniſon, and water-fowl.

While theſe feſtivities were in progreſs, a diſagreement aroſe among the ſavages, and the bulk of them, including the women, returned to their homes. Sixty warriors, however, ſome from each of the three allied tribes, proceeded up the Richelieu with Champlain. At the Falls of Chambly, finding it impoſſible for the ſhallop to paſs them, he directed the pilot to return with it to Quebec, leaving only two men from the crew to accompany him on the remainder of the expedition. From this point, Champlain and his two brave companions entruſted themſelves to the birch canoe of the ſavages. For a ſhort diſtance, the canoes, twenty-four in all, were

[60] *Hurons.* "The word Huron comes from the French, who ſeeing theſe Indians with the hair cut very ſhort, and ſtanding up in a ſtrange faſhion, giving them a fearful air, cried out, the firſt time they ſaw them, *Quelle hures!* what boars' heads! and ſo got to call them Hurons." — *Charlevoix's His. New France*, Shea's Trans. Vol. II. p. 71. *Vide Relations des Jéſuites*, Quebec ed. Vol. I. 1639, p. 51; alſo note 321, Vol. II. of this work, for brief notice of the Algonquins and other tribes.

were tranſported by land. The fall and rapids, extending as far as St. John, were at length paſſed. They then proceeded up the river, and, entering the lake which now bears the name of Champlain, crept along the weſtern bank, advancing after the firſt few days only in the night, hiding themſelves during the day in the thickets on the ſhore to avoid the obſervation of their enemies, whom they were now liable at any moment to meet.

On the evening of the 29th of July, at about ten o'clock, when the allies were gliding noiſeleſſly along in reſtrained ſilence, as they approached the little cape that juts out into the lake at Ticonderoga, near where Fort Carillon was afterwards erected by the French, and where its ruins are ſtill to be ſeen,[61] they diſcovered a flotilla of heavy canoes, of oaken bark, containing not far from two hundred Iroquois warriors, armed and impatient for conflict. A furor and frenzy as of ſo many enraged tigers inſtantly ſeized both parties. Champlain and his allies withdrew a ſhort diſtance, an arrow's range from the ſhore, faſtening their canoes by poles to keep them together, while the Iroquois haſtened to the water's edge, drew up their canoes ſide by ſide, and began to fell trees and conſtruct a barricade, which they were well able to accompliſh with marvellous facility and ſkill. Two boats were ſent out to inquire if the Iroquois deſired to fight, to which they replied that they wanted nothing ſo much, and, as

[61] For the identification of the ſite of this battle, ſee Vol. II. p. 223, note 348. It is eminently hiſtorical ground. Near it Fort Carrillon was erected by the French in 1756. Here Abercrombie was defeated by Montcalm in 1758. Lord Amherſt captured the fort in 1759. Again it was taken from the Engliſh by the patriot Ethan Allen in 1775. It was evacuated by St. Clair when environed by Burgoyne in 1777, and now for a complete century it has been viſited by the touriſt as a ruin memorable for its many hiſtorical aſſociations.

as it was now dark, at ſunriſe the next morning they would give them battle. The whole night was ſpent by both parties in loud and tumultuous boaſting, berating each other in the roundeſt terms which their ſavage vocabulary could furniſh, inſultingly charging each other with cowardice and weakneſs, and declaring that they would prove the truth of their aſſertions to their utter ruin the next morning.

When the ſun began to gild the diſtant mountain-tops, the combatants were ready for the fray. Champlain and his two companions, each lying low in ſeparate canoes of the Montagnais, put on, as beſt they could, the light armor in uſe at that period, and, taking the ſhort hand-gun, or arquebus, went on ſhore, concealing themſelves as much as poſſible from the enemy. As ſoon as all had landed, the two parties haſtily approached each other, moving with a firm and determined tread. The allies, who had become fully aware of the deadly character of the hand-gun and were anxious to ſee an exhibition of its myſterious power, promptly opened their ranks, and Champlain marched forward in front, until he was within thirty paces of the Iroquois. When they ſaw him, attracted by his pale face and ſtrange armor, they halted and gazed at him in a calm bewilderment for ſome ſeconds. Three Iroquois chiefs, tall and athletic, ſtood in front, and could be eaſily diſtinguiſhed by the lofty plumes that waved above their heads. They began at once to make ready for a diſcharge of arrows. At the ſame inſtant, Champlain, perceiving this movement, levelled his piece, which had been loaded with four balls, and two chiefs fell dead, and another ſavage was mortally wounded by the ſame ſhot. At this, the allies raiſed a ſhout rivalling thunder in its ſtunning effect. From both

both ſides the whizzing arrows filled the air. The two French arquebuſiers, from their ambuſcade in the thicket, immediately attacked in flank, pouring a deadly fire upon the enemy's right. The exploſion of the firearms, altogether new to the Iroquois, the fatal effects that inſtantly followed, their chiefs lying dead at their feet and others faſt falling, threw them into a tumultuous panic. They at once abandoned every thing, arms, proviſions, boats, and camp, and without any impediment, the naked ſavages fled through the foreſt with the fleetneſs of the terrified deer. Champlain and his allies purſued them a mile and a half, or to the firſt fall in the little ſtream that connects Lake Champlain [62] and Lake George.[63] The victory was complete. The allies gathered

[62] This lake, diſcovered and explored by Champlain, is ninety miles in length. Through its centre runs the boundary line between the State of New York and that of Vermont. From its diſcovery to the preſent time it has appropriately borne the honored name of Champlain. For its Indian name, *Caniaderiguarûnte*, ſee Vol. II. note 349. According to Mr. Shea the Mohawk name of Lake Champlain is *Caniatagaronte*. — *Vide Shea's Charlevoix*, Vol. II. p. 18.

Lake Champlain and the Hudſon River were both diſcovered the ſame year, and were ſeverally named after the diſtinguiſhed navigators by whom they were explored. Champlain completed his explorations at Ticonderoga, on the 30th of July, 1609, and Hudſon reached the higheſt point made by him on the river, near Albany, on the 22d of September of the ſame year. — *Vide* Vol. II. p. 219. Alſo *The Third Voyage of Maſter Henry Hudſon*, written by Robert Ivet of Lime-houſe, *Collections of New York His. Society*, Vol. I. p. 140.

[63] *Lake George.* The Jeſuit Father, Iſaac Jogues, having been ſummoned in 1646 to viſit the Mohawks, to attend to the formalities of ratifying a treaty of peace which had been concluded with them, paſſing by canoe up the Richelieu, through Lake Champlain, and arriving at the end of Lake George on the 29th of May, the eve of Corpus Chriſti, a feſtival celebrated by the Roman Church on the Thurſday after Trinity Sunday, in honor of the Holy Euchariſt or the Lord's Supper, named this lake LAC DU SAINT SACREMENT. The following is from the Jeſuit Relation of 1646 by Pere Hieroſme Lalemant. Ils arriuèrent la veille du S. Sacrement au bout du lac qui eſt ioint au grand lac de Champlain. Les Iroquois le nomment Andiatarocté, comme qui diroit, là où le lac ſe ferme. Le Pere le nomma le lac du S. Sacrement. — *Relations des Jéſuites*, Quebec ed. Vol. II. 1646, p. 15.

Two important facts are here made perfectly plain; viz. that the original Indian name of the lake was *Andiatarocté*, and

gathered at the ſcene of conflict, danced and ſang in triumph, collected and appropriated the abandoned armor, feaſted on the proviſions left by the Iroquois, and, within three hours, with ten or twelve priſoners, were ſailing down the lake on their homeward voyage.

After they had rowed about eight leagues, according to Champlain's eſtimate, they encamped for the night. A prevailing characteriſtic of the ſavages on the eaſtern coaſt, in the early hiſtory of America, was the barbarous cruelties which they inflicted upon their priſoners of war.[64] They did not depart from their uſual cuſtom in the preſent inſtance. Having kindled a fire, they ſelected a victim, and proceeded to excoriate his back with red-hot burning brands, and to apply live coals to the ends of his fingers, where they would

and that the French named it *Lac du Saint Sacrement* becauſe they arrived on its ſhores on the eve of the feſtival celebrated in honor of the Euchariſt or the Lord's Supper. Notwithſtanding this very plain ſtatement, it has been affirmed without any hiſtorical foundation whatever, that the original Indian name of this lake was *Horican*, and that the Jeſuit miſſionaries, having ſelected it for the typical purification of baptiſm on account of its limpid waters, named it *Lac du Saint Sacrement*. This perverſion of hiſtory originated in the extraordinary declaration of Mr. James Fenimore Cooper, in his novel entitled "The Laſt of the Mohicans," in which theſe two erroneous ſtatements are given as veritable hiſtory. This new diſcovery by Cooper was heralded by the public journals, ſcholars were deceived, and the bold impoſition was ſo ſuccefsful that it was even introduced into a meritorious poem in which the Horican of the ancient tribes and the baptiſmal waters of the limpid lake are handled with ſkill and effect. Twenty-five years after the writing of his novel, Mr. Cooper's conſcience began ſeriouſly to trouble him, and he publicly confeſſed, in a preface to "The Laſt of the Mohicans," that the name Horican had been firſt applied to the lake by himſelf, and without any hiſtorical authority. He is ſilent as to the reaſon he had aſſigned for the French name of the lake, which was probably an aſſumption growing out of his ignorance of its meaning. — *Vide The Laſt of The Mohicans*, by J. Fenimore Cooper, Gregory's ed., New York, 1864, pp. ix–x and 12.

[64] "There are certain general cuſtoms which mark the California Indians, as, the non-uſe of torture on priſoners of war," &c. — *Vide The Tribes of California*, by Stephen Powers, in *Contributions to North American Ethnology*, Vol. III. p. 15. *Tribes of Waſhington and Oregon*, by George Gibbs, *idem*, Vol. I. p. 192.

would give the moſt exquiſite pain. They tore out his finger-nails, and, with ſharp ſlivers of wood, pierced his wriſts and rudely forced out the quivering ſinews. They flayed off the ſkin from the top of his head,[65] and poured upon the bleeding wound a ſtream of boiling melted gum. Champlain remonſtrated in vain. The piteous cries of the poor, tormented victim excited his unavailing compaſſion, and he turned away in anger and diſguſt. At length, when theſe inhuman tortures had been carried as far as they deſired, Champlain was permitted, at his earneſt requeſt, with a muſket-ſhot to put an end to his ſufferings. But this was not the termination of the horrid performance. The dead victim was hacked in pieces, his heart ſevered into parts, and the ſurviving priſoners were ordered to eat it. This was too revolting to their nature, degraded as it was; they were forced, however, to take it into their mouths, but they would do no more, and their guard of more compaſſionate Algonquins allowed them to caſt it into the lake.

This exhibition of ſavage cruelty was not extraordinary, but according to their uſual cuſtom. It was equalled, and, if poſſible, even ſurpaſſed, in the treatment of captives generally

[65] "It has been erroneouſly aſſerted that the practice of ſcalping did not prevail among the Indians before the advent of Europeans. In 1535, Cartier ſaw five ſcalps at Quebec, dried and ſtretched on hoops. In 1564, Laudonnière ſaw them among the Indians of Florida. The Algonquins of New England and Nova Scotia were accuſtomed to cut off and carry away the head, which they afterwards ſcalped. Thoſe of Canada, it ſeems, ſometimes ſcalped the dead bodies on the field. The Algonquin practice of carrying off heads as trophies is mentioned by Lalemant, Roger Williams, Leſcarbot, and Champlain." — *Vide Pioneers of France in the New World*, by Francis Parkman, Boston, 1874, p. 322. The practice of the tribes on the Pacific coaſt is different. "In war they do not take ſcalps, but decapitate the ſlain and bring in the heads as trophies." — *Contributions to Am. Ethnology*, by Stephen Powers, Waſhington, 1877, Vol. III. pp. 21, 221. *Vide* Vol. I. p. 192. The Yuki are an exception. Vol. III. p. 129.

generally, and eſpecially of the Jeſuit miſſionaries in after years.[66]

When the party arrived at the Falls of Chambly, the Hurons and Algonquins left the river, in order to reach their homes by a ſhorter way, tranſporting their canoes and effects over land to the St. Lawrence near Montreal, while the reſt continued their journey down the Richelieu and the St. Lawrence to Tadouſſac, where their families were encamped, waiting to join in the uſual ceremonies and rejoicings after a great victory.

When the returning warriors approached Tadouſſac, they hung aloft on the prow of their canoes the ſcalped heads of thoſe whom they had ſlain, decorated with beads which they had begged from the French for this purpoſe, and with a ſavage grace preſented theſe ghaſtly trophies to their wives and daughters, who, laying aſide their garments, eagerly ſwam out to obtain the precious mementoes, which they hung about their necks and bore rejoicing to the ſhore, where they further teſtified their ſatisfaction by dancing and ſinging.

After a few days, Champlain repaired to Quebec, and early in September decided to return with Pont Gravé to France. All arrangements were ſpeedily made for that purpoſe. Fifteen men were left to paſs the winter at Quebec, in charge of Captain Pierre Chavin of Dieppe. On the 5th of September they ſailed from Tadouſſac, and, lingering ſome days at Iſle Percé, arrived at Honfleur on the 13th of October, 1609.

Champlain

[66] For an account of the ſufferings of Brébeuf, Lalemant, and Jogues, ſee *Hiſtory of Catholic Miſſions*, by John Gilmary Shea, pp. 188, 189, 217.

Champlain haſtened immediately to Fontainebleau, to make a detailed report of his proceedings to Sieur de Monts, who was there in official attendance upon the king.[67] On this occaſion he ſought an audience alſo with Henry IV., who had been his friend and patron from the time of his firſt voyage to Canada in 1603. In addition to the new diſcoveries and obſervations which he detailed to him, he exhibited a belt curiouſly wrought and inlaid with porcupine-quills, the work of the ſavages, which eſpecially drew forth the king's admiration. He alſo preſented two ſpecimens of the ſcarlet tanager, *Pyranga rubra*, a bird of great brilliancy of plumage and peculiar to this continent, and likewiſe the head of a gar-pike, a fiſh of ſingular characteriſtics, then known only in the waters of Lake Champlain.[68]

At this time De Monts was urgently ſeeking a renewal of his commiſſion for the monopoly of the fur-trade. In this Champlain was deeply intereſted. But to this monopoly a powerful oppoſition aroſe, and all efforts at renewal proved utterly fruitleſs. De Monts did not, however, abandon the enterpriſe on which he had entered. Renewing his engagements with the merchants of Rouen with whom he had already been aſſociated, he reſolved to ſend out in the early ſpring, as a private enterpriſe and without any ſpecial privileges or monopoly, two veſſels with the neceſſary equipments for ſtrengthening his colony at Quebec and for carrying on trade as uſual with the Indians.

Champlain was again appointed lieutenant, charged with the

[67] He was gentleman in ordinary to the king's chamber. "Gentil-homme ordinaire de nôſtre Chambre." — *Vide Commiſſion du Roy au Sieur de Monts, Hiſtoire de la Nouvelle France*, par Marc Leſcarbot, Paris, 1612, p. 432.

[68] Called by the Indians *chaouſarou*. For a full account of this cruſtacean *vide* Vol. II. note 343.

the government and management of the colony, with the expectation of paſſing the next winter at Quebec, while Pont Gravé, as he had been before, was ſpecially entruſted with the commercial department of the expedition.

They embarked at Honfleur, but were detained in the Engliſh Channel by bad weather for ſome days. In the mean time Champlain was taken ſeriouſly ill, the veſſel needed additional ballaſt, and returned to port, and they did not finally put to ſea till the 8th of April. They arrived at Tadouſſac on the 26th of the ſame month, in the year 1610, and, two days later, ſailed for Quebec, where they found the commander, Captain Chavin, and the little colony all in excellent health.

The eſtabliſhment at Quebec, it is to be remembered, was now a private enterpriſe. It exiſted by no chartered rights, it was protected by no excluſive authority. There was conſequently little encouragement for its enlargement beyond what was neceſſary as a baſe of commercial operations. The limited cares of the colony left, therefore, to Champlain, a larger ſcope for the exerciſe of his indomitable deſire for exploration and adventure. Explorations could not, however, be carried forward without the concurrence and guidance of the ſavages by whom he was immediately ſurrounded. Friendly relations exiſted between the French and the united tribes of Montagnais, Hurons, and Algonquins, who occupied the northern ſhores of the St. Lawrence and the great lakes. A burning hatred exiſted between theſe tribes and the Iroquois, occupying the ſouthern ſhores of the ſame river. A deadly warfare was their chief employment, and every ſummer each party was engaged either in repelling an in-

vaſion

vaſion or in making one in the territory of the other. Thoſe friendly to Champlain were quite ready to act as pioneers in his explorations and diſcoveries, but they expected and demanded in return that he ſhould give them active perſonal aſſiſtance in their wars. Influenced, doubtleſs, by policy, the ſpirit of the age, and his early education in the civil conflicts of France, Champlain did not heſitate to enter into an alliance and an exchange of ſervices on theſe terms.

In the preceding year, two journeys into diſtant regions had been planned for exploration and diſcovery. One beginning at Three Rivers, was to ſurvey, under the guidance of the Montagnais, the river St. Maurice to its ſource, and thence, by different channels and portages, reach Lake St. John, returning by the Saguenay, making in the circuit a diſtance of not leſs than eight hundred miles. The other plan was to explore, under the direction of the Hurons and Algonquins, the vaſt country over which they were accuſtomed to roam, paſſing up the Ottawa, and reaching in the end the region of the copper mines on Lake Superior, a journey not leſs than twice the extent of the former.

Neither of theſe explorations could be undertaken the preſent year. Their importance, however, to the future progreſs of colonization in New France is ſufficiently obvious. The purpoſe of making theſe ſurveys ſhows the breadth and wiſdom of Champlain's views, and that hardſhips or dangers were not permitted to interfere with his patriotic ſenſe of duty.

Soon after his arrival at Quebec, the ſavages began to aſſemble to engage in their uſual ſummer's entertainment of making war upon the Iroquois. Sixty Montagnais, equipped in

in their rude armor, were haſtening to the rendezvous which, by agreement made the year before, was to be at the mouth of the Richelieu.[69] Hither were to come the three allied tribes, and paſs together up this river into Lake Champlain, the "gate" or war-path through which theſe hoſtile clans were accuſtomed to make their yearly pilgrimage to meet each other in deadly conflict. Sending forward four barques for trading purpoſes, Champlain repaired to the mouth of the Richelieu, and landed, in company with the Montagnais, on the Iſland St. Ignace, on the 19th of June. While preparations were making to receive their Algonquin allies from the region of the Ottawa, news came that they had already arrived, and that they had diſcovered a hundred Iroquois ſtrongly barricaded in a log fort, which they had haſtily thrown together on the brink of the river not far diſtant, and to capture them the aſſiſtance of all parties was needed without delay. Champlain, with four Frenchmen and the ſixty Montagnais, left the iſland in haſte, paſſed over to the mainland, where they left their canoes, and eagerly ruſhed through the marſhy foreſt a diſtance of two miles. Burdened with their heavy armor, half conſumed by moſquitoes which were ſo thick that they were ſcarcely able to breathe, covered with mud and water, they at length ſtood before the Iroquois fort.[70] It was a ſtructure of logs laid one upon another, braced and held together by poſts coupled by withes, and of the uſual circular form. It offered a good protection in ſavage warfare.

[69] The mouth of the Richelieu was the uſual place of meeting. In 1603, the allied tribes were there when Champlain aſcended the St. Lawrence. They had a fort, which he deſcribes. — *Vide poſtea*, p. 243.

[70] Champlain's deſcription does not enable us to identify the place of this battle with exactneſs. It will be obſerved, if we refer to his text, that, leaving the iſland of St. Ignace, and going *half*

fare. Even the French arquebus diſcharged through the crevices did ſlow execution.

It was obvious to Champlain that, to enſure victory, the fort muſt be demoliſhed. Huge trees, ſevered at the baſe, falling upon it, did not break it down. At length, directed by Champlain, the ſavages approached under their ſhields, tore away the ſupporting poſts, and thus made a breach, into which ruſhed the infuriated beſiegers, and in hot haſte finiſhed their deadly work. Fifteen of the Iroquois were taken priſoners; a few plunged into the river and were drowned; the reſt periſhed by muſket-ſhots, arrow-wounds, the tomahawk, and the war-club. Of the allied ſavages three were killed and fifty wounded. Champlain himſelf did not eſcape altogether

half a league, croſſing the river, they landed, when they were plainly on the mainland near the mouth of the Richelieu. They then went *half a league*, and finding themſelves outrun by their Indian guides and loſt, they called to two ſavages, whom they ſaw going through the woods, to guide them. Going a *ſhort diſtance*, they were met by a meſſenger from the ſcene of conflict, to urge them to haſten forwards. Then, after going *leſs than an eighth of a league*, they were within the ſound of the voices of the combatants at the fort. Theſe diſtances are eſtimated without meaſurement, and, of courſe, are inexact: but, putting the diſtances mentioned altogether, the journey through the woods to the fort was apparently a little more than two miles. Had they followed the courſe of the river, the diſtance would probably have been ſomewhat more: perhaps nearly three miles. Champlain does not poſitively ſay that the fort was on the Richelieu, but the whole narrative leaves no doubt that ſuch was the fact. This river was the avenue through which the Iroquois were accuſtomed to come, and they would naturally encamp here where they could chooſe their own ground, and where their enemies were ſure to approach them. If we refer to Champlain's illuſtration of *Fort des Iroquois*, Vol. II. p. 241, we ſhall obſerve that the river is pictured as comparatively narrow, which could hardly be a true repreſentation if it were intended for the St. Lawrence. The eſcaping Iroquois are repreſented as ſwimming towards the right, which was probably in the direction of their homes on the ſouth, the natural courſe of their retreat. The ſhallop of Des Prairies, who arrived late, is on the left of the fort, at the exact point where he would naturally diſembark if he came up the Richelieu from the St. Lawrence. From a ſtudy of the whole narrative, together with the map, we infer that the fort was on the weſtern bank of the Richelieu, between two and three miles from its mouth. We are confident that its location cannot be more definitely fixed.

altogether unharmed. An arrow, armed with a ſharp point of ſtone, pierced his ear and neck, which he drew out with his own hand. One of his companions received a ſimilar wound in the arm. The victors ſcalped the dead as uſual, ornamenting the prows of their canoes with the bleeding heads of their enemies, while they ſevered one of the bodies into quarters, to eat, as they alleged, in revenge.

The canoes of the ſavages and a French ſhallop having come to the ſcene of this battle, all ſoon embarked and returned to the Iſland of St. Ignace. Here the allies, joined by eighty Huron warriors who had arrived too late to participate in the conflict, remained three days, celebrating their victory by dancing, ſinging, and the adminiſtration of the uſual puniſhment upon their priſoners of war. This conſiſted in a variety of exquiſite tortures, ſimilar to thoſe inflicted the year before, after the victory on Lake Champlain, horrible and ſickening in all their features, and which need not be ſpread upon theſe pages. From theſe tortures Champlain would gladly have ſnatched the poor wretches, had it been in his power, but in this matter the ſavages would brook no interference. There was a ſolitary exception, however, in a fortunate young Iroquois who fell to him in the diviſion of priſoners. He was treated with great kindneſs, but it did not overcome his exceſſive fear and diſtruſt, and he ſoon ſought an opportunity and eſcaped to his home.[71]

When the celebration of the victory had been completed, the Indians departed to their diſtant abodes. Champlain, however,

[71] For a full account of the Indian treatment of priſoners, *vide antea*, pp. 94, 95. Alſo Vol. II. pp. 224–227, 244–246.

however, before their departure, very wiſely entered into an agreement that they ſhould receive for the winter a young Frenchman who was anxious to learn their language, and, in return, he was himſelf to take a young Huron, at their ſpecial requeſt, to paſs the winter in France. This judicious arrangement, in which Champlain was deeply intereſted and which he found ſome difficulty in accompliſhing, promiſed an important future advantage in extending the knowledge of both parties, and in ſtrengthening on the foundation of perſonal experience their mutual confidence and friendſhip.

After the departure of the Indians, Champlain returned to Quebec, and proceeded to put the buildings in repair and to ſee that all neceſſary arrangements were made for the ſafety and comfort of the colony during the next winter.

On the 4th of July, Des Marais, in charge of the veſſel belonging to De Monts and his company, which had been left behind and had been expected ſoon to follow, arrived at Quebec, bringing the intelligence that a ſmall revolution had taken place in Brouage, the home of Champlain, that the Proteſtants had been expelled, and an additional guard of ſoldiers had been placed in the garriſon. Des Marais alſo brought the ſtartling news that Henry IV. had been aſſaſſinated on the 14th of May. Champlain was penetrated by this announcement with the deepeſt ſorrow. He fully ſaw how great a public calamity had fallen upon his country. France had loſt, by an ignominious blow, one of her ableſt and wiſeſt ſovereigns, who had, by his marvellous power, gradually united and compacted the great intereſts of the nation, which had been ſhattered and torn by half a century of civil conflicts and domeſtic feuds. It was alſo to him a perſonal loſs.

The

The king had taken a ſpecial intereſt in his undertakings, had been his patron from the time of his firſt voyage to New France in 1603, had ſuſtained him by an annual penſion, and on many occaſions had ſhown by word and deed that he fully appreciated the great value of his explorations in his American domains. It was difficult to ſee how a loſs ſo great both to his country and himſelf could be repaired. A cloud of doubt and uncertainty hung over the future. The condition of the company, likewiſe, under whoſe auſpices he was acting, preſented at this time no very encouraging features. The returns from the fur-trade had been ſmall, owing to the loſs of the monopoly which the company had formerly enjoyed, and the exceſſive competition which free-trade had ſtimulated. Only a limited attention had as yet been given to the cultivation of the ſoil. Garden vegetables had been placed in cultivation, together with ſmall fields of Indian corn, wheat, rye, and barley. Theſe attempts at agriculture were doubtleſs experiments, while at the ſame time they were uſeful in ſupplementing the ſtores needed for the colony's conſumption.

Champlain's perſonal preſence was not required at Quebec during the winter, as no active enterpriſe could be carried forward in that inclement ſeaſon, and he decided, therefore, to return to France. The little colony now conſiſted of ſixteen men, which he placed in charge, during his abſence, of Sieur Du Parc. He accordingly left Tadouſſac on the 13th of Auguſt, and arrived at Honfleur in France on the 27th of September, 1610.

During the autumn of this year, while reſiding in Paris, Champlain became attached to Hélène Boullé, the daughter of

of Nicholas Boullé, ſecretary of the king's chamber. She was at that time a mere child, and of too tender years to act for herſelf, particularly in matters of ſo great importance as thoſe which relate to marital relations. However, agreeably to a cuſtom not infrequent at that period, a marriage contract [72] was entered into on the 27th of December with her parents, in which, nevertheleſs, it was ſtipulated that the nuptials ſhould not take place within at leaſt two years from that date. The dowry of the future bride was fixed at ſix thouſand livres *tournois*, three fourths of which were paid and receipted for by Champlain two days after the ſigning of the contract. The marriage was afterward conſummated, and Helen Boullé, as his wife, accompanied Champlain to Quebec, in 1620, as we ſhall ſee in the ſequel.

Notwithſtanding the diſcouragements of the preceding year and the ſmall proſpect of future ſucceſs, De Monts and the merchants aſſociated with him ſtill perſevered in ſending another expedition, and Champlain left Honfleur for New France on the firſt day of March, 1611. Unfortunately, the voyage had been undertaken too early in the ſeaſon for theſe northern waters, and long before they reached the Grand Banks, they encountered ice-floes of the moſt dangerous character. Huge blocks of cryſtal, towering two hundred feet above the ſurface of the water, floated at times near them,

[72] *Vide Contrat de mariage de Samuel de Champlain, Œuvres de Champlain*, Quebec ed. Vol. VI., *Pièces Juſtificatives*, p. 33.

Among the early marriages not uncommon at that period, the following are examples. Céſar, the ſon of Henry IV., was eſpouſed by public ceremonies to the daughter of the Duke de Mercœur in 1598. The bridegroom was four years old and the bride-elect had juſt entered her ſixth year. The great Condé, by the urgency of his avaricious father, was unwillingly married at the age of twenty, to Claire Clemence de Maillé Brézé, the niece of Cardinal Richelieu, when ſhe was but thirteen years of age.

them, and at others they were ſurrounded and hemmed in by vaſt fields of ice extending as far as the eye could reach. Amid theſe ceaſeleſs perils, momentarily expecting to be cruſhed between the floating iſlands wheeling to and fro about them, they ſtruggled with the elements for nearly two months, when finally they reached Tadouſſac on the 13th of May.

CHAPTER VII.

THE FUR-TRADE AT MONTREAL. — COMPETITION AT THE RENDEZVOUS. — NO EXPLORATIONS. — CHAMPLAIN RETURNS TO FRANCE. — REORGANIZATION OF THE COMPANY. — COUNT DE SOISSONS, HIS DEATH. — PRINCE DE CONDÉ. — CHAMPLAIN'S RETURN TO NEW FRANCE AND TRADE WITH THE INDIANS. — EXPLORATION AND DE VIGNAN, THE FALSE GUIDE. — INDIAN CEREMONY AT CHAUDIÈRE FALLS.

CHAMPLAIN loſt no time in haſtening to Quebec, where he found Du Parc, whom he had left in charge, and the colony in excellent health. The paramount and immediate object which now engaged his attention was to ſecure for the preſent ſeaſon the fur-trade of the Indians. This furniſhed the chief pecuniary ſupport of De Monts's company, and was abſolutely neceſſary to its exiſtence. He ſoon, therefore, took his departure for the Falls of St. Louis, ſituated a ſhort diſtance above Montreal, and now better known as La Chine Rapids. In the preceding year, this place had been agreed upon as a rendezvous by the friendly tribes. But, as they had not arrived, Champlain proceeded to make a thorough exploration on both ſides of the St. Lawrence, extending his journeys more than twenty miles through the foreſts and along

along the ſhores of the river, for the purpoſe of ſelecting a proper ſite for a trading-houſe, with doubtleſs an ultimate purpoſe of making it a permanent ſettlement. After a full ſurvey, he finally fixed upon a point of land which he named *La Place Royale*, ſituated within the preſent city of Montreal, on the eaſtern ſide of the little brook Pierre, where it flows into the St. Lawrence, at Point à Callière. On the banks of this ſmall ſtream there were found evidences that the land to the extent of ſixty acres had at ſome former period been cleared up and cultivated by the ſavages, but more recently had been entirely abandoned on account of the wars, as he learned from his Indian guides, in which they were inceſſantly engaged.

Near the ſpot which had thus been ſelected for a future ſettlement, Champlain diſcovered a depoſit of excellent clay, and, by way of experiment, had a quantity of it manufactured into bricks, of which he made a wall on the brink of the river, to teſt their power of reſiſting the froſts and the floods. Gardens were alſo made and ſeeds ſown, to prove the quality of the ſoil. A weary month paſſed ſlowly away, with ſcarcely an incident to break the monotony, except the drowning of two Indians, who had unwiſely attempted to paſs the rapids in a bark canoe overloaded with heron, which they had taken on an iſland above. In the mean time, Champlain had been followed to his rendezvous by a herd of adventurers from the maritime towns of France, who, ſtimulated by the freedom of trade, had flocked after him in numbers out of all proportion to the amount of furs which they could hope to obtain from the wandering bands of ſavages that might chance to viſit the St. Lawrence. The river

was

was lined with theſe voracious cormorants, anxiouſly watching the coming of the ſavages, all impatient and eager to ſecure as large a ſhare as poſſible of the uncertain and meagre booty for which they had croſſed the Atlantic. Fifteen or twenty barques were moored along the ſhore, all ſeeking the beſt opportunity for the diſplay of the worthleſs trinkets for which they had avariciouſly hoped to obtain a valuable cargo of furs.

A long line of canoes was at length ſeen far in the diſtance. It was a fleet of two hundred Hurons, who had ſwept down the rapids, and were now approaching ſlowly and in a dignified and impreſſive order. On coming near, they ſet up a ſimultaneous ſhout, the token of ſavage greeting, which made the welkin ring. This ſalute was anſwered by a hundred French arquebuſes from barque and boat and ſhore. The unexpected multitude of the French, the newneſs of the firearms to moſt of them, filled the ſavages with diſmay. They concealed their fear as well and as long as poſſible. They deliberately built their cabins on the ſhore, but ſoon threw up a barricade, then called a council at midnight, and finally, under pretence of a beaver-hunt, ſuddenly removed above the rapids, where they knew the French barques could not come. When they were thus in a place of ſafety, they confeſſed to Champlain that they had faith in him, which they confirmed by valuable gifts of furs, but none whatever in the graſping herd that had followed him to the rendezvous. The trade, meagre in the aggregate, divided among ſo many, had proved a loſs to all. It was ſoon completed, and the ſavages departed to their homes. Subſequently, thirty-eight canoes, with eighty or a hundred Algonquin

gonquin warriors, came to the rendezvous. They brought, however, but a ſmall quantity of furs, which added little to the lucrative character of the ſummer's trade.

The reader will bear in mind that Champlain was not here merely as the ſuperintendent and reſponſible agent of a trading expedition. This was a ſubordinate purpoſe, and the reſult of circumſtances which his principal did not chooſe, but into which he had been unwillingly forced. It was neceſſary not to overlook this intereſt in the preſent exigency, nevertheleſs De Monts was ſuſtained by an ulterior purpoſe of a far higher and nobler character. He ſtill entertained the hope that he ſhould yet ſecure a royal charter under which his aſpirations for colonial enterpriſe ſhould have full ſcope, and that his ambition would be finally crowned with the ſucceſs which he had ſo long coveted, and for which he had ſo aſſiduouſly labored. Champlain, who had been for many years the geographer of the king, who had carefully reported, as he advanced into unexplored regions, his ſurveys of the rivers, harbors, and lakes, and had given faithful deſcriptions of the native inhabitants, knowledge abſolutely neceſſary as a preliminary ſtep in laying the foundation of a French empire in America, did not for a moment loſe ſight of this ulterior purpoſe. Amid the commercial operations to which for the time being he was obliged to devote his chief attention, he tried in vain to induce the Indians to conduct an exploring party up the St. Maurice, and thus reach the headwaters of the Saguenay, a journey which had been planned two years before. They had excellent excuſes to offer, and the undertaking was neceſſarily deferred for the preſent. He, however, obtained much valuable information from

from them in converſations, in regard to the ſource of the St. Lawrence, the topography of the country which they inhabited, and even drawings were executed by them to illuſtrate to him other regions which they had perſonally viſited.

On the 18th of July, Champlain left the rendezvous, and arrived at Quebec on the evening of the next day. Having ordered all neceſſary repairs at the ſettlement, and, not unmindful of its adornment, planted roſe-buſhes about it, and taking ſpecimens of oak timber to exhibit in France, he left for Tadouſſac, and finally for France on the 11th of Auguſt, and arrived at Rochelle on the 16th of September, 1611.

Immediately on his arrival, Champlain repaired to the city of Pons, in Saintonge, of which De Monts was governor, and laid before him the ſituation of his affairs at Quebec. De Monts ſtill clung to the hope of obtaining a royal commiſſion for the excluſive right of trade, but his aſſociates were wholly diſheartened by the competition and conſequent loſſes of the laſt year, and had the ſagacity to ſee that there was no hope of a remedy in the future. They accordingly declined to continue further expenditures. De Monts purchaſed their intereſt in the eſtabliſhment at Quebec, and, notwithſtanding the obſtacles which had been and were ſtill to be encountered, was brave enough to believe that he could ſtem the tide unaided and alone. He haſtened to Paris to ſecure the much coveted commiſſion from the king. Important buſineſs, however, ſoon called him in another direction, and the whole matter was placed in the hands of Champlain, with the underſtanding that important modifications were to be

be introduced into the conſtitution and management of the company.

The burden thus unexpectedly laid upon Champlain was not a light one. His experience and perſonal knowledge led him to appreciate more fully than any one elſe the difficulties that environed the enterpriſe of planting a colony in New France. He ſaw very clearly that a royal commiſſion merely, with whatever excluſive rights it conferred, would in itſelf be ineffectual and powerleſs in the preſent complications. It was obvious to him that the adminiſtration muſt be adapted to the ſtate of affairs that had gradually grown up at Quebec, and that it muſt be ſuſtained by powerful perſonal influence.

Champlain proceeded, therefore, to draw up certain rules and regulations which he deemed neceſſary for the management of the colony and the protection of its intereſts. The leading characteriſtics of the plan were, firſt, an aſſociation of which all who deſired to carry on trade in New France might become members, ſharing equally in its advantages and its burdens, its profits and its loſſes: and, ſecondly, that it ſhould be preſided over by a viceroy of high poſition and commanding influence. De Monts, who had thus far been at the head of the undertaking, was a gentleman of great reſpectability, zeal, and honeſty, but his name did not, as ſociety was conſtituted at that time in France, carry with it any controlling weight with the merchants or others whoſe views were adverſe to his own. He was unable to carry out any plans which involved expenſe, either for the exploration of the country or for the enlargement and growth of the colony. It was neceſſary, in the opinion of Champlain, to place

place at the head of the company a man of ſuch exalted official and ſocial poſition that his opinions would be liſtened to with reſpect and his wiſhes obeyed with alacrity.

He ſubmitted his plan to De Monts and likewiſe to Preſident Jeannin,[73] a man venerable with age, diſtinguiſhed for his wiſdom and probity, and at this time having under his control the finances of the kingdom. They both pronounced it excellent and urged its execution.

Having thus obtained the cordial and intelligent aſſent of the higheſt authority to his ſcheme, his next ſtep was to ſecure a viceroy whoſe exalted name and ſtanding ſhould conform to the requirements of his plan. This was an object ſomewhat difficult to attain. It was not eaſy to find a nobleman who poſſeſſed all the qualities deſired. After careful conſideration, however, the Count de Soiſſons[74] was thought to

[73] Pierre Jeannin was born at Autun, in 1540, and died about 1622. He began the practice of law at Dijon, in 1569. Though a Catholic, he always counſelled tolerant meaſures in the treatment of the Proteſtants. By his influence he prevented the maſſacre of the Proteſtants at Dijon in 1572. He was a Councillor, and afterward Preſident, of the Parliament of Dijon. He was the private adviſer of the Duke of Mayenne. He united himſelf with the party of the League in 1589. He negotiated the peace between Mayenne and Henry IV. The king became greatly attached to him, and appointed him a Councillor of State and Superintendent of Finances. He held many offices and did great ſervice to the State. After the death of the king, Marie de Médicis, the regent, continued him as Superintendent of Finances.

[74] Count de Soiſſons, Charles de Bourbon, was born at Nogent-le-Rotrou, in 1556, and died Nov. 1, 1612. He was educated in the Catholic religion. He acted for a time with the party of the League, but, falling in love with Catherine, the ſiſter of Henry IV., better to ſecure his object he abandoned the League and took a military command under Henry III., and diſtinguiſhed himſelf for bravery when the king was beſieged in Tours. After the death of the king, he eſpouſed the cauſe of Henry IV., was made Grand Maſter of France, and took part in the ſiege of Paris. He attempted a ſecret marriage with Catherine, but was thwarted; and the unhappy lovers were compelled, by the Duke of Sully, to renounce their matrimonial intentions. He had been Governor of Dauphiny, and, at the time of his death, was Governor of Normandy, with a penſion of 50,000 crowns.

to unite better than any other the characteriſtics which the office required. Champlain, therefore, laid before the Count, through a member of the king's council, a detailed exhibition of his plan and a map of New France executed by himſelf. He ſoon after received an intimation from this nobleman of his willingneſs to accept the office, if he ſhould be appointed. A petition was ſent by Champlain to the king and his council, and the appointment was made on the 8th of October, 1612, and on the 15th of the ſame month the Count iſſued a commiſſion appointing Champlain his lieutenant.

Before this commiſſion had been publiſhed in the ports and the maritime towns of France, as required by law, and before a month had elapſed, unhappily the death of the Count de Soiſſons ſuddenly occurred at his Château de Blandy. Henry de Bourbon, the Prince de Condé,[75] was haſtily appointed his ſucceſſor, and a new commiſſion was iſſued to Champlain on the 22d of November of the ſame year.

The appointment of this prince carried with it the weight of high poſition and influence, though hardly the character which

[75] Prince de Condé, Henry de Bourbon II., the poſthumous ſon of the firſt Henry de Bourbon, was born at Saint Jean d'Angely, in 1588. He married, in 1609, Charlotte Marguerite de Montmorency, the ſiſter of Henry, the Duke de Montmorency, who ſucceeded him as the Viceroy of New France. To avoid the impertinent gallantries of Henry IV., who had fallen in love with this beautiful Princeſs, Condé and his wife left France, and did not return till the death of the king. He headed a conſpiracy againſt the Regent, Marie de Médicis, and was thrown into priſon on the firſt of September, 1616, where he remained three years. Influenced by ambition, and more particularly by his avarice, he forced his ſon Louis, Le Grand Condé, to marry the niece of Cardinal Richelieu, Claire Clémence de Maillé-Brézé. He did much to confer power and influence upon his family, largely through his avarice, which was his chief characteriſtic. The wit of Voltaire attributes his crowning glory to his having been the father of the great Condé. During the detention of the Prince de Condé in priſon, the Mareſchal de Thémins was Acting Viceroy of New France, having been appointed by Marie de Médicis, the Queen Regent.—*Vide Voyages dv Sievr de Champlain*, Paris, 1632, p. 211.

which would have been moſt deſirable under the circumſtances. He was, however, a potent ſafeguard againſt the final ſucceſs, though not indeed of the attempt on the part of enemies, to break up the company, or to interfere with its plans. No ſooner had the publication of the commiſſion been undertaken, than the merchants, who had ſchemes of trade in New France, put forth a powerful oppoſition. The Parliamentary Court at Rouen even forbade its publication in that city, and the merchants of St. Malo renewed their oppoſition, which had before been ſet forth, on the flimſy ground that Jacques Cartier, the diſcoverer of New France, was a native of their municipality, and therefore they had rights prior and ſuperior to all others.

After much delay and ſeveral journeys by Champlain to Rouen, theſe difficulties were overcome. There was, indeed, no ſolid ground of oppoſition, as none were debarred from engaging in the enterpriſe who were willing to ſhare in the burdens as well as the profits.

Theſe delays prevented the complete organization of the company contemplated by Champlain's new plan, but it was nevertheleſs neceſſary for him to make the voyage to Quebec the preſent ſeaſon, in order to keep up the continuity of his operations there, and to renew his friendly relations with the Indians, who had been greatly diſappointed at not ſeeing him the preceding year. Four veſſels, therefore, were authorized to ſail under the commiſſion of the viceroy, each of which was to furniſh four men for the ſervice of Champlain in explorations and in aid of the Indians in their wars, if it ſhould be neceſſary.

He accordingly left Honfleur in a veſſel belonging to his old

old friend Pont Gravé, on the 6th of March, 1613, and arrived at Tadouſſac on the 29th of April. On the 7th of May he reached Quebec, where he found the little colony in excellent condition, the winter having been exceedingly mild and agreeable, the river not having been frozen in the ſevereſt weather. He repaired at once to the trading rendezvous at Montreal, then commonly known as the Falls of St. Louis. He learned from a trading barque that had preceded him, that a ſmall band of Algonquins had already been there on their return from a raid upon the Iroquois. They had, however, departed to their homes to celebrate a feaſt, at which the torture of two captives whom they had taken from the Iroquois was to form the chief element in the entertainment. A few days later, three Algonquin canoes arrived from the interior with furs, which were purchaſed by the French. From them they learned that the ill treatment of the previous year, and their diſappointment at not having ſeen Champlain there as they had expected, had led the Indians to abandon the idea of again coming to the rendezvous, and that large numbers of them had gone on their uſual ſummer's expedition againſt the Iroquois.

Under theſe circumſtances, Champlain reſolved, in making his explorations, to viſit perſonally the Indians who had been accuſtomed to come to the Falls of St. Louis, to aſſure them of kind treatment in the future, to renew his alliance with them againſt their enemies, and, if poſſible, to induce them to come to the rendezvous, where there was a large quantity of French goods awaiting them.

It will be remembered that an ulterior purpoſe of the French, in making a ſettlement in North America, was to enable

enable them better to explore the interior and diſcover an avenue by water to the Pacific Ocean. This ſhorter paſſage to Cathay, or the land of ſpicery, had been the day-dream of all the great navigators in this direction for more than a hundred years. Whoever ſhould diſcover it would confer a boon of untold commercial value upon his country, and crown himſelf with imperiſhable honor. Champlain had been inſpired by this dream from the firſt day that he ſet his foot upon the ſoil of New France. Every indication that pointed in this direction he watched with care and ſeized upon with avidity. In 1611, a young man in the colony, Nicholas de Vignan, had been allowed, after the trading ſeaſon had cloſed, to accompany the Algonquins to their diſtant homes, and paſs the winter with them. This was one of the methods which had before been ſucceſsfully reſorted to for obtaining important information. De Vignan returned to Quebec in the ſpring of 1612, and the ſame year to France. Having heard apparently ſomething of Hudſon's diſcovery and its accompanying diſaſter, he made it the baſis of a ſtory drawn wholly from his own imagination, but which he well knew muſt make a ſtrong impreſſion upon Champlain and all others intereſted in new diſcoveries. He ſtated that, during his abode with the Indians, he had made an excurſion into the foreſts of the north, and that he had actually diſcovered a ſea of ſalt water; that the river Ottawa had its ſource in a lake from which another river flowed into the ſea in queſtion; that he had ſeen on its ſhores the wreck of an Engliſh ſhip, from which eighty men had been taken and ſlain by the ſavages; and that they had among them an Engliſh boy, whom they were keeping to preſent to him.

As

As was expected, this ſtory made a ſtrong impreſſion upon the mind of Champlain. The priceleſs object for which he had been in ſearch ſo many years ſeemed now within his graſp. The ſimplicity and directneſs of the narrative, and the want of any apparent motive for deception, were a ſtrong guaranty of its truth. But, to make aſſurance doubly ſure, Vignan was croſs-examined and teſted in various ways, and finally, before leaving France, was made to certify to the truth of his ſtatement in the preſence of two notaries at Rochelle. Champlain laid the ſtory before the Chancellor de Sillery, the Preſident Jeannin, the old Marſhal de Briſſac, and others, who aſſured him that it was a queſtion of ſo great importance, that he ought at once to teſt the truth of the narrative by a perſonal exploration. He reſolved, therefore, to make this one of the objects of his ſummer's excurſion.

With two bark canoes, laden with proviſions, arms, and a few trifles as preſents for the ſavages, an Indian guide, four Frenchmen, one of whom was the mendacious Vignan, Champlain left the rendezvous at Montreal on the 27th of May. After getting over the Lachine Rapids, they croſſed Lake St. Louis and the Two Mountains, and, paſſing up the Ottawa, now expanding into a broad lake and again contracting into narrows, whence its pent-up waters ſwept over precipices and boulders in furious, foaming currents, they at length, after incredible labor, reached the iſland Allumette, a diſtance of not leſs than two hundred and twenty-five miles. In no expedition which Champlain had thus far undertaken had he encountered obſtacles ſo formidable. The falls and rapids in the river were numerous and difficult to paſs. Sometimes a portage was impoſſible on account of

of the denſeneſs of the foreſts, in which caſe they were compelled to drag their canoes by ropes, wading along the edge of the water, or clinging to the precipitous banks of the river as beſt they could. When a portage could not be avoided, it was neceſſary to carry their armor, proviſions, clothing, and canoes through the foreſts, over precipices, and ſometimes over ſtretches of territory where ſome tornado had proſtrated the huge pines in tangled confuſion, through which a pathway was almoſt impoſſible.[76] To lighten their burdens, nearly every thing was abandoned but their canoes. Fiſh and wild-fowl were an uncertain reliance for food, and ſometimes they toiled on for twenty-four hours with ſcarcely any thing to appeaſe their craving appetites.

Overcome with fatigue and oppreſſed by hunger, they at length arrived at Allumette Iſland, the abode of the chief Teſſoüat, by whom they were cordially entertained. Nothing but the hope of reaching the north ſea could have ſuſtained them amid the perils and ſufferings through which they had paſſed in reaching this inhoſpitable region. The Indians had choſen this retreat not from choice, but chiefly on account of its great inacceſſibility to their enemies. They were aſtoniſhed to ſee Champlain and his company, and facetiouſly ſuggeſted that it muſt be a dream, or that theſe new-comers had

[76] In making the portage from what is now known as Portage du Fort to Muſkrat Lake, a diſtance of about nine miles, Champlain, though leſs heavily loaded than his companions, carried three French arquebuſſes, three oars, his cloak, and ſome ſmall articles, and was at the ſame time bitterly oppreſſed by ſwarms of hungry and inſatiable moſquitoes. On the old portage road, traverſed by Champlain and his party at this time, in 1613, an aſtrolabe, inſcribed 1603, was found in 1867. The preſumptive evidence that this inſtrument was loſt by Champlain is ſtated in a *brochure* by Mr. O. H. Marſhall. —*Vide Magazine of American Hiſtory* for March, 1879.

had fallen from the clouds. After the uſual ceremonies of feaſting and ſmoking, Champlain was permitted to lay before Teſſoüat and his chiefs the object of his journey. When he informed them that he was in ſearch of a ſalt ſea far to the north of them, which had been actually ſeen two years before by one of his companions, he learned to his diſappointment and mortification that the whole ſtory of Vignan was a ſheer fabrication. The miſcreant had indeed paſſed a winter on the very ſpot where they then were, but had never been a league further north. The Indians themſelves had no knowledge of the north ſea, and were highly enraged at the baſeneſs of Vignan's falſehood, and craved the opportunity of deſpatching him at once. They jeered at him, calling him a "liar," and even the children took up the refrain, vociferating vigorouſly and heaping maledictions upon his head.

Indignant as he was, Champlain had too much philoſophy in his compoſition to commit an indiſcretion at ſuch a moment as this. He accordingly reſtrained the ſavages and his own anger, bore his inſult and diſappointment with exemplary patience, giving up all hope of ſeeing the ſalt ſea in this direction, as he humorouſly added, "except in imagination."

Before leaving Allumette Iſland on his return, Champlain invited Teſſoüat to ſend a trading expedition to the Falls of St. Louis, where he would find an ample opportunity for an exchange of commodities. The invitation was readily accepted, and information was at once ſent out to the neighboring chiefs, requeſting them to join in the enterpriſe. The ſavages ſoon began to aſſemble, and when Champlain left,

left, he was accompanied by forty canoes well laden with furs; others joined them at different points on the way, and on reaching Montreal the number had ſwollen to eighty.

An incident occurred on their journey down the river worthy of record. When the fleet of ſavage fur-traders had arrived at the foot of the Chaudière Falls, not a hundred rods diſtant from the ſite of the preſent city of Ottawa, having completed the portage, they all aſſembled on the ſhore, before relaunching their canoes, to engage in a ceremony which they never omitted when paſſing this ſpot. A wooden plate of ſuitable dimenſions was paſſed round, into which each of the ſavages caſt a ſmall piece of tobacco. The plate was then placed on the ground, in the midſt of the company, and all danced around it, ſinging at the ſame time. An addreſs was then made by one of the chiefs, ſetting forth the great importance of this time-honored cuſtom, particularly as a ſafeguard and protection againſt their enemies. Then, taking the plate, the ſpeaker caſt its contents into the boiling cauldron at the baſe of the falls, the act being accompanied by a loud ſhout from the aſſembled multitude. This fall, named the *Chaudière*, or cauldron, by Champlain, formed in fact the limit above which the Iroquois rarely if ever went in hoſtile purſuit of the Algonquins. The region above was exceedingly difficult of approach, and from which it was ſtill more difficult, in caſe of an attack, to retreat. But the Iroquois often lingered here in ambuſh, and fell upon the unſuſpecting inhabitants of the upper Ottawa as they came down the river. It was, therefore, a place of great danger; and the Indians, enſlaved by their fears and ſuperſtitions, did not believe it poſſible to make a proſperous journey,

ney, without obſerving, as they paſſed, the ceremonies above deſcribed.

On reaching Montreal, three additional ſhips had arrived from France with a licenſe to carry on trade from the Prince de Condé, the viceroy, making ſeven in all in port. The trade with the Indians for the furs brought in the eighty canoes, which had come with Champlain to Montreal, was ſoon deſpatched. Vignan was pardoned on the ſolemn promiſe, a condition offered by himſelf, that he would make a journey to the north ſea and bring back a true report, having made a moſt humble confeſſion of his offence in the preſence of the whole colony and the Indians, who were purpoſely aſſembled to receive it. This public and formal adminiſtration of reproof was well adapted to produce a powerful effect upon the mind of the culprit, and clearly indicates the moderation and wiſdom, ſo uniformly characteriſtic of Champlain's adminiſtration.

The buſineſs of the ſeaſon having been completed, Champlain returned to France, arriving at St. Malo on the 26th of Auguſt, 1613. Before leaving, however, he arranged to ſend back with the Algonquins who had come from Iſle Allumette two of his young men to paſs the winter, for the purpoſe, as on former occaſions, of learning the language and obtaining the information which comes only from an intimate and prolonged aſſociation.

CHAPTER VIII.

CHAMPLAIN OBTAINS MISSIONARIES FOR NEW FRANCE. — MEETS THE INDIANS AT MONTREAL AND ENGAGES IN A WAR AGAINST THE IROQUOIS. — HIS JOURNEY TO THE HURONS, AND WINTER IN THEIR COUNTRY.

DURING the whole of the year 1614, Champlain remained in France, occupied for the moſt part in adding new members to his company of aſſociates, and in forming and perfecting ſuch plans as were clearly neceſſary for the proſperity and ſucceſs of the colony. His mind was particularly abſorbed in deviſing means for the eſtabliſhment of the Chriſtian faith in the wilds of America. Hitherto nothing whatever had been done in this direction, if we except the efforts of Poutrincourt on the Atlantic coaſt, which had already terminated in diſaſter.[77] No miſſionary of any ſort had

[77] De Poutrincourt obtained a confirmation from Henry IV. of the gift to him of Port Royal by De Monts, and proceeded to eſtabliſh a colony there in 1608. In 1611, a Jeſuit miſſion was planted by the Fathers Pierre Biard and Enemond Maſſé. It was chiefly patronized by a bevy of ladies, under the leaderſhip of the Marchioneſs de Guerchville, in cloſe aſſociation with Marie de Médicis, the queen-regent, Madame de Verneuil, and Madame de Soudis. Although De Poutrincourt was a devout member of the Roman Church, the miſſionaries were received with reluctance, and between them and the patentee and his lieutenant there was a conſtant and irrepreſſible diſcord. The lady patroneſs, the Marchioneſs de Guerchville, determined to abandon Port Royal and plant a new colony at Kadeſquit, on the ſite of the preſent city of Bangor, in the State of Maine. A colony was accordingly organized, which included the fathers, Quentin and Lalemant with the lay brother, Gilbert du Thet, and arrived at La Hève in La Cadie, on the 6th of May, 1613, under the conduct of Sieur de la Sauſſaye. From there they proceeded to Port Royal, took the two miſſionaries, Biard and Maſſé, on board, and coaſted along the borders of Maine till they came to Mount Deſert, and finally determined to plant their colony on that iſland. A ſhort time after the arrival of the colony, before they were in any condition for defence, Captain Samuel Argall, from the Engliſh colony in Virginia, ſuddenly appeared, and captured and

had hitherto ſet his foot upon that part of the ſoil of New France lying within the Gulf of St. Lawrence.[78] A freſh intereſt had been awakened in the mind of Champlain. He ſaw its importance in a new light. He ſought counſel and advice from various perſons whoſe wiſdom commended them to his attention. Among the reſt was Louis Houêl, an intimate friend, who held ſome office about the perſon of the king, and who was the chief manager of the ſalt works at Brouage. This gentleman took a hearty intereſt in the project, and aſſured Champlain that it would not be difficult to raiſe the means of ſending out three or four Fathers, and, moreover, that he knew ſome of the order of the Recollects, belonging to a convent at Brouage, whoſe zeal he was ſure would be equal to the undertaking. On communicating with them, he found them quite ready to engage in the work. Two of them were ſent to Paris to obtain authority and encouragement from the proper ſources. It happened that about this time the chief dignitaries of the church were in Paris, attending a ſeſſion of the Eſtates. The biſhops and cardinals were waited upon by Champlain, and their zeal awakened and their co-operation ſecured in raiſing the neceſſary means for ſuſtaining the miſſion. After the uſual negotiations and delays, the object was fully accompliſhed; fifteen hundred

and tranſported the whole colony, and ſubſequently that at Port Royal, on the alleged ground that they were intruders on Engliſh ſoil. Thus diſaſtrouſly ended Poutrincourt's colony at Port Royal, and the Marchioneſs de Guerchville's miſſion at Mount Deſert. — *Vide Voyages par le Sr. de Champlain*, Paris ed. 1632, pp. 98–114. *Shea's Charlevoix*, Vol. I. pp. 260–286.

[78] Champlain had tried to induce Madame de Guerchville to ſend her miſſionaries to Quebec, to avoid the obſtacles which they had encountered at Port Royal; but, for the ſimple reaſon that De Monts was a Calviniſt, ſhe would not liſten to it. — *Vide Shea's Charlevoix*, Vol. I. p. 274; *Voyages dv Sievr de Champlain*, Paris ed. 1632, pp. 112, 113.

hundred *livres* were placed in the hands of Champlain for outfit and expenſes, and four Recollect friars embarked with him at Honfleur, on the ſhip "St. Étienne," on the 24th of April, 1615, viz., Denis Jamay, Jean d'Olbeau, Joſeph le Caron, and the lay-brother Pacifique du Pleſſis.[79]

On their arrival at Quebec, Champlain addreſſed himſelf immediately to the preparation of lodgings for the miſſionaries and the erection of a chapel for the celebration of divine ſervice. The Fathers were impatient to enter the fields of labor ſeverally aſſigned to them. Joſeph le Caron was appointed to viſit the Hurons in their diſtant foreſt home, concerning which he had little or no information; but he nevertheleſs entered upon the duty with manly courage and Chriſtian zeal. Jean D'Olbeau aſſumed the miſſion to the Montagnais, embracing the region about Tadouſſac and the river Saguenay, while Denis Jamay and Pacifique du Pleſſis took charge of the chapel at Quebec.

At the earlieſt moment poſſible Champlain haſtened to the rendezvous at Montreal, to meet the Indians who had already reached there on their annual viſit for trade. The chiefs were in raptures of delight on ſeeing their old friend again, and had a grand ſcheme to propoſe. They had not forgotten that Champlain had often promiſed to aid them in their wars. They approached the ſubject, however, with moderation and diplomatic wiſdom. They knew perfectly well that the trade in peltry was greatly deſired, in fact that it was indiſpenſable to the French. The ſubſtance of what they had to ſay was this. It had become now, if not impoſſible, exceedingly hazardous, to bring their furs to market. Their

[79] *Vide Hiſtoire du Canada, par Gabriel Sagard,* Paris, 1636, pp. 11-12.

Their enemies, the Iroquois, like ſo many prowling wolves, were ſure to be on their trail as they came down the Ottawa, and, incumbered with their loaded canoes, the ſtruggle muſt be unequal, and it was nearly impoſſible for them ever to be winners. The only ſolution of the difficulty known to them, or which they cared to conſider, as in all Indian warfare, was to annihilate their enemies utterly and wipe out their name for ever. Let this be done, and the fruits of peace would return, their commerce would be ſafe, proſperous, and greatly augmented.

Such were the reaſons preſented by the allies. But there were other conſiderations, likewiſe, which influenced the mind of Champlain. It was neceſſary to maintain a cloſe and firm alliance with the Indians in order to extend the French diſcoveries and domain into new and more diſtant regions, and on this extenſion of French influence depended their hope of converting the ſavages to the Chriſtian faith. The force of theſe conſiderations could not be reſiſted. Champlain decided that, under the circumſtances, it was neceſſary to give them the deſired aſſiſtance.

A general aſſembly was called, and the nature and extent of the campaign fully conſidered. It was to be of vaſtly greater proportions than any that had hitherto been propoſed. The Indians offered to furniſh two thouſand five hundred and fifty men, but they were to be gathered together from different and diſtant points. The journey muſt, therefore, be long and perilous. The objective point, viz., a celebrated Iroquois fort, could not be reached by the only feaſible route in a leſs diſtance than eight hundred or nine hundred miles, and it would require an abſence of three or four months.

Preparations

Preparations for the journey were entered upon at once. Champlain viſited Quebec to make arrangements for his long abſence. On his return to Montreal, the Indians, impatient of delay, had already departed, and Father Joſeph le Caron had gone with them to his diſtant field of miſſionary labor among the Hurons.

On the 9th of July, 1615, Champlain embarked, taking with him an interpreter, probably Étienne Brûlé, a French ſervant, and ten ſavages, who, with their equipments, were to be accommodated in two canoes. They entered the Rivière des Prairies, which flows into the St. Lawrence ſome leagues eaſt of Montreal, croſſing the Lake of the Two Mountains, paſſed up the Ottawa, taking the ſame route which he had traverſed ſome years before, reviſiting its long ſucceſſion of reaches, its placid lakes, impetuous rapids, and magnificent falls, and at length arrived at the point where the river, by an abrupt angle, begins to flow from the northweſt. Here, leaving the Ottawa, they entered the Mattawan, paſſing down this river into Lac du Talon, thence into Lac la Tortue, and by a ſhort portage, into Lake Nipiſſing. After remaining here two days, entertained generouſly by the Nipiſſingian chiefs, they croſſed the lake, and, following the channel of French River, entered Lake Huron, or rather the Georgian Bay. They coaſted along until they reached the northern limits of the county of Simcoe. Here they diſembarked and entered the territory of their old friends and allies, the Hurons.

The domain of this tribe conſiſted of a peninſula formed by the Georgian Bay, the river Severn, and Lake Simcoe, at the fartheſt, not more than forty by twenty-five miles in extent,

extent, but more generally cultivated by the native population, and of a richer ſoil than any region hitherto explored north of the St. Lawrence and the lakes. They viſited four of their villages and were cordially received and feaſted on Indian corn, ſquaſhes, and fiſh, with ſome variety in the methods of cooking. They then proceeded to Carhagouha,[80] a town fortified with a triple paliſade of wood thirty-five feet in height. Here they found the Recollect Father Joſeph Le Caron, who, having preceded them but a few days, and not anticipating the viſit, was filled with raptures of aſtoniſhment and joy. The good Father was intent upon his pious work. On the 12th of Auguſt, ſurrounded by his followers, he formally erected a croſs as a ſymbol of the faith, and on the ſame day they celebrated the maſs and chanted TE DEUM LAUDAMUS for the firſt time.

Lingering but two days, Champlain and ten of the French, eight of whom had belonged to the ſuite of Le Caron, proceeded ſlowly towards Cahiagué,[81] the rendezvous where the muſtering hoſts of the ſavage warriors were to ſet forth together upon their hoſtile excurſion into the country of the Iroquois. Of the Huron villages viſited by them, ſix are particularly mentioned as fortified by triple paliſades of wood. Cahiagué, the capital, encircled two hundred large cabins within its wooden walls. It was ſituated on the north of

[80] *Carhagouha*, named by the French *Saint Gabriel*. Dr. J. C. Taché, of Ottawa, Canada, who has given much attention to the ſubject, fixes this village in the central part of the preſent townſhip of Tiny, in the county of Simcoe. — *MS. Letter*, Feb. 11, 1880.

[81] *Cahiagué*. Dr. Taché places this village on the extreme eaſtern limit of the townſhip of Orillia, in the ſame county, in the bend of the river Severn, a ſhort diſtance after it leaves Lake Couchiching. The Indian warriors do not appear to have launched their flotilla of bark canoes until they reached the fiſhing ſtation at the outlet of Lake Simcoe. This village was ſubſequently known as *Saint-Jean Baptiſte*.

of Lake Simcoe, ten or twelve miles from this body of water, ſurrounded by a country rich in corn, ſquaſhes, and a great variety of ſmall fruits, with plenty of game and fiſh. When the warriors had moſtly aſſembled, the motley crowd, bearing their bark canoes, meal, and equipments on their ſhoulders, moved down in a ſouthweſterly direction till they reached the narrow ſtrait that unites Lake Chouchiching with Lake Simcoe, where the Hurons had a famous fiſhing wear. Here they remained ſome time for other more tardy bands to join them. At this point they deſpatched twelve of the moſt ſtalwart ſavages, with the interpreter, Étienne Brûlé, on a dangerous journey to a diſtant tribe dwelling on the weſt of the Five Nations, to urge them to haſten to the fort of the Iroquois, as they had already received word from them that they would join them in this campaign.

Champlain and his allies ſoon left the fiſhing wear and coaſted along the northeaſtern ſhore of Lake Simcoe until they reached its moſt eaſtern border, when they made a portage to Sturgeon Lake, thence ſweeping down Pigeon and Stony Lakes, through the Otonabee into Rice Lake, the River Trent, the Bay of Quinté, and finally rounding the eaſtern point of Amherſt Iſland, they were fairly on the waters of Lake Ontario, juſt as it merges into the great River St. Lawrence, and where the Thouſand Iſlands begin to loom into ſight. Here they croſſed the extremity of the lake at its outflow into the river, pauſing at this important geographical point to take the latitude, which, by his imperfect inſtruments, Champlain found to be 43° north.[82]

Sailing

[82] The latitude of Champlain is here far from correct. It is not poſſible to determine the exact place at which it was taken. It could not, however have been at a point much below 44°7′.

Sailing down to the ſouthern ſide of the lake, after a diſtance, by their eſtimate, of about fourteen leagues, they landed and concealed their canoes in a thicket near the ſhore. Taking their arms, they proceeded along the lake ſome ten miles, through a country diverſified with meadows, brooks, ponds, and beautiful foreſts filled with plenty of wild game, when they ſtruck inland, apparently at the mouth of Little Salmon River. Advancing in a ſoutherly direction, along the courſe of this ſtream, they croſſed Oneida River, an outlet of the lake of the ſame name. When within about ten miles of the fort which they intended to capture, they met a ſmall party of ſavages, men, women, and children, bound on a fiſhing excurſion. Although unarmed, nevertheleſs, according to their cuſtom, they took them all priſoners of war, and began to inflict the uſual tortures, but this was dropped on Champlain's indignant interference. The next day, on the 10th of October, they reached the great fortreſs of the Iroquois, after a journey of four days from their landing, a diſtance looſely eſtimated at from twenty-five to thirty leagues. Here they found the Iroquois in their fields, induſtriouſly gathering in their autumnal harveſt of corn and ſquaſhes. A ſkirmiſh enſued, in which ſeveral were wounded on both ſides.

The fort, a drawing of which has been left us by Champlain, was ſituated a few miles ſouth of the eaſtern terminus of Oneida Lake, on a ſmall ſtream that winds its way in a northweſterly direction, and finally loſes itſelf in the ſame body of water. This rude military ſtructure was hexagonal in form, one of its ſides bordering immediately upon a ſmall pond, while four of the other laterals, two on the

right and two on the left, were waſhed by a channel of water flowing along their baſes.[83] The ſide oppoſite the pond alone had

[83] There has naturally been ſome difficulty in fixing ſatisfactorily the ſite of the Iroquois fort attacked by Champlain and his allies.

The ſources of information on which we are to rely in identifying the ſite of this fort are in general the ſame that we reſort to in fixing any locality mentioned in his explorations, and are to be found in Champlain's journal of this expedition, the map contained in what is commonly called his edition of 1632, and the engraved picture of the fort executed by Champlain himſelf, which was publiſhed in connection with his journal. The information thus obtained is to be conſidered in connection with the natural features of the country through which the expedition paſſed, with ſuch allowance for inexactness as the hiſtory, nature, and circumſtances of the evidence render neceſſary.

The map of 1632 is only at beſt an outline, drafted on a very ſmall scale, and without any exact meaſurements or actual ſurveys. It pictures general features, and in connection with the journal may be of great ſervice.

Champlain's diſtances, as given in his journal, are eſtimates made under circumſtances in which accuracy was ſcarcely poſſible. He was journeying along the border of lakes and over the face of the country, in company with ſome hundreds of wild ſavages, hunting and fiſhing by the way, marching in an irregular and deſultory manner, and his ſtatements of diſtances are wiſely accompanied by very wide margins, and are of little ſervice, taken alone, in fixing the ſite of an Indian town. But when natural features, not ſubject to change, are deſcribed, we can eaſily comprehend the meaning of the text.

The engraving of the fort may or may not have been ſketched by Champlain on the ſpot: parts of it may have been and doubtleſs were ſupplied by memory, and it is deciſive authority, not in its minor, but in its general features.

With theſe obſervations, we are prepared to examine the evidence that points to the ſite of the Iroquois fort.

When the expedition, emerging from Quinté Bay, arrived at the eaſtern end of Lake Ontario, at the point where the lake ends and the River St. Lawrence begins, they croſſed over the lake, paſſing large and beautiful iſlands. Some of theſe iſlands will be found laid down on the map of 1632. They then proceeded, a diſtance, according to their eſtimation, of about fourteen leagues, to the ſouthern ſide of Lake Ontario, where they landed and concealed their canoes. The diſtance to the ſouthern ſide of the lake is too indefinitely ſtated, even if we knew at what preciſe point the meaſurement began, to enable us to fix the exact place of the landing.

They marched along the ſandy ſhore about four leagues, and then ſtruck inland. If we turn to the map of 1632, on which a line is drawn to rudely repreſent their courſe, we ſhall ſee that on ſtriking inland they proceeded along the banks of a ſmall river to which ſeveral ſmall lakes or ponds are tributary. Little Salmon River being fed by numerous ſmall ponds or lakes may well be the ſtream figured by Champlain. The text ſays they diſcovered an excellent country along the lake before they ſtruck inland, with fine foreſt-trees, eſpecially the cheſtnut, with abundance of vines. For ſeveral miles along Lake Ontario on the north-eaſt of Little Salmon River the country anſwers to this deſcription. —*Vide*

had an unobſtructed land approach. As an Indian military work, it was of great ſtrength. It was made of the trunks of trees,

—*Vide MS. Letters of the Rev. James Croſs, D.D., LL.D*, and of *S. D. Smith, Eſq.*, of Mexico, N.Y.

The text ſays they continued their courſe about twenty-five or thirty leagues. This again is indefinite, allowing a margin of twelve or fifteen miles; but the text alſo ſays they croſſed a river flowing from a lake in which were certain beautiful iſlands, and moreover that the river ſo croſſed diſcharged into Lake Ontario. The lake here referred to muſt be the Oneida, ſince that is the only one in the region which contains any iſlands whatever, and therefore the river they croſſed muſt be the Oneida River, flowing from the lake of the ſame name into Lake Ontario.

Soon after they croſſed Oneida River, they met a band of ſavages who were going fiſhing, whom they made priſoners. This occurred, the text informs us, when they were about four leagues from the fort. They were now ſomewhere ſouth of Oneida Lake. If we conſult the map of 1632, we ſhall find repreſented on it an expanſe of water from which a ſtream is repreſented as flowing into Lake Ontario, and which is clearly Oneida Lake, and ſouth of this lake a ſtream is repreſented as flowing from the eaſt in a northweſterly direction and entering this lake towards its weſtern extremity, which muſt be Chittenango Creek or one of its branches. A fort or encloſed village is alſo figured on the map, of ſuch huge dimenſions that it ſubtends the angle formed by the creek and the lake, and appears to reſt upon both. It is plain, however, from the text that the fort does not reſt upon Oneida Lake; we may infer therefore that it reſted upon the creek figured on the map, which from its courſe, as we have already ſeen, is clearly intended to repreſent Chittenango Creek or one of its branches. A note explanatory of the map informs us that this is the village where Champlain went to war againſt the "Antouhonorons," that is to ſay, the Iroquois. The text informs us that the fort was on a pond, which furniſhed a perpetual ſupply of water. We therefore look for the ſite of the ancient fort on ſome ſmall body of water connected with Chittenango Creek.

If we examine Champlain's engraved repreſentation of the fort, we ſhall ſee that it is ſituated on a peninſula, that one ſide reſts on a pond, and that two ſtreams paſs it, one on the right and one on the left, and that one ſide only has an unobſtructed land-approach. Theſe channels of water courſing along the ſides are ſuch marked characteriſtics of the fort as repreſented by Champlain, that they muſt be regarded as important features in the identification of its ancient ſite.

On Nichols's Pond, near the northeaſtern limit of the townſhip of Fenner in Madiſon County, N.Y., the ſite of an Indian fort was ſome years ſince diſcovered, identified as ſuch by broken bits of pottery and ſtone implements, ſuch as are uſually found in localities of this fort. It is ſituated on a peculiarly formed peninſula, its northern ſide reſting on Nichols's Pond, while a ſmall ſtream flowing into the pond forms its weſtern boundary, and an outlet of the pond about thirty-two rods eaſt of the inlet, running in a ſouth-eaſterly direction, forms the eaſtern limit of the fort. The outlet of this pond, deflecting to the eaſt and then ſweeping round to the north, at length finds its way in a winding courſe into Cowaſhalon Creek, thence into

trees, as large as could be conveniently tranſported. Theſe were ſet in the ground, forming four concentric paliſades, not more than ſix inches apart, thirty feet in height, interlaced and bound together near the top, ſupporting a gallery of double paling extending around the whole encloſure, proof not only againſt the flint-headed arrows of the Indian, but againſt the leaden bullets of the French arquebus. Port-holes were opened along the gallery, through which effective ſervice could be done upon aſſailants by hurling ſtones and other miſſiles with which they were well provided. Gutters were laid along between the paliſades to conduct water to every part

into the Chittenango, through which it flows into Oneida Lake, at a point north-weſt of Nichols's Pond.

If we compare the geographical ſituation of Champlain's fort as figured on his map of 1632, particularly with reference to Oneida Lake, we ſhall obſerve a remarkable correſpondence between it and the ſite of the Indian fort at Nichols's Pond. Both are on the ſouth of Oneida Lake, and both are on ſtreams which flow into that lake by running in a north-weſterly direction. Moreover, the ſite of the old fort at Nichols's Pond is ſituated on a peninſula like that of Champlain; and not only ſo, but it is on a peninſula formed by a pond on one ſide, and by two ſtreams of water on two other oppoſite ſides; thus fulfilling in a remarkable degree the conditions contained in Champlain's drawing of the fort.

If the reader has carefully examined and compared the evidences referred to in this note, he will have ſeen that all the diſtinguiſhing circumſtances contained in the text of Champlain's journal, on the map of 1632, and in his drawing of the fort, converge to and point out this ſpot on Nichols's Pond, as the probable ſite of the paliſaded Iroquois town attacked by Champlain in 1615.

We are indebted to General John S. Clark, of Auburn, N.Y., for pointing out and identifying the peninſula at Nichols's Pond as the ſite of the Iroquois fort. — *Vide Shea's Notes on Champlain's Expedition into Weſtern New York in* 1615, *and the Recent Identification of the Fort*, by General John S. Clark, *Pennſylvania Magazine of Hiſtory*, Philadelphia, Vol. II. pp. 103–108; alſo *A Loſt Point in Hiſtory*, by L. W. Ledyard, *Cazenovia Republican*, Vol. XXV. No. 47; *Champlain's Invaſion of Onondaga*, by the Rev. W. M. Beauchamp, *Baldwinſville Gazette*, for June 27, 1879.

We are indebted to Orſamus H. Marſhall, Eſq., of Buffalo, N.Y., for proving the ſite of the Iroquois fort to be in the neighborhood of Oneida Lake, and not at a point farther weſt as claimed by ſeveral authors. — *Vide Proceedings of the New York Hiſtorical Society* for 1849, p. 96; *Magazine of American Hiſtory*, New York, Vol. I. pp. 1–13, Vol. II. pp. 470–483.

part of the fortification for extinguiſhing fire, in caſe of need.

It was obvious to Champlain that this fort was a complete protection to the Iroquois, unleſs an opening could be made in its walls. This could not be eaſily done by any force which he and his allies had at their command. His only hope was in ſetting fire to the paliſades on the land ſide. This required the diſlodgement of the enemy, who were poſted in large numbers on the gallery, and the protection of the men in kindling the fire, and ſhielding it, when kindled, againſt the extinguiſhing torrents which could be poured from the water-ſpouts and gutters of the fort. He conſequently ordered two inſtruments to be made with which he hoped to overcome theſe obſtacles. One was a wooden tower or frame-work, dignified by Champlain as a *cavalier*, ſomewhat higher than the paliſades, on the top of which was an encloſed platform where three or four ſharp-ſhooters could in ſecurity clear the gallery, and thus deſtroy the effective force of the enemy. The other was a large wooden ſhield, or *mantelet*, under the protection of which they could in ſafety approach and kindle a fire at the baſe of the fort, and protect the fire thus kindled from being extinguiſhed by water coming from above.

When all was in readineſs, two hundred ſavages bore the framed tower and planted it near the paliſades. Three arquebusiers mounted it and poured a deadly fire upon the defenders on the gallery. The battle now began and raged fiercely for three hours, but Champlain ſtrove in vain to carry out any plan of attack. The ſavages ruſhed to and fro in a frenzy of excitement, filling the air with their diſcordant yells,

yells, obſerving no method and heeding no commands. The wooden ſhields were not even brought forward, and the burning of the fort was undertaken with ſo little judgment and ſkill that the fire was inſtantly extinguiſhed by the fountains of water let looſe by the ſkilful defenders through the gutters and water-ſpouts of the fort.

The ſharp-ſhooters on the tower killed and wounded a large number, but nevertheleſs no effective impreſſion was made upon the fortreſs. Two chiefs and fifteen men of the allies were wounded, while one was killed, or died of wounds received in a ſkirmiſh before the formal attack upon the fort began. After a frantic and deſultory fight of three hours, the attacking ſavages loſt their courage and began to clamor for a retreat. No perſuaſions could induce them to renew the attack.

After lingering four days in vain expectation of the arrival of the allies to whom Brûlé had been ſent, the retreat began. Champlain had been wounded in the knee and leg, and was unable to walk. Litters in the form of baſkets were fabricated, into which the wounded were packed in a conſtrained and uncomfortable attitude, and carried on the ſhoulders of the men. As the taſk of the carriers was lightened by frequent relays, and, as there was little baggage to impede their progreſs, the march was rapid. In three days they had reached their canoes, which had remained in the place of their concealment near the ſhore of the lake, an eſtimated diſtance of twenty-five or thirty leagues from the fort.

Such was the character of a great battle among the contending ſavages, an undiſciplined hoſt, without plan or well-defined

defined purpoſe, ruſhing in upon each other in the heat of a ſudden frenzy of paſſion, ſtriking an aimleſs blow, and following it by a haſty and cowardly retreat. They had, for the time being at leaſt, no ulterior deſign. They ſought and expected no ſubſtantial reward of their conflict. The ſweetneſs of perſonal revenge and the blotting out a few human lives were all they hoped for or cared at this time to attain. The invading party had apparently deſtroyed more than they had themſelves loſt, and this was doubtleſs a ſuitable reward for the hazards and hardſhips of the campaign.

The retreating warriors lingered ten days on the ſhore of Lake Ontario, at the point where they had left their canoes, beguiling the time in preparing for hunting and fiſhing excurſions, and for their journey to their diſtant homes. Champlain here took occaſion to call the attention of the allies to their promiſe to conduct him ſafely to his home. The head of the St. Lawrence as it flows from the Ontario is leſs than two hundred miles from Montreal, a journey by canoes not difficult to make. Champlain deſired to return this way, and demanded an eſcort. The chiefs were reluctant to grant his requeſt. Maſters in the art of making excuſes, they ſaw many inſuperable obſtacles. In reality, they did not deſire to part with him, but wiſhed to avail themſelves of his knowledge, counſel, and perſonal aid againſt their enemies. When one obſtacle after another gave way, and when volunteers were found ready to accompany him, no canoes could be ſpared for the journey. This cloſed the debate. Champlain was not prepared for the expoſure and hardſhip of a winter among the ſavages, but there was left to him no choice. He ſubmitted as gracefully as he could, and with ſuch

ſuch patience as neceſſity made it poſſible for him to command.

The bark flotilla was at length ready to leave the borders of the preſent State of New York. According to their uſual cuſtom in canoe navigation, they crept along the ſhore of the Ontario, reviſiting an iſland at the eaſtern extremity of the lake, not unlikely the ſame place where Champlain had ſtopped to take the latitude a few weeks before. Croſſing over from the iſland to the mainland on the north, they appear to have continued up the Cataraqui Creek eaſt of Kingſton, and, after a ſhort portage, entered Loughborough Lake, a ſheet of water then renowned as a reſort of waterfowl in vaſt numbers and varieties. Having bagged all they deſired, they proceeded inland twenty or thirty miles, to the objective point of their excurſion, which was a famous hunting-ground for wild game. Here they conſtructed a deer-trap, an encloſure into which the unſuſpecting animals were beguiled and from which it was impoſſible for them to eſcape. Deer-hunting was of all purſuits, if we except war, the moſt exciting to the Indians. It not only yielded the richeſt returns to their larder, and ſupplied more fully other domeſtic wants, but it poſſeſſed the element of faſcination, which has always given zeſt and inſpiration to the ſportſman.

They lingered here thirty-eight days, during which time they captured one hundred and twenty deer. They purpoſely prolonged their ſtay that the froſt might ſeal up the marſhes, ponds, and rivers over which they were to paſs. Early in December they began to arrange into convenient packages their peltry and veniſon, the fat of which was to ſerve as butter

butter in their rude huts during the icy months of winter. On the 4th of the month they broke camp and began their weary march, each ſavage bearing a burden of not leſs than a hundred pounds, while Champlain himſelf carried a package of about twenty. Some of them conſtructed rude ſledges, on which they eaſily dragged their luggage over the ice and ſnow. During the progreſs of the journey, a warm current came ſweeping up from the ſouth, melted the ice, flooded the marſhes, and for four days the overburdened and weary travellers ſtruggled on, knee-deep in mud and water and ſluſh. Without experience, a lively imagination alone can picture the toil, ſuffering, and expoſure of a journey through the tangled foreſts and half-ſubmerged bogs and marſhes of Canada, in the moſt inclement ſeaſon of the year.

At length, on the 23d of December, after nineteen days of exceſſive toil, they arrived at Cahiagué, the chief town of the Hurons, the rendezvous of the allied tribes, whence they had ſet forth on the firſt of September, nearly four months before, on what may ſeem to us a bootleſs raid. To the ſavage warriors, however, it doubtleſs ſeemed a different thing. They had been enabled to bring home valuable proviſions, which were likely to be important to them when an unſucceſsful hunt might, as it often did, leave them nearly deſtitute of food. They had loſt but a ſingle man, and this was leſs than they had anticipated, and, moreover, was the common fortune of war. They had invaded the territory and made their preſence felt in the very home of their enemies, and could rejoice in having inflicted upon them more injury than they had themſelves received. Though they had not captured

tured or annihilated them, they had done enough to inſpire and fully ſuſtain their own grovelling pride.

To Champlain even, although the expedition had been accompanied by hardſhip and ſuffering and ſome diſappointments, it was by no means a failure. He had explored an intereſting and important region; he had gone where European feet had never trod, and had ſeen what European eyes had never ſeen; he had, moreover, planted the lilies of France in the chief Indian towns, and at all ſuitable and important points, and theſe were to be witneſſes of poſſeſſion and ownerſhip in what his exuberant imagination ſaw as a vaſt French empire riſing into power and opulence in the weſtern world.

It was now the laſt week in December, and the deep ſnows and piercing cold rendered it impoſſible for Champlain or even the allied warriors to continue their journey further. The Algonquins and Nipiſſings became gueſts of the Hurons for the winter, encamping within their principal walled town, or perhaps in ſome neighboring village not far removed.

After the reſt of a few days at Cahiagué, where he had been hoſpitably entertained, Champlain took his departure for Carhagouha, a ſmaller village, where his friend the Recollect Father, Joſeph le Caron, had taken up his abode as the pioneer miſſionary to the Hurons. It was important for Le Caron to obtain all the information poſſible, not only of the Hurons, but of all the ſurrounding tribes, as he contemplated returning to France the next ſummer to report to his patrons upon the character, extent, and hopefulneſs of the miſſionary field which he had been ſent out to explore.

Champlain

Champlain was happy to avail himſelf of his company in executing the explorations which he deſired to make.

They accordingly ſet out together on the 15th of January, and penetrated the trackleſs and ſnow-bound foreſts, and, proceeding in a weſtern direction, after a journey of two days, reached a tribe called *Petuns*, an agricultural people, ſimilar in habits and mode of life to the Hurons. By them they were hoſpitably received, and a great feſtival, in which all their neighbors participated, was celebrated in honor of their new gueſts. Having viſited ſeven or eight of their villages, the explorers puſhed forward ſtill further weſt, when they came to the ſettlement of an intereſting tribe, which they named *Cheveux-Relevés*, or the "lofty haired," an appellation ſuggeſted by the mode of dreſſing their hair.

On their return from this expedition, they found, on reaching the encampment of the Nipiſſings, who were wintering in the Huron territory, that a diſagreement had ariſen between the Hurons and their Algonquin gueſts, which had already aſſumed a dangerous character. An Iroquois captive taken in the late war had been awarded to the Algonquins, according to the cuſtom of dividing the priſoners among the ſeveral bands of allies, and, finding him a ſkilful hunter, they reſolved to ſpare his life, and had actually adopted him as one of their tribe. This had offended the Hurons, who expected he would be put to the uſual torture, and they had commiſſioned one of their number, who had inſtantly killed the unfortunate priſoner by plunging a knife into his heart. The aſſaſſin, in turn, had been ſet upon by the Algonquins and put to death on the ſpot. The perpetrators of this laſt act had regretted the occurrence, and had done

done what they could to heal the breach by preſents: but there was, nevertheleſs, a ſmouldering feeling of hoſtility ſtill lingering in both parties, which might at any moment break out into open conflict.

It was obvious to Champlain that a permanent diſagreement between theſe two important allies would be a great calamity to themſelves as well as diſaſtrous to his own plans. It was his purpoſe, therefore, to bring them, if poſſible, to a cordial pacification. Proceeding cautiouſly and with great deliberation, he made himſelf acquainted with all the facts of the quarrel, and then called an aſſembly of both parties and clearly ſet before them in all its lights the utter fooliſhneſs of allowing a circumſtance of really ſmall importance to interfere with an alliance between two great tribes; an alliance neceſſary to their proſperity, and particularly in the war they were carrying on againſt their common enemy, the Iroquois. This appeal of Champlain was ſo convincing that when the aſſembly broke up all profeſſed themſelves entirely ſatisfied, although the Algonquins were heard to mutter their determination never again to winter in the territory of the Hurons, a wiſe and not unnatural concluſion.

Champlain's conſtant intercourſe with theſe tribes for many months in their own homes, his explorations, obſervations, and inquiries, enabled him to obtain a comprehenſive, definite, and minute knowledge of their character, religion, government, and mode of life. As the fruit of theſe inveſtigations, he prepared in the leiſure of the winter an elaborate memoir, replete with diſcriminating details, which is and muſt always be an unqueſtionable authority on the ſubject of which it treats.

CHAPTER IX.

CHAPTER IX.

CHAMPLAIN'S RETURN FROM THE HURON COUNTRY AND VOYAGE TO FRANCE. — THE CONTRACTED VIEWS OF THE COMPANY OF MERCHANTS. — THE PRINCE DE CONDÉ SELLS THE VICEROYALTY TO THE DUKE DE MONTMORENCY. — CHAMPLAIN WITH HIS WIFE RETURNS TO QUEBEC, WHERE HE REMAINS FOUR YEARS. — HAVING REPAIRED THE BUILDINGS AND ERECTED THE FORTRESS OF ST. LOUIS, CHAMPLAIN RETURNS TO FRANCE. — THE VICEROYALTY TRANSFERRED TO HENRY DE LEVI, AND THE COMPANY OF THE HUNDRED ASSOCIATES ORGANIZED.

ABOUT the 20th of May, Champlain, accompanied by the miſſionary, Le Caron, eſcorted by a delegation of ſavages, ſet out from the Huron capital, in the preſent county of Simcoe, on their return to Quebec. Purſuing the ſame circuitous route by which they had come, they were forty days in reaching the Falls of St. Louis, near Montreal, where they found Pont Gravé, juſt arrived from France, who, with the reſt, was much rejoiced at ſeeing Champlain, ſince a rumor had gone abroad that he had periſhed among the ſavages.

The party arrived at Quebec on the 11th of July. A public ſervice of thankſgiving was celebrated by the Recollect Fathers for their ſafe return. The Huron chief, D'Arontal, with whom Champlain had paſſed the winter and who had accompanied him to Quebec, was greatly entertained and delighted with the eſtabliſhment of the French, the buildings and other acceſſories of European life, ſo different from his own, and earneſtly requeſted Champlain to make a ſettlement at Montreal, that his whole tribe might come and reſide

reſide near them, ſafe under their protection againſt their Iroquois enemies.

Champlain did not remain at Quebec more than ten days, during which he planned and put in execution the enlargement of their houſes and fort, increaſing their capacity by at leaſt one third. This he found neceſſary to do for the greater convenience of the little colony, as well as for the occaſional entertainment of ſtrangers. He left for France on the 20th day of July, in company with the Recollect Fathers, Joſeph le Caron and Denis Jamay, the commiſſary of the miſſion, taking with them ſpecimens of French grain which had been produced near Quebec, to teſtify to the excellent quality of the ſoil. They arrived at Honfleur in France on the 10th of September, 1616.

The exploration in the diſtant Indian territories which we have juſt deſcribed in the preceding pages was the laſt made by Champlain. He had plans for the ſurvey of other regions yet unexplored, but the favorable opportunity did not occur. Henceforth he directed his attention more excluſively than he had hitherto done to the enlargement and ſtrengthening of his colonial plantation, without ſuch ſucceſs, we regret to ſay, as his zeal, devotion, and labors fitly deſerved. The obſtacles that lay in his way were inſurmountable. The eſtabliſhment or factory, we can hardly call it a plantation, at Quebec, was the creature of a company of merchants. They had inveſted conſiderable ſums in ſhipping, buildings, and in the employment of men, in order to carry on a trade in furs and peltry with the Indians, and they naturally deſired remunerative returns. This was the limit of their purpoſe in making the inveſtment. The corporators

tors ſaw nothing in their organization but a commercial enterpriſe yielding immediate reſults. They were inſpired by no generoſity, no loyalty, or patriotiſm that could draw from them a farthing to increaſe the wealth, power, or aggrandizement of France. Under theſe circumſtances, Champlain ſtruggled on for years againſt a current which he could barely direct, but by no means control.

Champlain made voyages to New France both in 1617 and in 1618. In the latter year, among the Indians who came to Quebec for the purpoſe of trade, appeared Étienne Brulé, the interpreter, who it will be remembered had been deſpatched in 1615, when Champlain was among the Hurons, to the Entouhonorons at Carantouan, to induce them to join in the attack of the Iroquois in central New York. During the three years that had intervened, nothing had been heard from him. Brulé related the ſtory of his extraordinary adventures, which Champlain has preſerved, and which may be found in the report of the voyage of 1618, in Volume III. of this work.[84]

At Quebec, he met numerous bands of Indians from remote regions,

[84] The character of Étienne Brulé, either for honor or veracity, is not improved by his ſubſequent conduct. He appears in 1629 to have turned traitor, to have ſold himſelf to the Engliſh, and to have piloted them up the river in their expedition againſt Quebec. Whether this conduct, baſe certainly it was, ought to affect the credibility of his ſtory, the reader muſt judge. Champlain undoubtedly believed it when he firſt related it to him. He probably had no means then or afterwards of teſting its truth. In the edition of 1632, Brulé's ſtory is omitted. It does not neceſſarily follow that it was omitted becauſe Champlain came to diſcredit the ſtory, ſince many paſſages contained in his preceding publications are omitted in the edition of 1632, but they are not generally paſſages of ſo much geographical importance as this, if it be true. The map of 1632 indicates the country of the Carantouanais; but this information might have been obtained by Champlain from the Hurons, or the more weſtern tribes which he viſited during the winter of 1615–16. — *Vide* ed. 1632, p. 220.

regions, whom he had viſited in former years, and who, in fulfilment of their promiſes, had come to barter their peltry for ſuch commodities as ſuited their need or fancy, and to renew and ſtrengthen their friendſhip with the French. By theſe repeated interviews, and the cordial reception and generous entertainment which he always gave them, the Indians dwelling on the upper waters of the Ottawa, along the borders of Lake Huron, or on the Georgian Bay, formed a ſtrong perſonal attachment to Champlain, and yearly brought down their fleets of canoes heavily freighted with the valuable furs which they had diligently ſecured during the preceding winter. His perſonal influence with them, a power which he exerciſed with great delicacy, wiſdom, and fidelity, contributed largely to the revenues annually obtained by the aſſociated merchants.

But Champlain deſired more than this. He was not ſatisfied to be the agent and chief manager of a company organized merely for the purpoſe of trade. He was anxious to elevate the meagre factory at Quebec into the dignity and national importance of a colonial plantation. For this purpoſe he had teſted the ſoil by numerous experiments, and had, from time to time, forwarded to France ſpecimens of ripened grain to bear teſtimony to its productive quality. He even laid the ſubject before the Council of State, and they gave it their cordial approbation. By theſe means giving emphaſis to his perſonal appeals, he ſucceeded at length in extorting from the company a promiſe to enlarge the eſtabliſhment to eighty perſons, with ſuitable equipments, farming implements, all kinds of ſeeds and domeſtic animals, including cattle and ſheep. But when the time came, this promiſe

promiſe was not fulfilled. Differences, bickerings, and feuds ſprang up in the company. Some wanted one thing, and ſome wanted another. Even religion caſt in an apple of diſcord. The Catholics wiſhed to extend the faith of their church into the wilds of Canada, while the Huguenots deſired to prevent it, or at leaſt not to promote it by their own contributions. The company, inſpired by avarice and a deſire to reſtrict the eſtabliſhment to a mere trading poſt, raiſed an iſſue to diſcredit Champlain. It was gravely propoſed that he ſhould devote himſelf excluſively to exploration, and that the government and trade ſhould henceforth be under the direction and control of Pont Gravé. But Champlain was not a man to be ejected from an official poſition by thoſe who had neither the authority to give it to him or the power to take it away. Pont Gravé was his intimate, long-tried, and truſted friend; and, while he regarded him with filial reſpect and affection, he could not yield, even to him, the rights and honors which had been accorded to him as a recognition, if not a reward, for many years of faithful ſervice, which he had rendered under circumſtances of perſonal hardſhip and danger. The king addreſſed a letter to the company, in which he directed them to aid Champlain as much as poſſible in making explorations, in ſettling the country, and cultivating the ſoil, while with their agents in the traffic of peltry there ſhould be no interference. But the ſpirit of avarice could not be ſubdued by the mandate of the king. The aſſociated merchants were ſtill obſtinate. Champlain had intended to take his family to Canada that year, but he declined to make the voyage under any implication of a divided authority. The veſſel in which he was

to ſail departed without him, and Pont Gravé ſpent the winter in charge of the company's affairs at Quebec.

Champlain, in the mean time, took ſuch active meaſures as ſeemed neceſſary to eſtabliſh his authority as lieutenant of the viceroy, or governor of New France. He appeared before the Council of State at Tours, and after an elaborate argument and thorough diſcuſſion of the whole ſubject, obtained a decree ordering that he ſhould have the command at Quebec and at all other ſettlements in New France, and that the company ſhould abſtain from any interference with him in the diſcharge of the duties of his office.

The Prince de Condé having recently been liberated from an impriſonment of three years, governed by his natural avarice, was not unwilling to part with his viceroyalty, and early in 1620 transferred it, for the conſideration of eleven thouſand crowns, or about five hundred and fifty pounds ſterling, to his brother-in-law, the Duke de Montmorency,[85] at that time high-admiral of France. The new viceroy appointed Champlain his lieutenant, who immediately prepared to leave for Quebec. But when he arrived at Honfleur, the company, diſpleaſed at the recent change, again brought forward the old queſtion of the authority which the lieutenant was to exerciſe in New France. The time for diſcuſſion had, however, paſſed. No further words were now to be waſted. The

[85] Henry de Montmorency II. was born at Chantilly in 1595, and was beheaded at Toulouſe Oct. 30, 1632. He was created admiral at the age of ſeventeen. He commanded the Dutch fleet at the ſiege of Rochelle. He made the campaigns of 1629 and 1630 in Piedmont, and was created a marſhal of France after the victory of Veillane. He adopted the party of Gaſton, the Duke of Orleans, and having excited the province of Languedoc of which he was governor to rebellion, he was defeated, and executed as guilty of high treaſon. He was the laſt ſcion of the elder branch of Montmorency, and his death was a fatal blow to the reign of feudaliſm.

The viceroy ſent them a peremptory order to deſiſt from further interferences, or otherwiſe their ſhips, already equipped for their yearly trade, would not be permitted to leave port. This meſſage from the high-admiral of France came with authority and had the deſired effect.

Early in May, 1620, Champlain ſailed from Honfleur, accompanied by his wife and ſeveral Recollect friars, and, after a voyage of two months, arrived at Tadouſſac, where he was cordially greeted by his brother-in-law, Euſtache Boullé, who was very much aſtoniſhed at the arrival of his ſiſter, and particularly that ſhe was brave enough to encounter the dangers of the ocean and take up her abode in a wilderneſs at once barren of both the comforts and refinements of European life.

On the 11th of July, Champlain left Tadouſſac for Quebec, where he found the whole eſtabliſhment, after an abſence of two years, in a condition of painful neglect and diſorder. He was cordially received, and becoming ceremonies were obſerved to celebrate his arrival. A ſermon compoſed for the occaſion was delivered by one of the Recollect Fathers, the commiſſion of the king and that of the viceroy appointing him to the ſole command of the colony were publicly read, cannon were diſcharged, and the little populace, from loyal hearts, loudly vociferated *Vive le Roy!*

The attention of the lieutenant was at firſt directed to reſtoration and repairs. The roof of the buildings no longer kept out the rain, nor the walls the piercing fury of the winds. The gardens were in a ſtate of ruinous neglect, and the fields poorly and ſcantily cultivated. But the zeal, energy, and induſtry of Champlain ſoon put every thing in repair,

repair, and gave to the little ſettlement the aſpect of neatneſs and thrift. When this was accompliſhed, he laid the foundations of a fortreſs, which he called the *Fort Saint Louis*, ſituated on the creſt of the rocky elevation in the rear of the ſettlement, about a hundred and ſeventy-two feet above the ſurface of the river, a poſition which commanded the whole breadth of the St. Lawrence at that narrow point.

This work, ſo neceſſary for the protection and ſafety of the colony, involving as it did ſome expenſe, was by no means ſatisfactory to the Company of Aſſociates.[86] Their general fault-finding and chronic diſcontent led the Duke de Montmorency to adopt heroic meaſures to ſilence their complaints. In the ſpring of 1621, he ſummarily diſſolved the aſſociation of merchants, which he denominated the "Company of Rouen and St. Malo," and eſtabliſhed another in its place. He continued Champlain in the office of lieutenant, but committed all matters relating to trade to William de Caen, a merchant of high ſtanding, and to Émeric de Caen the nephew of the former, a good naval captain. This new and haſty reorganization, arbitrary if not illegal, however important it might ſeem to the proſperity and ſucceſs of the colony, laid upon Champlain new reſponſibilities and duties at once delicate and difficult to diſcharge. Though in form ſuppreſſed, the company did not yield either its exiſtence or its rights. Both the old and the new company were, by their agents, early in New France, clamoring for their

[86] Among other annoyances which Champlain had to contend againſt was the contraband trade carried on by the unlicenſed Rochellers, who not only carried off quantities of peltry, but even ſupplied the Indians with fire-arms and ammunition. This was illegal, and endangered the ſafety of the colony. — *Vide Voyages par De Champlain*, Paris, 1632, Sec. Partie, p. 3.

their reſpective intereſts. De Caen, in behalf of the new, inſiſted that the lieutenant ought to prohibit all trade with the Indians by the old company, and, moreover, that he ought to ſeize their property and hold it as ſecurity for their unpaid obligations. Champlain, having no written authority for ſuch a proceeding, and De Caen declining to produce any, did not approve the meaſure and declined to act. The threats of De Caen that he would take the matter into his own hands, and ſeize the veſſel of the old company commanded by Pont Gravé and then in port, were ſo violent that Champlain thought it prudent to place a body of armed men in his little fort ſtill unfiniſhed, until the fury of the altercation ſhould ſubſide.[87] This deciſive meaſure, and time, the natural emollient of irritated tempers, ſoon reſtored peace to the contending parties, and each was allowed to carry on its trade unmoleſted by the other. The prudence of Champlain's conduct was fully juſtified, and the two companies, by mutual conſent, were, the next year, conſolidated into one.

Champlain remained at Quebec four years before again returning to France. His time was divided between many local enterpriſes of great importance. His ſpecial attention was given to advancing the work on the unfiniſhed fort, in order to provide againſt incurſions of the hoſtile Iroquois,[88] who at one time approached the very walls of Quebec, and attacked unſucceſsfully the guarded houſe of the Recollects on the St. Charles.[89] He undertook the reconſtruction of the

[87] *Vide* ed. 1632, Sec. Partie, Chap. III.

[88] *Vide Hiſt. New France*, by Charlevoix, Shea's Trans., Vol. II. p. 32.

[89] The houſe of the Recollects on the St. Charles was erected in 1620, and was called the *Conuent de Noſtre Dame*

the buildings of the ſettlement from their foundations. The main ſtructure was enlarged to a hundred and eight feet[90] in length, with two wings of ſixty feet each, having ſmall towers at the four corners. In front and on the borders of the river a platform was erected, on which were placed cannon, while the whole was ſurrounded by a ditch ſpanned by drawbridges.

Having placed every thing at Quebec in as good order as his limited means would permit, and given orders for the completion of the works which he had commenced, leaving Émeric de Caen in command, Champlain determined to return to France with his wife, who, though devoted to a religious life, we may well ſuppoſe was not unwilling to exchange the rough, monotonous, and dreary mode of living at Quebec for the more congenial refinements to which ſhe had always been accuſtomed in her father's family near the court of Louis XIII. He accordingly ſailed on the 15th of Auguſt, and arrived at Dieppe on the 1ſt of October, 1624. He haſtened to St. Germain, and reported to the king and the viceroy what had occurred and what had been done during the four years of his abſence.

The intereſts of the two companies had not been adjuſted and they were ſtill in conflict. The Duke de Montmorency about this time negotiated a ſale of his viceroyalty to his nephew, Henry de Levi, Duke de Ventadour. This nobleman,

Dame des Anges. The Father Jean d'Olbeau laid the firſt ſtone on the 3d of June of that year. — *Vide Hiſtoire du Canada* par Gabriel Sagard, Paris, 1636, Troſs ed., 1866, p. 67; *Découvertes et Établiſſements des Français, dans l'oueſt et dans le ſud de L'Amerique Septentrionale* 1637, par Pierre Margry, Paris, 1876, Vol. I. p. 7.

[90] *Hundred and eight feet*, dix-huict toyſes. The *toiſe* is here eſtimated at ſix feet. Compare *Voyages de Champlain*, Laverdière's ed., Vol. I. p. lii, and ed. 1632, Paris, Partie Seconde, p. 63.

bleman, of a deeply religious caſt of mind, had taken holy orders, and his chief purpoſe in obtaining the viceroyalty was to encourage the planting of Catholic miſſions in New France. As his ſpiritual directors were Jeſuits, he naturally committed the work to them. Three fathers and two lay brothers of this order were ſent to Canada in 1625, and others ſubſequently joined them. Whatever were the fruits of their labors, many of them periſhed in their heroic undertaking, manfully ſuffering the exquiſite pains of mutilation and torture.

Champlain was reappointed lieutenant, but remained in France two years, fully occupied with public and private duties, and in frequent conſultations with the viceroy as to the beſt method of advancing the future intereſts of the colony. On the 15th of April, 1626, with Euſtache Boullé, his brother-in-law, who had been named his aſſiſtant or lieutenant, he again ſailed for Quebec, where he arrived on the 5th of July. He found the coloniſts in excellent health, but nevertheleſs approaching the borders of ſtarvation, having nearly exhauſted their proviſions. The work that he had laid out to be done on the buildings had been entirely neglected. One important reaſon for this neglect, was the neceſſary employment of a large number of the moſt efficient laborers, for the chief part of the ſummer in obtaining forage for their cattle in winter, collecting it at a diſtance of twenty-five or thirty miles from the ſettlement. To obviate this inconvenience, Champlain took an early opportunity to erect a farm-houſe near the natural meadows at Cape Tourmente, where the cattle could be kept with little attendance, appointing at the ſame time an overſeer for the men, and making a weekly viſit

viſit to this eſtabliſhment for perſonal inſpection and overſight.

The fort, which had been erected on the creſt of the rocky height in the rear of the dwelling, was obviouſly too ſmall for the protection of the whole colony in caſe of an attack by hoſtile ſavages. He conſequently took it down and erected another on the ſame ſpot, with earthworks on the land ſide, where alone, with difficulty, it could be approached. He alſo made extenſive repairs upon the ſtorehouſe and dwelling.

During the winter of 1626–27, the friendly Indians, the Montagnais, Algonquins, and others gave Champlain much anxiety by unadviſedly entering into an alliance, into which they were enticed by bribes, with a tribe dwelling near the Dutch, in the preſent State of New York, to aſſiſt them againſt their old enemies, the Iroquois, with whom, however, they had for ſome time been at peace. Champlain juſtly looked upon this fooliſh undertaking as hazardous not only to the proſperity of theſe friendly tribes, but to their very exiſtence. He accordingly ſent his brother-in-law to Three Rivers, the rendezvous of the ſavage warriors, to convince them of their error and avert their purpoſe. Boullé ſucceeded in obtaining a delay until all the tribes ſhould be aſſembled and until the trading veſſels ſhould arrive from France. When Émeric de Caen was ready to go to Three Rivers, Champlain urged upon him the great importance of ſuppreſſing this impending conflict with the Iroquois. The efforts of De Caen were, however, ineffectual. He forthwith wrote to Champlain that his preſence was neceſſary to arreſt theſe hoſtile proceedings. On his arrival, a grand council was

was assembled, and Champlain succeeded, after a full statement of all the evils that must evidently follow, in reversing their decision, and messengers were sent to heal the breach. Some weeks afterward news came that the embassadors were inhumanly massacred.

Crimes of a serious nature were not unfrequently committed against the French by Indians belonging to tribes, with which they were at profound peace. On one occasion two men, who were conducting cattle by land from Cape Tourmente to Quebec, were assassinated in a cowardly manner. Champlain demanded of the chiefs that they should deliver to him the perpetrators of the crime. They expressed genuine sorrow for what had taken place, but were unable to obtain the criminals. At length, after consulting with the missionary, Le Caron, they offered to present to Champlain three young girls as pledges of their good faith, that he might educate them in the religion and manners of the French. The gift was accepted by Champlain, and these savage maidens became exceedingly attached to their foster-father, as we shall see in the sequel.

The end of the year 1627 found the colony, as usual, in a depressed state. As a colony, it had never prospered. The average number composing it had not exceeded about fifty persons. At this time it may have been somewhat more, but did not reach a hundred. A single family only appears to have subsisted by the cultivation of the soil.[91] The rest were

[91] There was but one private house at Quebec in 1623, and that belonged to Madame Hébert, whose husband was the first to attempt to obtain a living by the cultivation of the soil. — *Vide Sagard, Hist. du Canada*, 1636, Tross ed. Vol. I. p. 163. There were fifty-one inhabitants at Quebec in 1624, including men, women, and children. — *Vide Champlain*, ed. 1632, p. 76.

were ſuſtained by ſupplies ſent from France. From the beginning diſputes and contentions had prevailed in the corporation. Endleſs bickerings ſprung up between the Huguenots and Catholics, each ſenſitive and jealous of their rights.[92] All expenditures were the ſubject of cenſorious criticiſm. The neceſſary repairs of the fort, the enlargement and improvement of the buildings from time to time, were too often reſiſted as unneceſſary and extravagant. The company, as a mere trading aſſociation, was doubtleſs ſucceſsful. Large quantities of peltry were annually brought by the Indians for traffic to the Falls of St. Louis, Three Rivers, Quebec, and Tadouſſac. The average number of beaver-ſkins annually purchaſed and tranſported to France was probably not far from fifteen thouſand to twenty thouſand, and in a moſt favorable year it mounted up to twenty-two thouſand.[93] The large dividends that they were able to make, intimated by Champlain to be not far from forty per centum yearly, were, of courſe, highly ſatisfactory to the company. They deſired not to impair this characteriſtic of their enterpriſe. They had, therefore, a prime motive for not wiſhing to lay out a ſingle unneceſſary franc on the eſtabliſhment. Their

[92] *Vide Champlain*, ed. 1632, pp. 107, 108, for an account of the attempt on the part of the Huguenot, Émeric de Caen, to require his ſailors to chaunt pſalms and ſay prayers on board his ſhip after entering the River St. Lawrence, contrary to the direction of the Viceroy, the Duke de Ventadour. As two thirds of them were Huguenots, it was finally agreed that they ſhould continue to ſay their prayers, but muſt omit their pſalm-ſinging.

[93] Father Lalemant enumerates the kind of peltry obtained by the French from the Indians, and the amount, as follows: "En eſchange ils emportent des peaux d'Orignac, de Loup Ceruier, de Renard, de Loutre, et quelquefois il ſ'en rencontre de noires, de Martre, de Blaireau et de Rat Musqué, mais principalement de Caſtor qui eſt le plus grand de leur gain. On m'a dit que pour vne année ils en auoyent emporté iuſques à 22000. L'ordinaire de chaque année eſt de 15000, ou 20000, à vne piſtole la piece, ce n'eſt pas mal allé." — *Vide Rélation de la Nouvelle France en l'Annee* 1626, Quebec ed. p. 5.

Their policy was to keep the expenſes at the minimum and the net income at the maximum. Under theſe circumſtances, nearly twenty years had elapſed ſince the founding of Quebec, and it ſtill poſſeſſed only the character of a trading poſt, and not that of a colonial plantation. This progreſs was ſatisfactory neither to Champlain, to the viceroy, nor the council of ſtate. In the view of theſe ſeveral intereſted parties, the time had come for a radical change in the organization of the company. Cardinal de Richelieu had riſen by his extraordinary ability as a ſtateſman, a ſhort time anterior to this, into ſupreme authority, and had aſſumed the office of grand maſter and chief of the navigation and commerce of France. His ſagacious and comprehenſive mind ſaw clearly the intimate and interdependent relations between theſe two great national intereſts and the enlargement and proſperity of the French colonies in America. He loſt no time in organizing meaſures which ſhould bring them into the cloſeſt harmony. The company of merchants whoſe finances had been ſo ſkilfully managed by the Caens was by him at once diſſolved. A new one was formed, denominated *La Compagnie de la Nouvelle-France*, conſiſting of a hundred or more members, and commonly known as the Company of the Hundred Aſſociates. It was under the control and management of Richelieu himſelf. Its members were largely gentlemen in official poſitions about the court, in Paris, Rouen, and other cities of France. Among them were the Marquis Deffiat, ſuperintendent of finances, Claude de Roquemont, the Commander de Razilly, Captain Charles Daniel, Sébaſtien Cramoiſy, the diſtinguiſhed Paris printer, Louis Houêl, the controller of the ſalt works in Brouage,

Brouage, Champlain, and others well known in public circles.

The new company had many characteriſtics which ſeemed to aſſure the ſolid growth and enlargement of the colony. Its authority extended over the whole domain of New France and Florida. It provided in its organization for an actual capital of three hundred thouſand livres. It entered into an obligation to ſend to Canada in 1628 from two to three hundred artiſans of all trades, and within the ſpace of fifteen years to tranſport four thouſand coloniſts to New France. The coloniſts were to be wholly ſupported by the company for three years, and at the expiration of that period were to be aſſigned as much land as they needed for cultivation. The ſettlers were to be native-born Frenchmen, excluſively of the Catholic faith, and no foreigner or Huguenot was to be permitted to enter the country.[94] The charter accorded to the company the excluſive control of trade, and

[94] This excluſiveneſs was characteriſtic of the age. Cardinal Richelieu and his aſſociates were not qualified by education or by any tendency of their natures to inaugurate a reformation in this direction. The experiment of amalgamating Catholic and Huguenot in the enterpriſes of the colony had been tried but with ill ſucceſs. Contentions and bickerings had been inceſſant, and subverſive of peace and good neighborhood. Neither party had the ſpirit of practical toleration as we underſtand it, and which we regard at the preſent day as a priceleſs boon. Nor was it underſtood anywhere for a long time afterward. Even the Puritans of Maſſachuſetts Bay did not comprehend it, and took heroic meaſures to exclude from their commonwealth thoſe who differed from them in their religious faith. We certainly cannot cenſure them for not being in advance of their times. It would doubtleſs have been more manly in them had they excluded all differing from them by plain legal enactment, as did the Society of the Hundred Aſſociates, rather than to impriſon or baniſh any on charges which all ſubſequent generations muſt pronounce unſuſtained. — *Vide Memoir of the Rev. John Wheelwright*, by Charles H. Bell, Prince Society, ed. 1876, pp. 9–31 *et paſſim; Hutchinſon Papers*, Prince Society ed., 1865, Vol. I. pp. 79–113. *American Criminal Trials*, by Peleg W. Chandler, Boſton, 1841, Vol. I. p. 29.

and all goods manufactured in New France were to be free of impoſts on exportation. Beſides theſe, it ſecured to the corporators other and various excluſive privileges of a ſemi-feudal character, ſuppoſed, however, to contribute to the proſperity and growth of the colony.

The organization of the company, having received the formal approbation of Richelieu on the 29th of April, 1627, was ratified by the Council of State on the 6th of May, 1628.

CHAPTER X.

THE FAVORABLE PROSPECTS OF THE COMPANY OF NEW FRANCE. — THE ENGLISH INVASION OF CANADA AND THE SURRENDER OF QUEBEC. — CAPTAIN DANIEL PLANTS A FRENCH COLONY NEAR THE GRAND CIBOU. — CHAMPLAIN IN FRANCE, AND THE TERRITORIAL CLAIMS OF THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH STILL UNSETTLED.

THE Company of New France, or of the Hundred Aſſociates, loſt no time in carrying out the purpoſe of its organization. Even before the ratification of its charter by the council, four armed veſſels had been fitted out and had already ſailed under the command of Claude de Roquemont, a member of the company, to convoy a fleet of eighteen tranſports laden with emigrants and ſtores, together with one hundred and thirty-five pieces of ordnance to fortify their ſettlements in New France.

The company, thus compoſed of noblemen, wealthy merchants, and officials of great perſonal influence, with a large capital, and Cardinal Richelieu, who really controlled and ſhaped

ſhaped the policy of France at that period, at its head, poſſeſſed ſo many elements of ſtrength that, in the reaſonable judgment of men, ſucceſs was aſſured, failure impoſſible.[95]

To Champlain, the viſion of a great colonial eſtabliſhment in New France, that had ſo long floated before him in the diſtance, might well ſeem to be now almoſt within his graſp.

But diſappointment was near at hand. Events were already tranſpiring which were deſtined to caſt a cloud over theſe brilliant hopes. A fleet of armed veſſels was already croſſing the Atlantic, bearing the Engliſh flag, with hoſtile intentions to the ſettlements in New France. Here we muſt pauſe in our narrative to explain the origin, character, and purpoſe of this armament, as unexpected to Champlain as it was unwelcome.

The reader muſt be reminded that no boundaries between the French and Engliſh territorial poſſeſſions in North America at this time exiſted. Each of theſe great nations was putting forth claims ſo broad and extenſive as to utterly exclude the other. By their reſpective charters, grants, and conceſſions, they recognized no ſovereignty or ownerſhip but their own.

Henry IV. of France, made, in 1603, a grant to a favorite nobleman, De Monts, of the territory lying between the fortieth and the forty-ſixth degrees of north latitude. James I. of England, three years later, in 1606, granted to the Virginia

[95] The aſſociation was a joint-ſtock company. Each corporator was bound to pay in three thouſand livres; and as there were over a hundred, the quick capital amounted to over 300,000 livres. — *Vide Mercure François*, Paris, 1628, Tome XIV. p. 250.

For a full ſtatement of the organization and conſtitution of the Company of New France, *Vide Mercure François*, Tome XIV. pp. 232–267. *Vide* alſo *Charlevoix's Hiſt. New France*, Shea's Trans. Vol. II. pp. 39–44.

ginia Companies the territory lying between the thirty-fourth and the forty-eighth degrees of north latitude, covering the whole grant made by the French three years before. Creuxius, a French hiſtorian of Canada, writing ſome years later than this, informs us that New France, that is, the French poſſeſſions in North America, then embraced the immenſe territory extending from Florida, or from the thirty-ſecond degree of latitude, to the polar circle, and in longitude from Newfoundland to Lake Huron. It will, therefore, be ſeen that each nation, the Engliſh and the French, claimed at that time ſovereignty over the ſame territory, and over nearly the whole of the continent of North America. Under theſe circumſtances, either of theſe nations was prepared to avail itſelf of any favorable opportunity to diſpoſſeſs the other.

The Engliſh, however, had, at this period, particular and ſpecial reaſons for deſiring to accompliſh this important object. Sir William Alexander,[96] Secretary of State for Scotland at the court of England, had received, in 1621, from James I., a grant, under the name of New Scotland, of a large territory, covering the preſent province of Nova Scotia, New Brunſwick, and that part of the province of Quebec lying eaſt of a line drawn from the head-waters of the River St. Croix in a northerly direction to the River St. Lawrence. He had aſſociated with him a large number of Scottiſh noblemen and merchants, and was taking active meaſures to eſtabliſh Scottiſh colonies on this territory. The French had made a ſettlement within its limits, which had been broken

[96] *Vide Sir William Alexander and American Colonization*, Prince Society, Boſton, 1873.

broken up and the colony diſperſed in 1613, by Captain Samuel Argall, under the authority of Sir Thomas Dale, governor of the colony at Jameſtown, Virginia. A deſultory and ſtraggling French population was ſtill in occupation, under the nominal governorſhip of Claude La Tour. Sir William Alexander and his aſſociates naturally looked for more or leſs inconvenience and annoyance from the claims of the French. It was, therefore, an object of great perſonal importance and particularly deſired by him, to extinguiſh all French claims, not only to his own grant, but to the neighboring ſettlement at Quebec. If this were done, he might be ſure of being unmoleſted in carrying forward his colonial enterpriſe.

A war had broken out between France and England the year before, for the oſtenſible purpoſe, on the part of the Engliſh, of relieving the Huguenots who were ſhut up in the city of Rochelle, which was beleaguered by the armies of Louis XIII., under the direction of his prime miniſter, Richelieu, who was reſolved to reduce this laſt ſtronghold to obedience. The exiſtence of this war offered an opportunity and pretext for diſpoſſeſſing the French and extinguiſhing their claims under the rules of war. This object could not be attained in any other way. The French were too deeply rooted to be removed by any leſs violent or deciſive means. No time was, therefore, loſt in taking advantage of this opportunity.

Sir William Alexander applied himſelf to the formation of a company of London merchants who ſhould bear the expenſe of fitting out an armament that ſhould not only overcome and take poſſeſſion of the French ſettlements and forts wherever

wherever they ſhould be found, but plant colonies and erect ſuitable defences to hold them in the future. The company was ſpeedily organized, conſiſting of Sir William Alexander, junior, Gervaſe Kirke, Robert Charlton, William Berkeley, and perhaps others, diſtinguiſhed merchants of London.[97] Six ſhips were equipped with a ſuitable armament and letters of marque, and deſpatched on their hoſtile errand. Capt. David Kirke, afterwards Sir David, was appointed admiral of the fleet, who likewiſe commanded one of the ſhips.[98] His brothers, Lewis Kirke and Thomas Kirke, were in command of two others. They ſailed under a royal patent executed in favor of Sir William Alexander, junior, ſon of the ſecretary, and others, granting excluſive authority to trade, ſeize, and confiſcate French or Spaniſh ſhips and deſtroy the French ſettlements on the river and Gulf of St. Lawence and parts adjacent.

Kirke

[97] *Vide Colonial Papers*, Vol. V. 87, III. We do not find the mention of any others as belonging to the Company of Merchant Adventurers to Canada.

[98] Sir David Kirke was one of five brothers, the ſons of Gervaſe or Gervais Kirke, a merchant of London, and his wife, Elizabeth Goudon of Dieppe in France. The grandfather of Sir David was Thurſton Kirke of Norton, a ſmall town in the northern part of the county of Derby, known as the birthplace of the ſculptor Chantrey. This little hamlet had been the home of the Kirkes for ſeveral generations. Gervaſe Kirke had, in 1629, reſided in Dieppe for the moſt of the forty years preceding, and his children were probably born there. Sir David Kirke was married to Sarah, daughter of Sir Joſeph Andrews. In early life he was a wine-merchant at Bordeaux and Cognac. He was knighted by Charles I. in 1633, in recognition of his ſervices in taking Quebec. On the 13th of November, 1637, he received a grant of "the whole continent, iſland, or region called Newfoundland." In 1638, he took up his reſidence at Ferryland, Newfoundland, in the houſe built by Lord Baltimore. He was a friend and correſpondent of Archbiſhop Laud, to whom he wrote, in 1639, "That the ayre of Newfoundland agrees perfectly well with all God's creatures, except Jeſuits and ſchiſmatics." He remained in Newfoundland nearly twenty years, where he died in 1655–56, having experienced many diſappointments occaſioned by his loyalty to Charles I. — *Vide Colonial Papers*, Vol. IX. No. 76; *The Firſt Engliſh Conqueſt of Canada*, by Henry Kirke, London, 1871, *paſſim*; *Les Voyages du Sievr de Champlain*, Paris ed. 1632, p. 257.

Kirke ſailed, with a part if not the whole of his fleet, to Annapolis Baſin in the Bay of Fundy, and took poſſeſſion of the deſultory French ſettlement to which we have already referred. He left a Scotch colony there, under the command of Sir William Alexander, junior, as governor. The fleet finally rendezvouſed at Tadouſſac, capturing all the French fiſhing barques, boats, and pinnaces which fell in its way on the coaſt of Nova Scotia, including the Iſland of Cape Breton.

From Tadouſſac, Kirke deſpatched a ſhallop to Quebec, in charge of ſix Baſque fiſhermen whom he had recently captured. They were bearers of an official communication from the admiral of the Engliſh fleet to Champlain. About the ſame time he ſent up the river, likewiſe, an armed barque, well manned, which anchored off Cape Tourmente, thirty miles below Quebec, near an outpoſt which had been eſtabliſhed by Champlain for the convenience of forage and paſturage for cattle. Here a ſquad of men landed, took four men, a woman, and little girl priſoners, killed ſuch of the cattle as they deſired for uſe and burned the reſt in the ſtables, as likewiſe two ſmall houſes, pillaging and laying waſte every thing they could find. Having done this, the barque haſtily returned to Tadouſſac.

We muſt now aſk the reader to return with us to the little ſettlement at Quebec. The proceedings which we have juſt narrated were as yet unknown to Champlain. The ſummer of 1628 was wearing on, and no ſupplies had arrived from France. It was obvious that ſome accident had detained the tranſports, and they might not arrive at all. His proviſions were nearly exhauſted. To ſubſiſt without a reſupply

was

was impoſſible. Each weary day added a new keenneſs to his anxiety. A winter of deſtitution, of ſtarvation and death for his little colony of well on towards a hundred perſons was the painful picture that now conſtantly haunted his mind. To avoid this cataſtrophe, if poſſible, he ordered a boat to be conſtructed, to enable him to communicate with the lower waters of the gulf, where he hoped he might obtain proviſions from the fiſhermen on the coaſt, or tranſportation for a part or the whole of his colony to France.

On the 9th of July, two men came up from Cape Tourmente to announce that an Indian had brought in the news that ſix large ſhips had entered and were lying at anchor in the harbor of Tadouſſac. The ſame day, not long after, two canoes arrived, in one of which was Foucher, the chief herdſman at Cape Tourmente, who had eſcaped from his captors, from whom Champlain firſt learned what had taken place at that outpoſt.

Sufficiently aſſured of the character of the enemy, Champlain haſtened to put the unfiniſhed fort in as good condition as poſſible, appointing to every man in the little garriſon his poſt, ſo that all might be ready for duty at a moment's warning. On the afternoon of the next day a ſmall ſail came into the bay, evidently a ſtranger, directing its courſe not through the uſual channel, but towards the little River St. Charles. It was too inſignificant to cauſe any alarm. Champlain, however, ſent a detachment of arquebuſiers to receive it. It proved to be Engliſh, and contained the ſix Baſque fiſhermen already referred to, charged by Kirke with deſpatches for Champlain. They had met the armed barque returning to Tadouſſac, and had taken off and brought up with them the

the woman and little girl who had been captured the day before at Cape Tourmente.

The deſpatch, written two days before, and bearing date July 8th, 1628, was a courteous invitation to ſurrender Quebec into the hands of the Engliſh, aſſigning ſeveral natural and cogent reaſons why it would be for the intereſt of all parties for them to do ſo. Under different circumſtances, the reaſoning might have had weight; but this Engliſh admiral had clearly conceived a very inadequate idea of the character of Champlain, if he ſuppoſed he would ſurrender his poſt, or even take it into conſideration, while the enemy demanding it and his means of enforcing it were at a diſtance of at leaſt a hundred miles. Champlain ſubmitted the letter to Pont Gravé and the other gentlemen of the colony, and we concluded, he adds, that if the Engliſh had a deſire to ſee us nearer, they muſt come to us, and not threaten us from ſo great a diſtance.

Champlain returned an anſwer declining the demand, couched in language of reſpectful and dignified politeneſs. It is eaſy, however, to detect a tinge of ſarcaſm running through it, ſo delicate as not to be offenſive, and yet ſufficiently obvious to convey a ſerene indifference on the part of the French commander as to what the Engliſh might think it beſt to do in the ſequel. The tone of the reply, the air of confidence pervading it, led Kirke to believe that the French were in a far better condition to reſiſt than they really were. The Engliſh admiral thought it prudent to withdraw. He deſtroyed all the French fiſhing veſſels and boats at Tadouſſac, and proceeded down the gulf, to do the ſame along the coaſt.

We

We have already alluded, in the preceding pages, to De Roquemont, the French admiral, who had been charged by the Company of the Hundred Aſſociates to convoy a fleet of tranſports to Canada. Wholly ignorant of the importance of an earlier arrival at Quebec, he appears to have moved leiſurely, and was now, with his whole fleet, lying at anchor in the Bay of Gaſpé. Hearing that Kirke was in the gulf, he very unwiſely prepared to give him battle, and moved out of the bay for that purpoſe. On the 18th of July the two armaments met. Kirke had ſix armed veſſels under his command, while De Roquemont had but four. The conflict was unequal. The Engliſh veſſels were unencumbered and much heavier than thoſe of the French. De Roquemont [99] was ſoon overpowered and compelled to ſurrender. His whole fleet of twenty-two veſſels, with a hundred and thirty-five pieces of ordnance, together with ſupplies and coloniſts for Quebec, were all taken. Kirke returned to England laden with the rich ſpoils of his conqueſt, having practically accompliſhed, if not what he had intended, nevertheleſs that which ſatisfied the avarice of the London merchants under whoſe auſpices the expedition had failed. The capture of Quebec had from the beginning been the objective purpoſe of Sir William Alexander. The taking of this fleet and the cutting off their ſupplies was an important ſtep in this undertaking. The conqueſt was thereby aſſured, though not completed.

Champlain,

[99] Champlain criticiſes with merited ſeverity the conduct of De Roquemont, and cloſes in the following words: "Le merite d'un bon Capitaine n'eſt pas ſeulemẽt au courage, mais il doit eſtre accõpagné de prudẽce, qui eſt ce qui les fait eſtimer, cõme eſtãt ſuiuy de ruſes, ſtratageſmes, & d'inventiõs: pluſieurs auec peu ont beaucoup fait, & ſe ſont rẽdus glorieux & redoubtables." — *Vide Les Voyages du Sievr de Champlain*, ed. 1632, part II p. 166.

Champlain, having deſpatched his reply to Kirke, naturally ſuppoſed he would ſoon appear before Quebec to carry out his threat. He awaited this event with great anxiety. About ten days after the meſſengers had departed, a young Frenchman, named Deſdames, arrived in a ſmall boat, having been ſent by De Roquemont, the admiral of the new company, to inform Champlain that he was then at Gaſpé with a large fleet, bringing coloniſts, arms, ſtores, and proviſions for the ſettlement. Deſdames alſo ſtated that De Roquemont intended to attack the Engliſh, and that on his way he had heard the report of cannon, which led him to believe that a conflict had already taken place. Champlain heard nothing more from the lower St. Lawrence until the next May, when an Indian from Tadouſſac brought the ſtory of De Roquemont's defeat.

In the mean time, Champlain reſorted to every expedient to provide ſubſiſtence for his famiſhing colony. Even at the time when the ſurrender was demanded by the Engliſh, they were on daily rations of ſeven ounces each. The means of obtaining food were exceedingly ſlender. Fiſhing could not be proſecuted to any extent, for the want of nets, lines, and hooks. Of gunpowder they had leſs than fifty pounds, and a poſſible attack by treacherous ſavages rendered it inexpedient to expend it in hunting game. Moreover, they had no ſalt for curing or preſerving the fleſh of ſuch wild animals as they chanced to take. The few acres cultivated by the miſſionaries and the Hébert family, and the ſmall gardens about the ſettlement, could yield but little towards ſuſtaining nearly a hundred perſons for the full term of ten months, the ſhorteſt period in which they could reaſonably expect ſupplies

ſupplies from France. A ſyſtem of the utmoſt economy was inſtituted. A few eels were purchaſed by exchange of beaver-ſkins from the Indians. Peaſe were reduced to flour firſt by mortars and later by hand-mills conſtructed for the purpoſe, and made into a ſoup to add flavor to other leſs palatable food. Thus economiſing their reſources, the winter finally wore away, but when the ſpring came, their ſcanty means were entirely exhauſted. Henceforth their ſole reliance was upon the few fiſh that could be taken from the river, and the edible roots gathered day by day from the fields and foreſts. An attempt was made to quarter ſome of the men upon the friendly Indians, but with little ſucceſs. Near the laſt of June, thirty of the colony, men, women, and children, unwilling to remain longer at Quebec, were deſpatched to Gaſpé, twenty of them to reſide there with the Indians, the others to ſeek a paſſage to France by ſome of the foreign fiſhing-veſſels on the coaſt. This detachment was conducted by Euſtache Boullé, the brother-in-law of Champlain. The remnant of the little colony, diſheartened by the gloomy proſpect before them and exhauſted by hunger, continued to drag out a miſerable exiſtence, gathering ſuſtenance for the wants of each day, without knowing what was to ſupply the demands of the next.

On the 19th of July, 1629, three Engliſh veſſels were ſeen from the fort at Quebec, diſtant not more than three miles, approaching under full ſail.[100] Their purpoſe could not be miſtaken. Champlain called a council, in which it was decided

[100] On the 13th of March, 1629, letters of marque were iſſued to Capt. David Kirke, Thomas Kirke, and others, in favor of the "Abigail," 300 tons, the "William," 200 tons, the "George" of London, and the "Jarvis."

cided at once to ſurrender, but only on good terms; otherwiſe, to reſiſt to their utmoſt with ſuch ſlender means as they had. The little garriſon of ſixteen men, all his available force, haſtened to their poſts. A flag of truce ſoon brought a ſummons from the brothers, Lewis and Thomas Kirke, couched in courteous language, aſking the ſurrender of the fort and ſettlement, and promiſing ſuch honorable and reaſonable terms as Champlain himſelf might dictate.

To this letter Champlain [101] replied that he had not, in his preſent circumſtances, the power of reſiſting their demand, and that on the morrow he would communicate the conditions on which he would deliver up the ſettlement; but, in the mean time, he muſt requeſt them to retire beyond cannon-ſhot, and not attempt to land. On the evening of the ſame day the articles of capitulation were delivered, which were finally, with very little variation, agreed to by both parties.

The whole eſtabliſhment at Quebec, with all the movable property belonging to it, was to be ſurrendered into the hands of the Engliſh. The coloniſts were to be tranſported to France, nevertheleſs, by the way of England. The officers were permitted to leave with their arms, clothes, and the peltries belonging to them as perſonal property. The ſoldiers were allowed their clothes and a beaver-robe each; the miſſionaries, their robes and books. This agreement was ſubſequently ratified at Tadouſſac by David Kirke, the admiral of the fleet, on the 19th of Auguſt, 1629.

On the 20th of July, Lewis Kirke, vice-admiral, at the head

[101] This correſpondence is preſerved by Champlain. — *Vide Les Voyages par le Sievr de Champlain*, Paris, 1632, pp. 215–219.

head of two hundred armed men,[102] took formal poſſeſſion of Quebec, in the name of Charles I., the king of England. The Engliſh flag was hoiſted over the Fort of St. Louis. Drums beat and cannon were diſcharged in token of the accompliſhed victory.

The Engliſh demeaned themſelves with exemplary courteſy and kindneſs towards their priſoners of war. Champlain was requeſted to continue to occupy his accuſtomed quarters until he ſhould leave Quebec; the holy maſs was celebrated at his requeſt; and an inventory of what was found in the habitation and fort was prepared and placed in his hand, a document which proved to be of ſervice in the ſequel. The coloniſts were naturally anxious as to the diſpoſition of their lands and effects; but their fears were quieted when they were all cordially invited to remain in the ſettlement, aſſured, moreover, that they ſhould have the ſame privileges and ſecurity of perſon and property which they had enjoyed from their own government. This generous offer of the Engliſh, and their kind and conſiderate treatment of them, induced the larger part of the coloniſts to remain.

On the 24th of July, Champlain, exhauſted by a year of diſtreſſing anxiety and care, and depreſſed by the adverſe proceedings going on about him, embarked on the veſſel of Thomas Kirke for Tadouſſac, to await the departure of the fleet for England. Before reaching their deſtination, they encountered a French ſhip laden with merchandiſe and ſupplies, commanded by Émeric de Caen, who was endeavoring to

[102] *Vide Abſtract of the Depoſition of Capt. David Kirke and Others.* Calendar of State Papers, Colonial, 1574–1660, p. 103.

to reach Quebec for the purpoſe of trade and obtaining certain peltry and other property ſtored at that place, belonging to his uncle, William de Caen. A conflict was inevitable. The two veſſels met. The ſtruggle was ſevere, and, for a time, of doubtful reſult. At length the French cried for quarter. The combat ceaſed. De Caen aſked permiſſion to ſpeak with Champlain. This was accorded by Kirke, who informed him, if another ſhot were fired, it would be at the peril of his life. Champlain was too old a ſoldier and too brave a man to be influenced by an appeal to his perſonal fears. He coolly replied, It will be an eaſy matter for you to take my life, as I am in your power, but it would be a diſgraceful act, as you would violate your ſacred promiſe. I cannot command the men in the ſhip, or prevent their doing their duty as brave men ſhould; and you ought to commend and not blame them.

De Caen's ſhip was borne as a prize into the harbor of Tadouſſac, and paſſed for the preſent into the vortex of general confiſcation.

Champlain remained at Tadouſſac until the fleet was ready to return to England. In the mean time, he was courteouſly entertained by Sir David Kirke. He was, however, greatly pained and diſappointed that the admiral was unwilling that he ſhould take with him to France two Indian girls who had been preſented to him a year or two before, and whom he had been carefully inſtructing in religion and manners, and whom he loved as his own daughters. Kirke, however, was inexorable. Neither reaſon, entreaty, nor the tears of the unhappy maidens could move him. As he could not take them with him, Champlain adminiſtered to them ſuch conſolation

consolation as he could, counselling them to be brave and virtuous, and to continue to say the prayers that he had taught them. It was a relief to his anxiety at last to be able to obtain from Mr. Couillard,[103] one of the earliest settlers at Quebec, the promise that they should remain in the care of his wife, while the girls, on their part, assured him that they would be as daughters to their new foster-parents until his return to New France.

Quebec having been provisioned and garrisoned, the fleet sailed for England about the middle of September, and arrived at Plymouth on the 20th of November. On the 27th, the missionaries and others who wished to return to France, disembarked at Dover, while Champlain was taken to London, where he arrived on the 29th.

At Plymouth, Kirke learned that a peace between France and England had been concluded on the 24th of the preceding April, nearly three months before Quebec had been taken; consequently, every thing that had been done by this expedition must, sooner or later, be reversed. The articles of peace had provided that all conquests subsequent to the date of that instrument should be restored. It was evident that Quebec, the peltry, and other property taken there, together with the fishing-vessels and others captured in the gulf, must be restored to the French. To Kirke and the Company of London Merchants this was a bitter disappointment. Their expenditures had been large in the first instance; the prizes of the year before, the fleet of the Hundred Associates which they

[103] *Couillard.* Champlain writes *Coulart.* This appears to have been William Couillard, the son-in-law of Madame Hébert and one of the five families which remained at Quebec after it was taken by the English. — *Vide Laverdière's note, Œuvres de Champlain,* Quebec ed. Vol. VI. p. 249.

they had captured, had probably all been abſorbed in the outfit of the preſent expedition, compriſing the ſix veſſels and two pinnaces with which Kirke had ſailed for the conqueſt of Quebec. Sir William Alexander had obtained, in the February preceding, from Charles I., a royal charter of THE COUNTRY AND LORDSHIP OF CANADA IN AMERICA,[104] embracing a belt of territory one hundred leagues in width, covering both ſides of the St. Lawrence from its mouth to the Pacific Ocean. This charter with the moſt ample proviſions had been obtained in anticipation of the taking of Quebec, and in order to pave the way for an immediate occupation and ſettlement of the country. Thus a plan for the eſtabliſhment of an Engliſh colonial empire on the banks of the St. Lawrence had been deliberately formed, and down to the preſent moment offered every proſpect of a brilliant ſucceſs. But a cloud had now ſwept along the horizon and ſuddenly obſcured the last ray of hope. The proceeds of their two years of inceſſant labor, and the large ſums which they had riſked in the enterpriſe, had vaniſhed like a miſt in the morning ſun. But, as the cauſe of the Engliſh became more deſperate, the hopes of the French revived. The loſſes of the latter were great and diſheartening; but they ſaw, nevertheleſs, in the diſtance, the long-cheriſhed New France of the paſt riſing once more into renewed ſtrength and beauty.

On his arrival at London, Champlain immediately put himſelf in communication with Monſieur de Châteauneuf, the French ambaſſador, laid before him the original of the capitulation,

[104] An Engliſh tranſlation of this charter from the Latin original was publiſhed by the Prince Society in 1873. *Vide Sir William Alexander and American Colonization*, Prince Society, Boſton, pp. 239–249.

capitulation, a map of the country, and such other memoirs as were needed to show the superior claims of the French to Quebec on the ground both of discovery and occupation.[105] Many questions arose concerning the possession and ownership of the peltry and other property taken by the English, and, during his stay, Champlain contributed as far as possible to the settlement of these complications. It is somewhat remarkable that during this time the English pretended to hold him as a prisoner of war, and even attempted to extort a ransom from him,[106] pressing the matter so far that Champlain felt compelled to remonstrate against a demand so extraordinary and so obviously unjust, as he was in no sense a prisoner of war, and likewise to state his inability to pay a ransom, as his whole estate in France did not exceed seven hundred pounds sterling.

After having remained a month in London, Champlain was permitted to depart for France, arriving on the last day of December.

At Dieppe he met Captain Daniel, from whom he learned that

[105] Champlain published, in 1632, a brief argument setting forth the claims of the French, which he entitles, *Abregé des Descovvertvres de la Nouuelle France, tant de ce que nous auons descouuert comme aussi les Anglois, depuis les Virgines iusqu'au Freton Dauis, & de cequ'eux & nous pouuons pretendre suiuant le rapport des Historiens qui en ont descrit, que ie rapporte cy dessous, qui feront iuger à vn chacun du tout sans passion.* — *Vide* ed. 1632, p. 290. In this paper he narrates succinctly the early discoveries made both by the French and English navigators, and enforces the doctrine of the superior claims of the French with clearness and strength. It contains, probably, the substance of what Champlain placed at this time in the hands of the French embassador in London.

[106] It is difficult to conceive on what ground this ransom was demanded, since the whole proceedings of the English against Quebec were illegal, and contrary to the articles of peace which had just been concluded. That such a demand was made would be regarded as incredible, did not the fact rest upon documentary evidence of undoubted authority. — *Vide Laverdière's* citation from State Papers Office, Vol. V. No. 33, Œuvres de Champlain, Quebec ed., Vol. VI. p. 1413.

that Richelieu and the Hundred Aſſociates had not been unmindful of the preſſing wants of their colony at Quebec. Arrangements had been made early in the year 1629 to ſend to Champlain ſuccor and ſupplies, and a fleet had been organized to be conducted thither by the Commander Iſaac de Razilly. While preparations were in progreſs, peace was concluded between France and England on the 24th of April. It was, conſequently, deemed unneceſſary to accompany the tranſports by an armed force, and thereupon Razilly's orders were countermanded, while Captain Daniel of Dieppe,[107] whoſe ſervices had been engaged, was ſent forward with four veſſels and a barque belonging to the company, to carry ſupplies to Quebec. A ſtorm ſcattered his fleet, but the veſſel under his immediate command arrived on the coaſt of the Iſland of Cape Breton, and anchored on the 18th of September, *novo ſtylo*, in the little harbor of Baleine, ſituated about ſix miles eaſterly from the preſent ſite of Louiſburgh, now famous in the annals of that iſland. Here he was ſurpriſed to find a Britiſh ſettlement. Lord Ochiltrie, better known as Sir James Stuart, a Scottiſh nobleman, had obtained a grant, through Sir William Alexander, of the Iſland of Cape Breton, and had, on the 10th of the July preceding, *novo ſtylo*, planted there a colony of ſixty perſons, men, women, and children, and had thrown up for their protection a temporary fort. Daniel conſidered this an intruſion upon French ſoil. He accordingly made a bloodleſs capture of the fortreſs at Baleine,

[107] *Vide Relation dv Voyage fait par le Capitaine Daniel de Dieppe, année 1629, Les Voyages du Sieur de Champlain*, Paris, 1632, p. 271. Captain Daniel was enrolled by Creuxius in the Society of New France or the Hundred Aſſociates, as *Carolvs Daniel, nauticus Capitaneus. Vide Hiſtoria Canadenſis* for the names of the Society of the Hundred Aſſociates.

Baleine, demoliſhed it, and, ſailing to the north and ſweeping round to the weſt, entered an eſtuary which he ſays the ſavages called *Grand Cibou*,[108] where he erected a fort and left a garriſon of forty men, with proviſions and all neceſſary means of defence. Having ſet up the arms of the King of France and thoſe of Cardinal Richelieu, erected a houſe, chapel, and magazine, and leaving two Jeſuit miſſionaries, the fathers Barthélemy Vimond and Alexander de Vieuxpont, he departed, taking with him the Britiſh coloniſts, forty-two of whom he landed near Falmouth in England, and eighteen, including Lord Ochiltrie, he carried into France. This ſettlement at the Bay of St. Anne, or Port Dauphin, accidentally eſtabliſhed and inadequately ſuſtained, lingered a few years and finally diſappeared.

Having received the above narrative from Captain Daniel, Champlain ſoon after proceeded to Paris, and laid the whole ſubject of the unwarrantable proceedings of the Engliſh in detail

[108] *Cibou.* Sometimes written Chibou. "Cibou means," ſays Mr. J. Hammond Trumball, "ſimply river in all eaſtern Algonkin languages." — *MS. letter.* Nicholas Denys, in his very full itinerary of the coaſt of the iſland of Cape Breton ſpeaks alſo of the *entree du petit Chibou ou de Labrador.* This *petit Chibou*, according to his deſcription, is identical with what is now known as the Little Bras d'Or, or ſmaller paſſage to Bras d'Or Lake. It ſeems probable that the great Cibou of the Indians was applied originally by them to what we now call the Great Bras d'Or, or larger paſſage to Bras d'Or Lake. It is plain, however, that Captain Daniel and other early writers applied it to an eſtuary or bay a little further weſt than the Great Bras d'Or, ſeparated from it by Cape Dauphin, and now known as St. Anne's Bay. It took the name of St. Anne's immediately on the planting of Captain Daniel's colony, as Champlain calls it, *l'habitation ſaincte Anne en l'iſle du Cap Breton* in his relation of what took place in 1631. — *Voyages*, ed. 1632, p. 298. A very good deſcription of it by Père Perrault may be found in *Jeſuit Relations*, 1635, Quebec ed. p. 42. — *Vide*, alſo, *Deſcription de l'Amerique Septentrionale par Monſieur Denys*, Paris, 1672, p. 155, where is given an elaborate deſcription of St. Anne's Harbor. *Granſibou* may be ſeen on Champlain's map of 1632, but the map is too indefinite to aid us in fixing its exact location.

detail before the king, Cardinal Richelieu, and the Company of New France, and urged the importance of regaining poſſeſſion as early as poſſible of the plantation from which they had been unjuſtly ejected. The Engliſh king did not heſitate at an early day to promiſe the reſtoration of Quebec, and, in fact, after ſome delay, all places which were occupied by the French at the outbreak of the war. The policy of the Engliſh miniſters appears, however, to have been to poſtpone the execution of this promiſe as long as poſſible, probably with the hope that ſomething might finally occur to render its fulfilment unneceſſary. Sir William Alexander, the Earl of Stirling, who had very great influence with Charles I., was particularly oppoſed to the reſtoration of the ſettlement on the ſhores of Annapolis Baſin. This fell within the limits of the grant made to him in 1621, under the name of New Scotland, and a Scotch colony was now in occupation. He contended that no proper French plantation exiſted there at the opening of the war, and this was probably true; a few French people were, indeed, living there, but under no recognized, certainly no actual, authority or control of the crown of France, and conſequently they were under no obligation to reſtore it. But Charles I. had given his word that all places taken by the Engliſh ſhould be reſtored as they were before the war, and no argument or perſuaſions could change his reſolution to fulfil his promiſe. It was not, however, till after the lapſe of more than two years, owing, chiefly, to the oppoſition of Sir William Alexander, that the reſtoration of Quebec and the plantation on Annapolis Baſin was fully aſſured by the treaty of St. Germain en Laye, bearing date March 29, 1632. The

The reader must be reminded that the text of the treaty just mentioned and numerous contemporary documents show that the restorations demanded by the French and granted by the English only related to the places occupied by the French before the outbreak of the war, and not to Canada or New France or to any large extent of provincial territory whatever.[109] When the restorations were completed, the boundary lines distinguishing the English and French possessions in America were still unsettled, the territorial rights of both nations were still undefined, and each continued, as they had done before the war, to claim the same territory as a part of their respective possessions. Historians, giving to this treaty a superficial examination, and not considering it in connection with contemporary documents, have, from that time to the present, fallen into the loose and unauthorized statement that, by the treaty of St. Germain en Laye, the whole domain of Canada or New France was restored to the French.

Had the treaty of St. Germain en Laye, by which Quebec was restored to the French, fixed accurately the boundary lines between the two countries, it would probably have saved the expenditure of money and blood, which continued to be demanded from time to time until, after a century and a quarter, the whole of the French possessions were transferred, under the arbitration of war, to the English crown.

CHAPTER XI.

[109] *Vide Sir William Alexander and American Colonization*, Prince Society, 1873, pp. 66–72. — *Royal Letters, Charters, and Tracts relating to the Colonization of New Scotland*, Bannatyne Club, Edinburgh, 1867, p. 77 *et passim.*

CHAPTER XI.

ÉMERIC DE CAEN TAKES POSSESSION OF QUEBEC. — CHAMPLAIN PUBLISHES HIS VOYAGES. — RETURNS TO NEW FRANCE, REPAIRS THE HABITATION, AND ERECTS A CHAPEL. — HIS LETTER TO CARDINAL DE RICHELIEU. — CHAMPLAIN'S DEATH.

IN breaking up the ſettlement at Quebec, the loſſes of the De Caens were conſiderable, and it was deemed an act of juſtice to allow them an opportunity to retrieve them, at leaſt in part; and, to enable them to do this, the monopoly of the fur-trade in the Gulf of St. Lawrence was granted to them for one year, and, on the retirement of the Engliſh, Émeric de Caen, as proviſional governor for that period, took formal poſſeſſion of Quebec on the 13th of July, 1632.

In the mean time, Champlain remained in France, devoting himſelf with characteriſtic energy to the intereſts of New France. Beſide the valuable counſel and aid which he gave regarding the expedition then fitting out and to be ſent to Quebec by the Company of New France, he prepared and carried through the preſs an edition of his Voyages, compriſing extended extracts from what he had already publiſhed, and a continuation of the narrative to 1631. He alſo publiſhed in the ſame volume a Treatiſe on Navigation, and a Catechiſm tranſlated from the French by one of the Fathers into the language of the Montagnais.[110]

On

[110] This catechiſm, bearing the following title, is contained on fifteen pages in the ed. of 1632: *Doctrine Chreſtienne, dv R. P. Ledeſme de la Compagnie de Ieſvs. Traduicte en Langage Canadois, autre que celuy des Montagnars, pour la Conuerſion des habitans dudit pays. Par le R. P. Brebœuf de la meſme Compagnie.* It is in double columns, one ſide Indian and the other French.

On the 23d of March, 1633, having again been commiſſioned as governor, Champlain ſailed from Dieppe with a fleet of three veſſels, the "Saint Pierre," the "Saint Jean," and the "Don de Dieu," belonging to the Company of New France, conveying to Quebec a large number of coloniſts, together with the Jeſuit fathers, Enemond Maſſé and Jean de Brébeuf. The three veſſels entered the harbor of Quebec on the 23d of May. On the announcement of Champlain's arrival, the little colony was all aſtir. The cannon at the Fort St. Louis boomed forth their hoarſe welcome of his coming. The hearts of all, particularly of thoſe who had remained at Quebec during the occupation of the Engliſh, were overflowing with joy. The three years' abſence of their now venerable and venerated governor, and the trials, hardſhips, and diſcouragements through which they had in the mean time paſſed, had not effaced from their minds the virtues that endeared him to their hearts. The memory of his tender ſolicitude in their behalf, his brave example of endurance in the hour of want and peril, and the ſweetneſs of his parting counſels, came back afreſh to awaken in them new pulſations of gratitude. Champlain's heart was touched by his warm reception and the viſible proofs of their love and devotion. This was a bright and happy day in the calendar of the little colony.

Champlain addreſſed himſelf with his old zeal and a renewed ſtrength to every intereſt that promiſed immediate or future good reſults. He at once directed the renovation and improvement of the habitation and fort, which, after an occupation of three years by aliens, could not be delayed. He then inſtituted means, holding councils and creating a new trading-poſt,

trading-poſt, for winning back the traffic of the allied tribes, which had been of late drawn away by the Engliſh, who continued to ſteal into the waters of the St. Lawrence for that purpoſe. At an early day after his re-eſtabliſhment of himſelf at Quebec, Champlain proceeded to build a memorial chapel in cloſe proximity to the fort which he had erected ſome years before on the creſt of the rocky eminence that overlooks the harbor. He gave it the appropriate and ſignificant name, NOTRE DAME DE RECOUVRANCE, in grateful memory of the recent return of the French to New France.[111] It had long been an ardent deſire of Champlain to eſtabliſh a French ſettlement among the Hurons, and to plant a miſſion there for the converſion of this favorite tribe to the Chriſtian faith. Two miſſionaries, De Brébeuf and De Nouë, were now ready for the undertaking. The governor ſpared no pains to ſecure for them a favorable reception, and vigorouſly urged the importance of their miſſion upon the Hurons aſſembled at Quebec.[112] But at the laſt, when on the eve of ſecuring his purpoſe, complications aroſe and ſo much hoſtility was diſplayed by one of the chiefs, that he thought it prudent

[111] The following extracts will ſhow that the chapel was erected in 1633, that it was built by Champlain, and that it was called Notre Dame de Recouvrance.

Nous les menaſmes en noſtre petite chapelle, qui a commencé ceſte année à f'embellir. — *Vide Relations des Jéſuites.* Quebec ed. 1633, p. 30.

La ſage conduitte et la prudence de Monſieur de Champlain Gouuerneur de Kebec et du fleuue ſainct Laurens, qui nous honore de ſa bien-veillance, retenant vn chacun dans ſon deuoir, a fait que nos paroles et nos predications ayent eſté bien receuës, et la Chapelle qu'il a fait dreſſer proche du fort a l'honneur de noſtre Dame, &c. — *Idem*, 1634, p. 2.

La troiſiéme, que nous allons habiter cette Autome, la Reſidence de Noſtre-dame de Recouurance, à Kebec proche du Fort. — *Idem*, 1635, p. 3.

[112] According to Père Le Jeune, from five to ſeven hundred Hurons had aſſembled at Quebec in July, 1633, bringing their canoes loaded with merchandiſe. — *Vide Relations des Jéſuites*, Quebec ed. 1633, p. 34.

prudent to adviſe its poſtponement to a more auſpicious moment. With theſe and kindred occupations growing out of the reſponſibilities of his charge, two years ſoon paſſed away.

During the ſummer of 1635, Champlain addreſſed an intereſting and important letter to Cardinal de Richelieu, whoſe authority at that time ſhaped both the domeſtic and foreign policy of France. In it the condition and imperative wants of New France are clearly ſet forth. This document was probably the laſt that Champlain ever penned, and is, perhaps, the only autograph letter of his now extant. His views of the richneſs and poſſible reſources of the country, the vaſt miſſionary field which it offered, and the policy to be purſued, are ſo clearly ſtated that we need offer no apology for giving the following free tranſlation of the letter in theſe pages.[113]

LETTER OF CHAMPLAIN TO CARDINAL DE RICHELIEU.

MONSEIGNEUR, — The honor of the commands that I have received from your Eminence has inſpired me with greater courage to render to you every poſſible ſervice with all the fidelity and affection that can be deſired from a faithful ſervant. I ſhall ſpare neither my blood nor my life whenever the occaſion ſhall demand them.

There are ſubjects enough in theſe regions, if your Eminence, after conſidering the character of the country, ſhall deſire to extend your authority over them. This territory is more than fifteen hundred leagues in length, lying between the ſame parallels of latitude as our own France. It is

[113] This letter was printed in Œuvres de Champlain, Quebec ed. Vol. vi. *Pièces Juſtificatives*, p. 35. The original is at Paris, in the Archives of Foreign Affairs.

is watered by one of the fineſt rivers in the world, into which empty many tributaries more than four hundred leagues in length, beautifying a country inhabited by a vaſt number of tribes. Some of them are ſedentary in their mode of life, poſſeſſing, like the Muſcovites, towns and villages built of wood; others are nomadic, hunters and fiſhermen, all longing to welcome the French and religious fathers, that they may be inſtructed in our faith.

The excellence of this country cannot be too highly eſtimated or praiſed, both as to the richneſs of the ſoil, the diverſity of the timber ſuch as we have in France, the abundance of wild animals, game, and fiſh, which are of extraordinary magnitude. All this invites you, Monſeigneur, and makes it ſeem as if God had created you above all your predeceſſors to do a work here more pleaſing to Him than any that has yet been accompliſhed.

For thirty years I have frequented this country, and have acquired a thorough knowledge of it, obtained from my own obſervation and the information given me by the native inhabitants. Monſeigneur, I pray you to pardon my zeal, if I ſay that, after your renown has ſpread throughout the Eaſt, you ſhould end by compelling its recognition in the Weſt.

Expelling the Engliſh from Quebec has been a very important beginning, but, nevertheleſs, ſince the treaty of peace between the two crowns, they have returned to carry on trade and annoy us in this river; declaring that it was enjoined upon them to withdraw, but not to remain away, and that they have their king's permiſſion to come for the period of thirty years. But, if your Eminence wills, you can make them feel the power of your authority. This can, furthermore,

more, be extended at your pleaſure to him who has come here to bring about a general peace among theſe peoples, who are at war with a nation holding more than four hundred leagues in ſubjection, and who prevent the free uſe of the rivers and highways. If this peace were made, we ſhould be in complete and eaſy enjoyment of our poſſeſſions. Once eſtabliſhed in the country, we could expel our enemies, both Engliſh and Flemings, forcing them to withdraw to the coaſt, and, by depriving them of trade with the Iroquois, oblige them to abandon the country entirely. It requires but one hundred and twenty men, light-armed for avoiding arrows, by whoſe aid, together with two or three thouſand ſavage warriors, our allies, we ſhould be, within a year, abſolute maſters of all theſe peoples, and, by eſtabliſhing order among them, promote religious worſhip and ſecure an incredible amount of traffic.

The country is rich in mines of copper, iron, ſteel, braſs, ſilver, and other minerals which may be found here.

The coſt, Monſeigneur, of one hundred and twenty men is a trifling one to his Majeſty, the enterpriſe the moſt noble that can be imagined.

All for the glory of God, whom I pray with my whole heart to grant you ever-increaſing proſperity, and to make me, all my life,

Monſeigneur,

Your moſt humble,

Moſt faithful, and

Moſt obedient ſervant,

CHAMPLAIN.

AT QUEBEC, IN NEW FRANCE, the 15th of Auguſt, 1635.

In

In this letter will be found the key to Champlain's war-policy with the Iroquois, no where elſe ſo fully unfolded. We ſhall refer to this ſubject in the ſequel.

Early in October, when the harveſt of the year had ripened and been gathered in, and the leaves had faded and fallen, and the earth was mantled in the ſymbols of general decay, in ſympathy with all that ſurrounded him, in his chamber in the little fort on the creſt of the rocky promontory at Quebec, lay the manly form of Champlain, ſmitten with diſeaſe, which was daily breaking down the vigor and ſtrength of his iron conſtitution. From loving friends he received the miniſtrations of tender and aſſiduous care. But his earthly career was near its end. The bowl had been broken at the fountain. Life went on ebbing away from week to week. At the end of two months and a half, on Chriſtmas day, the 25th of December, 1635, his ſpirit paſſed to its final reſt.

This otherwiſe joyous feſtival was thus clouded with a deep ſorrow. No heart in the little colony was untouched by this event. All had been drawn to Champlain, ſo many years their chief magiſtrate and wiſe counſellor, by a ſpontaneous and irreſiſtible reſpect, veneration, and love. It was meet, as it was the univerſal deſire, to crown him, in his burial, with every honor which, in their circumſtances, they could beſtow. The whole population joined in a mournful proceſſion. His ſpiritual adviſer and friend, Father Charles Lalemant, performed in his behalf the laſt ſolemn ſervice of the church. Father Paul Le Jeune pronounced a funeral diſcourſe, reciting his virtues, his fidelity to the king and the Company of New France, his extraordinary love and devo-

tion

tion to the families of the colony, and his laſt counſels for their continued happineſs and welfare.[114]

When theſe ceremonies were over, his body was piouſly and tenderly laid to reſt, and ſoon after a tomb was conſtructed for its reception expreſſly in his honor as the benefactor of New France.[115] The place of his burial[116] was within the little chapel ſubſequently erected, and which was reverently called *La Chapelle de M. de Champlain*, in grateful memory of him whoſe body repoſed beneath its ſhelteringwalls.

CHAPTER XII.

[114] *Vide Relations des Jéſuites*, Quebec ed. 1636, p. 56. *Creuxius, Hiſtoria Canadenſis*, pp. 183–4.

[115] Monſieur le Gouuerneur, qui eſtimoit ſa vertu, deſira qu'il fuſt enterré prés du corps de feu Monſieur de Champlain, qui eſt dans vn ſepulchre particulier, erigé exprés pour honorer la memoire de ce ſignalé perſonnage qui a tant obligé la Nouuelle France. — *Vide Relations des Jéſuites*, Quebec ed. 1643, p. 3.

[116] The exact ſpot where Champlain was buried is at this time unknown. Hiſtorians and antiquaries have been much intereſted in its diſcovery. In 1866, the Abbés Laverdière and Caſgrain were encouraged to believe that their ſearches had been crowned with ſucceſs. They publiſhed a ſtatement of their diſcovery. Their views were controverted in ſeveral critical pamphlets that followed. In the mean time, additional reſearches have been made. The theory then broached that his burial was in the Lower Town, and in the Recollect chapel built in 1615, has been abandoned. The Abbé Caſgrain, in an able diſcuſſion of this ſubject, in which he cites documents hitherto unpubliſhed, ſhows that Champlain was buried in a tomb within the walls of a chapel erected by his ſucceſſor in the Upper Town, and that this chapel was ſituated ſomewhere within the court-yard of the preſent poſt-office. Père Le Jeune, who records the death of Champlain in his Relation of 1636, does not mention the place of his burial; but the Père Vimont, in his Relation of 1643, in ſpeaking of the burial of Père Charles Raymbault, ſays, the "Governor deſired that he ſhould be buried near the *body of the late Monſieur de Champlain*, which is in a particular tomb erected expreſſly to honor the memory of that diſtinguiſhed perſonage, who had placed New France under ſuch great obligation." In the Pariſh Regiſter of Notre Dame de Quebec, is the following entry: "The 22d of October (1642), was interred *in the Chapel of M. De Champlain* the Père Charles Rimbault." It is plain, therefore, that Champlain was buried in what was then commonly known as *the Chapel of M. de Champlain*. By reference to ancient documents or deeds (one bearing date Feb. 10, 1649, and another 22d April, 1652, and in one of which the Chapel of Champlain is mentioned as contiguous to a piece of land therein deſcribed), the Abbé

CHAPTER XII.

CHAMPLAIN'S RELIGION. — HIS WAR POLICY. — HIS DOMESTIC AND SOCIAL LIFE. — CHAMPLAIN AS AN EXPLORER. — HIS LITERARY LABORS. — THE RESULTS OF HIS CAREER.

AS Champlain had lived, ſo he died, a firm and conſiſtent member of the Roman church. In harmony with his general character, his religious views were always moderate, never betraying him into exceſſes, or into any merely partiſan zeal. Born during the profligate, cruel, and perfidious reign of Charles IX., he was, perhaps, too young to be greatly affected by the evils characteriſtic of that period, the maſſacre of St. Bartholomew's and the numberleſs vices that ſwept along in its train. His youth and early manhood, covering the plaſtic and formative period, ſtretched through the reign of Henry III., in which the ſtandards of virtue and religion were little if in any degree improved. Early in the reign of Henry IV., when he had fairly entered upon his manhood, we find him cloſely

Abbé Caſgrain proves that the *Chapel of M. de Champlain* was within the ſquare where is ſituated the preſent poſt-office at Quebec, and, as the tomb of Champlain was within the chapel, it follows that Champlain was buried ſomewhere within the poſt-office ſquare above mentioned.

Excavations in this ſquare have been made, but no traces of the walls or foundations of the chapel have been found. In the excavations for cellars of the houſes conſtructed along the ſquare, the foundations of the chapel may have been removed. It is poſſible that when the chapel was deſtroyed, which was at a very early period, as no reference to its exiſtence is found ſubſequent to 1649, the body of Champlain and the others buried there may have been removed, and no record made of the removal. The Abbé Caſgrain expreſſes the hope that other diſcoveries may hereafter be made that ſhall place this intereſting queſtion beyond all doubt. — *Vide Documents Inédits Relatifs au Tombeau de Champlain*, par l'Abbé H. R. Caſgrain, *L'Opinion Publique*, Montreal, 4 Nov. 1875.

cloſely aſſociated with the moderate party, which encouraged and ſuſtained the broad, generous, and catholic principles of that diſtinguiſhed ſovereign.

When Champlain became lieutenant-governor of New France, his attention was naturally turned to the religious wants of his diſtant domain. Proceeding cautiouſly, after patient and prolonged inquiry, he ſelected miſſionaries who were earneſt, zealous, and fully conſecrated to their work. And all whom he ſubſequently invited into the field were men of character and learning, whoſe brave endurance of hardſhip, and manly courage amid numberleſs perils, ſhed glory and luſtre upon their holy calling.

Champlain's ſympathies were always with his miſſionaries in their pious labors. Whether the enterpriſe were the eſtabliſhment of a miſſion among the diſtant Hurons, among the Algonquins on the upper St. Lawrence, or for the enlargement of their accommodations at Quebec, the printing of a catechiſm in the language of the aborigines, or if the foundations of a college were to be laid for the education of the ſavages, his heart and hand were ready for the work.

On the eſtabliſhment of the Company of New France, or the Hundred Aſſociates, Proteſtants were entirely excluded. By its conſtitution no Huguenots were allowed to ſettle within the domain of the company. If this rule was not ſuggeſted by Champlain, it undoubtedly exiſted by his decided and hearty concurrence. The mingling of Catholics and Huguenots in the early hiſtory of the colony had brought with it numberleſs annoyances. By ſifting the wheat before it was ſown, it was hoped to get rid of an otherwiſe inevitable

cauſe

cauſe of irritation and trouble. The correctneſs of the principle of Chriſtian toleration was not admitted by the Roman church then any more than it is now. Nor did the Proteſtants of that period believe in it, or practiſe it, whenever they poſſeſſed the power to do otherwiſe. Even the Puritans of Maſſachuſetts Bay held that their charter conferred upon them the right and power of excluſion. It was not eaſy, it is true, to carry out this view by ſquare legal enactment without coming into conflict with the laws of England; but they were adroit and ſkilful, endowed with a marvellous talent for finding ſome indirect method of laying a heavy hand upon Friend or Churchman, or the more independent thinkers among their own numbers, who deſired to make their abode within the precincts of the bay. In the earlier years of the colony at Quebec, when Proteſtant and Catholic were there on equal terms, Champlain's religious aſſociations led him to ſwerve neither to the right hand nor to the left. His adminiſtration was characterized by juſtice, firmneſs, and gentleneſs, and was deſervedly ſatisfactory to all parties.

In his later years, the little colony upon whoſe welfare and Chriſtian culture he had beſtowed ſo much cheerful labor and anxious thought, became every day more and more dear to his heart. Within the ample folds of his charity were likewiſe encircled the numerous tribes of ſavages, ſpread over the vaſt domains of New France. He earneſtly deſired that all of them, far and near, friend and foe, might be inſtructed in the doctrines of the Chriſtian faith, and brought into willing and loving obedience to the croſs.

In its perſonal application to his own heart, the religion of Champlain was diſtinguiſhed by a natural and gradual progreſs,

progreſs. His warmth, tenderneſs, and zeal grew deeper and ſtronger with advancing years. In his religious life there was a clearly marked ſeed-time, growth, and ripening for the harveſt. After his return to Quebec, during the laſt three years of his life, his time was eſpecially ſyſtematized and appropriated for intellectual and ſpiritual improvement. Some portion was given every morning by himſelf and thoſe who conſtituted his family to a courſe of hiſtorical reading, and in the evening to the memoirs of the ſaintly dead whoſe lives he regarded as ſuitable for the imitation of the living, and each night for himſelf he devoted more or leſs time to private meditation and prayer.

Such were the devout habits of Champlain's life in his later years. We are not, therefore, ſurpriſed that the hiſtorian of Canada, twenty-five years after his death, ſhould place upon record the following conciſe but comprehenſive eulogy: —

"His ſurpaſſing love of juſtice, piety, fidelity to God, his king, and the Society of New France, had always been conſpicuous. But in his death he gave ſuch illuſtrious proofs of his goodneſs as to fill every one with admiration." [117]

The reader of theſe memoirs has doubtleſs obſerved with ſurpriſe and perhaps with diſappointment, the readineſs with which Champlain took part in the wars of the ſavages. On his firſt viſit to the valley of the St. Lawrence, he found the Indians dwelling on the northern ſhores of the river and the lakes engaged in a deadly warfare with thoſe on the ſouthern, the Iroquois tribes occupying the northern limits of the prefent

[117] *Vide Creuxius, Hiſtoria Canadenſis*, pp. 183, 184.

preſent State of New York, generally known as the Five Nations. The hoſtile relations between theſe ſavages were not of recent date. They reached back to a very early but indefinite period. They may have exiſted for ſeveral centuries. When Champlain planted his colony at Quebec, in 1608, he at once entered into friendly relations with all the tribes which were his immediate neighbors. This was eminently a ſuitable thing to do, and was, moreover, neceſſary for his ſafety and protection.

But a permanent and effective alliance with theſe tribes carried with it of neceſſity a ſolemn aſſurance of aid againſt their enemies. This Champlain promptly promiſed without heſitation, and the next year he fulfilled his promiſe by leading them to battle on the ſhores of Lake Champlain. At all ſubſequent periods he regarded himſelf as committed to aid his allies in their hoſtile expeditions againſt the Iroquois. In his printed journal, he offers no apology for his conduct in this reſpect, nor does he intimate that his views could be queſtioned either in morals or ſound policy. He rarely aſſigns any reaſon whatever for engaging in theſe wars. In one or two inſtances he ſtates that it ſeemed to him neceſſary to do ſo in order to facilitate the diſcoveries which he wiſhed to make, and that he hoped it might in the end be the means of leading the ſavages to embrace Chriſtianity. But he nowhere enters upon a full diſcuſſion of this point. It is enough to ſay, in explanation of this ſilence, that a private journal like that publiſhed by Champlain, was not the place in which to foreſhadow a policy, eſpecially as it might in the future be ſubject to change, and its ſucceſs might depend upon its being known only to thoſe who had the power to ſhape and direct

direct it. But nevertheleſs the ſilence of Champlain has doubtleſs led ſome hiſtorians to infer that he had no good reaſons to give, and unfavorable criticiſms have been beſtowed upon his conduct by thoſe, who did not underſtand the circumſtances which influenced him, or the motives which controlled his action.

The war-policy of Champlain was undoubtedly very plainly ſet forth in his correſpondence and interviews with the viceroys and ſeveral companies under whoſe authority he acted. But theſe diſcuſſions, whether oral or written, do not appear in general to have been preſerved. Fortunately a ſingle document of this character is ſtill extant, in which his views are clearly unfolded. In Champlain's remarkable letter to Cardinal de Richelieu, which we have introduced a few pages back, his policy is fully ſtated. It is undoubtedly the ſame that he had acted upon from the beginning, and explains the frankneſs and readineſs with which, firſt and laſt, as a faithful ally, he had profeſſed himſelf willing to aid the friendly tribes in their wars againſt the Iroquois. The object which he wiſhed to accompliſh by this tribal war was, as fully ſtated in the letter to which we have referred, firſt, to conquer the Iroquois or Five Nations; to introduce peaceful relations between them and the other ſurrounding tribes; and, ſecondly, to eſtabliſh a grand alliance of all the ſavage tribes, far and near, with the French. This could only be done in the order here ſtated. No peace could be ſecured from the Iroquois, except by their conqueſt, the utter breaking down of their power. They were not ſuſceptible to the influence of reaſon. They were implacable, and had been brutalized by long-inherited habits of cruelty. In the total annihilation of their

power

power was the only hope of peace. This being accompliſhed, the ſurviving remnant would, according to the uſual cuſtom among the Indians, readily amalgamate with the victorious tribes, and then a general alliance with the French could be eaſily ſecured. This was what Champlain wiſhed to accompliſh. The pacification of all the tribes occupying both ſides of the St. Lawrence and the chain of northern lakes would place the whole domain of the American continent, or as much of it as it would be deſirable to hold, under the eaſy and abſolute control of the French nation.

Such a pacification as this would ſecure two objects; objects eminently important, appealing ſtrongly to all who deſired the aggrandizement of France and the progreſs and ſupremacy of the Catholic faith. It would ſecure for ever to the French the fur-trade of the Indians, a commerce then important and capable of vaſt expanſion. The chief ſtrength and reſources of the ſavages allied with the French, the Montagnais, Algonquins, and Hurons, were at that period expended in their wars. On the ceſſation of hoſtilities, their whole force would naturally and inevitably be given to the chaſe. A grand field lay open to them for this exciting occupation. The fur-bearing country embraced not only the region of the St. Lawrence and the lakes, but the vaſt and unlimited expanſe of territory ſtretching out indefinitely in every direction. The whole northern half of the continent of North America, filled with the moſt valuable fur-producing mammalia, would be open to the enterpriſe of the French, and could not fail to pour into their treaſury an incredible amount of wealth. This Champlain was far-ſighted enough to

to ſee, and his patriotic zeal led him to deſire that France ſhould avail herſelf of this opportunity.[118]

But the conqueſt of the Iroquois would not only open to France the proſpect of exhauſtleſs wealth, but it would render acceſſible a broad, extenſive, and inviting field of miſſionary labor. It would remove all external and phyſical obſtacles to the ſpeedy tranſmiſſion and offer of the Chriſtian faith to the numberleſs tribes that would thus be brought within their reach.

The deſire to bring about theſe two great ulterior purpoſes, the augmentation of the commerce of France in the full development of the fur-trade, and the gathering into the Catholic church the ſavage tribes of the wilderneſs, explains the readineſs with which, from the beginning, Champlain encouraged his Indian allies and took part with them in their wars againſt the Five Nations. In the very laſt year of his life, he demanded of Richelieu the requiſite military force to carry on this war, reminding him that the coſt would be trifling to his Majeſty, while the enterpriſe would be the moſt noble that could be imagined.

In regard to the domeſtic and ſocial life of Champlain, ſcarcely any documents remain that can throw light upon the

[118] The juſtneſs of Champlain's conception of the value of the fur-trade has been verified by its ſubſequent hiſtory. The Hudſon's Bay Company was organized for the purpoſe of carrying on this trade, under a charter granted by Charles II., in 1670. A part of the trade has at times been conducted by other aſſociations. But this company is ſtill in active and vigorous operation. Its capital is $10,000,000. At its reorganization in 1863, it was eſtimated that it would yield a net annual income, to be divided among the corporators, of $400,000. It employs twelve hundred ſervants beſide its chief factors. It is eaſy to ſee what a vaſt amount of wealth in the ſhape of furs and peltry has been pouring into the European markets, for more than two hundred years, from this fur-bearing region, and the ſources of this wealth are probably little, if in any degree, diminiſhed.

the ſubject. Of his parents we have little information beyond that of their reſpectable calling and ſtanding. He was probably an only child, as no others are on any occaſion mentioned or referred to. He married, as we have ſeen, the daughter of the Secretary of the King's Chamber, and his wife, Hélène Boullé, accompanied him to Canada in 1620, where ſhe remained four years. They do not appear to have had children, as the names of none are found in the records at Quebec, and, at his death, the only claimant as an heir, was a couſin, Marie Cameret, who, in 1639, reſided at Rochelle, and whoſe huſband was Jacques Herſant, controller of duties and impoſts. After Champlain's deceaſe, his wife, Hélène Boullé, became a novice in an Urſuline convent in the faubourg of St. Jacques in Paris. Subſequently, in 1648, ſhe founded a religious houſe of the ſame order in the city of Meaux, contributing for the purpoſe the ſum of twenty thouſand livres and ſome part of the furniſhing. She entered the houſe that ſhe had founded, as a nun, under the name of Siſter *Hélène de St. Auguſtin*, where, as the foundreſs, certain privileges were granted to her, ſuch as a ſuperior quality of food for herſelf, exemption from attendance upon ſome of the longer ſervices, the reception into the convent, on her recommendation, of a young maiden to be a nun of the choir, with ſuch pecuniary aſſiſtance as ſhe might need, and the letters of her brother, the Father Euſtache Boullé, were to be exempted from the uſual inſpection. She died at Meaux, on the 20th day of December, 1654, in the convent which ſhe had founded.[119]

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[119] *Vide Documents inédits sur Samuel de Champlain*, par Étienne Chavay, archiviſte-paléographe, Paris, 1875.

As an explorer, Champlain was unſurpaſſed by any who viſited the northern coaſts of America anterior to its permanent ſettlement. He was by nature endowed with a love of uſeful adventure, and for the diſcovery of new countries he had an inſatiable thirſt. It began with him as a child, and was freſh and irrepreſſible in his lateſt years. Among the arts, he aſſigned to navigation the higheſt importance. His broad appreciation of it and his ſtrong attachment to it, are finely ſtated in his own compact and comprehenſive deſcription.

"Of all the moſt uſeful and excellent arts, that of navigation has always ſeemed to me to occupy the firſt place. For the more hazardous it is, and the more numerous the perils and loſſes by which it is attended, ſo much the more is it eſteemed and exalted above all others, being wholly unſuited to the timid and irreſolute. By this art we obtain a knowledge of different countries, regions, and realms. By it we attract and bring to our own land all kinds of riches; by it the idolatry of paganiſm is overthrown and Chriſtianity proclaimed throughout all the regions of the earth. This is the art which won my love in my early years, and induced me to expoſe myſelf almoſt all my life to the impetuous waves of the ocean, and led me to explore the coaſts of a part of America, eſpecially thoſe of New France, where I have always deſired to ſee the Lily flouriſh, together with the only religion, catholic, apoſtolic, and Roman."

In addition to his natural love for diſcovery, Champlain had a combination of other qualities which rendered his explorations pre-eminently valuable. His intereſt did not vaniſh with ſeeing what was new. It was by no means a mere

mere fancy for ſimple ſight-ſeeing. Reſtleſſneſs and volatility did not belong to his temperament. His inveſtigations were never made as an end, but always as a means. His undertakings in this direction were for the moſt part ſhaped and colored by his Chriſtian principle and his patriotic love of France. Sometimes one and ſometimes the other was more prominent.

His voyage to the Weſt Indies was undertaken under a twofold impulſe. It gratified his love of exploration and brought back rare and valuable information to France. Spain at that time did not open her iſland-ports to the commerce of the world. She was drawing from them vaſt revenues in pearls and the precious metals. It was her policy to keep this whole domain, this rich archipelago, hermetically ſealed, and any foreign veſſel approached at the riſk of capture and confiſcation. Champlain could not, therefore, explore this region under a commiſſion from France. He accordingly ſought and obtained permiſſion to viſit theſe Spaniſh poſſeſſions under the authority of Spain herſelf. He entered and perſonally examined all the important ports that ſurround and encircle the Caribbean Sea, from the pearl-bearing Margarita on the ſouth, Deſeada on the eaſt, to Cuba on the weſt, together with the city of Mexico, and the Iſthmus of Panama on the mainland. As the fruit of theſe journeyings, he brought back a report minute in deſcription, rich in details, and luminous with illuſtrations. This little brochure, from the circumſtances attendant upon its origin, is unſurpaſſed in hiſtorical importance by any ſimilar or competing document of that period. It muſt always remain of the higheſt value as a truſtworthy, original authority, without which

which it is probable that the hiſtory of thoſe iſlands, for that period, could not be accurately and truthfully written.

Champlain was a pioneer in the exploration of the Atlantic coaſt of New England and the eaſtern provinces of Canada. From the Strait of Canſeau, at the northeaſtern extremity of Nova Scotia, to the Vineyard Sound, on the ſouthern limits of Maſſachuſetts, he made a thorough ſurvey of the coaſt in 1605 and 1606, perſonally examining its moſt important harbors, bays, and rivers, mounting its headlands, penetrating its foreſts, carefully obſerving and elaborately deſcribing its ſoil, its products, and its native inhabitants. Beſides lucid and definite deſcriptions of the coaſt, he executed topographical drawings of numerous points of intereſt along our ſhores, as Plymouth harbor, Nauſet Bay, Stage Harbor at Chatham, Glouceſter Bay, the Bay of Saco, with the long ſtretch of Old Orchard Beach and its interſperſed iſlands, the mouth of the Kennebec, and as many more on the coaſt of New Brunſwick and Nova Scotia. To theſe he added deſcriptions, more or leſs definite, of the harbors of Barnſtable, Wellfleet, Boſton, of the headland of Cape Anne, Merrimac Bay, the Iſles of Shoals, Cape Porpoiſe, Richmond's Iſland, Mount Deſert, Iſle Haute, Seguin, and the numberleſs other iſlands that adorn the exquiſite ſea-coaſt of Maine, as jewels that add a new luſtre to the beauty of a peerleſs goddeſs.

Other navigators had coaſted along our ſhores. Some of them had touched at ſingle points, of which they made meagre and unſatisfactory ſurveys. Goſnold had, in 1602, diſcovered Savage Rock, but it was ſo indefinitely located and deſcribed that it cannot even at this day be identified. Reſolving

ſolving to make a ſettlement on one of the barren iſlands forming the group named in honor of Queen Elizabeth and ſtill bearing her name, after ſome weeks ſpent in erecting a ſtorehouſe, and in collecting a cargo of "furrs, ſkyns, ſaxafras, and other commodities," the project of a ſettlement was abandoned and he returned to England, leaving, however, two permanent memorials of his voyage, in the names which he gave reſpectively to Martha's Vineyard and to the headland of Cape Cod.

Captain Martin Pring came to our ſhores in 1603, in ſearch of a cargo of ſaſſafras. There are indications that he entered the Penobſcot. He afterward paid his reſpects to Savage Rock, the undefined *bonanza* of his predeceſſor. He ſoon found his deſired cargo on the Vineyard Iſlands, and haſtily returned to England.

Captain George Weymouth, in 1605, was on the coaſt of Maine concurrently, or nearly ſo, with Champlain, where he paſſed a month, explored a river, ſet up a croſs, and took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of the king. But where theſe tranſactions took place is ſtill in diſpute, ſo indefinitely does his journaliſt deſcribe them.

Captain John Smith, eight years later than Champlain, ſurveyed the coaſt of New England while his men were collecting a cargo of furs and fiſh. He wrote a deſcription of it from memory, part or all of it while a priſoner on board a French ſhip of war off Fayall, and executed a map, both valuable, but nevertheleſs exceedingly indefinite and general in their character.

Theſe flying viſits to our ſhores were not unimportant, and muſt not be undervalued. They were neceſſary ſteps in the

the progreſs of the grand hiſtorical events that followed. But they were meagre and haſty and ſuperficial, when compared to the careful, deliberate, extenſive, and thorough, not to ſay exhauſtive, explorations made by Champlain.

In the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Cartier had preceded Champlain by a period of more than ſixty years. During this long, dreary half-century the ſtillneſs of the primeval foreſt had not been diſturbed by the woodman's axe. When Champlain's eyes fell upon it, it was ſtill the ſame wild, unfrequented, unredeemed region that it had been to its firſt diſcoverer. The rivers, bays, and iſlands deſcribed by Cartier were identified by Champlain, and the names they had already received were permanently fixed by his added authority. The whole gulf and river were re-examined and deſcribed anew in his journal. The exploration of the Richelieu and of Lake Champlain was puſhed into the interior three hundred miles from his baſe at Quebec. It reached into a wilderneſs and along gentle waters never before ſeen by any civilized race. It was at once faſcinating and hazardous, environed as it was by vigilant and ferocious ſavages, who guarded its gates with the ſleepleſs watchfulneſs of the fabled Cerberus.

The courage, endurance, and heroiſm of Champlain were teſted in the ſtill greater exploration of 1615. It extended from Montreal, the whole length of the Ottawa, to Lake Nipiſſing, the Georgian Bay, Simcoe, the ſyſtem of ſmall lakes on the ſouth, acroſs the Ontario, and finally ending in the interior of the State of New York, a journey through tangled foreſts and broken water-courſes of more than a thouſand miles, occupying nearly a year, executed in the face

face of phyſical ſuffering and hardſhip before which a nature leſs intrepid and determined, leſs loyal to his great purpoſe, leſs generous and unſelfiſh, would have yielded at the outſet. Theſe journeys into the interior, along the courſes of navigable rivers and lakes, and through the primitive foreſts, laid open to the knowledge of the French a domain vaſt and indefinite in extent, on which an empire broader and far richer in reſources than the old Gallic France might have been ſucceſsfully reared.

The perſonal explorations of Champlain in the Weſt Indies, on the Atlantic coaſt, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, in the State of New York and of Vermont, and among the lakes in Canada and thoſe that divide the Dominion from the United States, including the full, explicit, and detailed journals which he wrote concerning them, place Champlain undeniably not merely in the front rank, but at the head of the long liſt of explorers and navigators, who early viſited this part of the continent of North America.

Champlain's literary labors are intereſting and important. They were not profeſſional, but incidental, and the natural outgrowth of the career to which he devoted his life. He had the ſagacity to ſee that the fields which he entered as an explorer were new and important, that the aſpect of every thing which he then ſaw would, under the influence and progreſs of civilization, ſoon be changed, and that it was hiſtorically important that a portrait ſketched by an eye-witneſs ſhould be handed down to other generations. It was likewiſe neceſſary for the immediate and ſucceſsful planting of colonies, that thoſe who engaged in the undertaking ſhould have before them full information of all the conditions

conditions on which they were to build their hopes of final ſucceſs.

Inſpired by ſuch motives as theſe, Champlain wrote out an accurate journal of the events that tranſpired about him, of what he perſonally ſaw, and of the obſervations of others, authenticated by the beſt teſts which, under the circumſtances, he was able to apply. His natural endowments for this work were of the higheſt order. As an obſerver he was ſagacious, diſcriminating, and careful. His judgment was cool, comprehenſive, and judicious. His ſtyle is in general clear, logical, and compact. His acquired ability was not, however, extraordinary. He was a ſcholar neither by education nor by profeſſion. His life was too full of active duties, or too remote from the centres of knowledge for acquiſitions in the departments of elegant and refined learning. The period in which he lived was little diſtinguiſhed for literary culture. A more brilliant day was approaching, but it had not yet appeared. The French language was ſtill crude and unpoliſhed. It had not been diſciplined and moulded into the excellence to which it ſoon after aroſe in the reign of Louis XIV. We cannot in reaſon look for a grace, refinement, and flexibility which the French language had not at that time generally attained. But it is eaſy to ſee under the rude, antique, and now obſolete forms which characterize Champlain's narratives, the elements of a ſtyle which, under early diſcipline, nicer culture, and a richer vocabulary, might have made it a model for all times. There are, here and there, ſome involved, unfiniſhed, and obſcure paſſages, which ſeem, indeed, to be the offspring of haſte, or perhaps of careleſs and inadequate proof-reading. But in general his ſtyle is with-

out ornament, ſimple, dignified, conciſe, and clear. While he was not a diffuſive writer, his works are by no means limited in extent, as they occupy in the late erudite Laverdière's edition, ſix quarto volumes, containing fourteen hundred pages. In them are three large maps, delineating the whole northeaſtern part of the continent, executed with great care and labor by his own hand, together with numerous local drawings, picturing not only bays and harbors, Indian canoes, wigwams, and fortreſſes, but ſeveral battle ſcenes, conveying a clear idea, not poſſible by a mere verbal deſcription, of the ſavage implements and mode of warfare.[120] His works include, likewiſe, a treatiſe on navigation, full of excellent ſuggeſtions to the practical ſeaman of that day, drawn from his own experience, ſtretching over a period of more than forty years.

The Voyages of Champlain, as an authority, muſt always ſtand in the front rank. In truſtworthineſs, in richneſs and fullneſs of detail, they have no competitor in the field of which they treat. His obſervations upon the character, manners, cuſtoms, habits, and utenſils of the aborigines, were made before they were modified or influenced in their mode of life by European civilization. The intercourſe of the ſtrolling fur-trader and fiſhermen with them was ſo infrequent and brief at that early period, that it made upon them little or no impreſſion. Champlain conſequently pictures the Indian in his original, primeval ſimplicity. This will always

[120] The later ſketches made by Champlain are greatly ſuperior to thoſe which he executed to illuſtrate his voyage in the Weſt Indies. They are not only accurate, but ſome of them are ſkilfully done, and not only do no diſcredit to an amateur, but diſcover marks of artiſtic taſte and ſkill.

always give to his narratives, in the eye of the hiſtorian, the ethnologiſt, and the antiquary, a peculiar and pre-eminent importance. The reſult of perſonal obſervation, eminently truthful and accurate, their teſtimony muſt in all future time be incomparably the beſt that can be obtained relating to the aborigines on this part of the American continent.

In completing this memoir, the reader can hardly fail to be impreſſed, not to ſay diſappointed, by the fact that reſults apparently inſignificant ſhould thus far have followed a life of able, honeſt, unſelfiſh, heroic labor. The colony was ſtill ſmall in numbers, the acres ſubdued and brought into cultivation were few, and the aggregate yearly products were meagre. But it is to be obſerved that the productiveneſs of capital and labor and talent, two hundred and ſeventy years ago, cannot well be compared with the ſtandards of to-day. Moreover, the reſults of Champlain's career are inſignificant rather in appearance than in reality. The work which he did was in laying foundations, while the ſuperſtructure was to be reared in other years and by other hands. The palace or temple, by its lofty and majeſtic proportions, attracts the eye and gratifies the taſte; but its unſeen foundations, with their nicely adjuſted arches, without which the ſuperſtructure would crumble to atoms, are not leſs the reſult of the profound knowledge and practical wiſdom of the architect. The explorations made by Champlain early and late, the organization and planting of his colonies, the reſiſtance of avaricious corporations, the holding of numerous ſavage tribes in friendly alliance, the daily adminiſtration of the affairs of the colony, of the ſavages, and of the corporation in France, to the

the eminent ſatisfaction of all generous and noble-minded patrons, and this for a period of more than thirty years, are proofs of an extraordinary combination of mental and moral qualities. Without impulſiveneſs, his warm and tender ſympathies imparted to him an unuſual power and influence over other men. He was wiſe, modeſt, and judicious in council, prompt, vigorous, and practical in adminiſtration, ſimple and frugal in his mode of life, perſiſtent and unyielding in the execution of his plans, brave and valiant in danger, unſelfiſh, honeſt, and conſcientious in the diſcharge of duty. Theſe qualities, rare in combination, were always conſpicuous in Champlain, and juſtly entitle him to the reſpect and admiration of mankind.

ANNOTATIONES POSTSCRIPTÆ.

EUSTACHE BOULLÉ. A brother-in-law of Champlain, who made his firſt viſit to Canada in 1618. He was an active aſſiſtant of Champlain, and in 1625 was named his lieutenant. He continued there until the taking of Quebec by the Engliſh in 1629. He ſubſequently took holy orders. —*Vide Doc. inédits ſur Samuel de Champlain*, par Étienne Charavay. Paris, 1875, p. 8.

PONT GRAVÉ. The whole career of this diſtinguiſhed merchant was cloſely aſſociated with Canadian trade. He was in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, in the intereſt of Chauvin, in 1599. He commanded the expedition ſent out by De Chaſte in 1603, when Champlain made his firſt exploration of the River St. Lawrence. He was intruſted with the chief management of the trade carried on with the Indians by the various companies and viceroys under Champlain's lieutenancy until the removal of the colony by the Engliſh, when his active life was cloſed by the infirmities of age. He was always a warm and truſted friend of Champlain, who ſought his counſel on all occaſions of importance.

THE

The Birth of Champlain. All efforts to fix the exact date of his birth have been unsuccessful. M. De Richemond, author of a *Biographie de la Charente Inférieure*, instituted most careful searches, particularly with the hope of finding a record of his baptism. The records of the parish of Brouage extend back only to August 11, 1615. The duplicates, deposited at the office of the civil tribunal of Marennes anterior to this date, were destroyed by fire. — *MS. letter of M. De Richemond, Archiviſt of the Dep. of Charente Inférieure*, La Rochelle, July 17, 1875.

Marc Lescarbot. We have cited the authority of this writer in this work on many occasions. He was born at Vervins, perhaps about 1585. He became an advocate, and a resident of Paris, and, according to Larousse, died in 1630. He came to America in 1606, and passed the winter of that year at the French settlement near the present site of Lower Granville, on the western bank of Annapolis Basin in Nova Scotia. In the spring of 1607 he crossed the Bay of Fundy, entered the harbor of St. John, N. B., and extended his voyage as far as De Monts's Island in the River St. Croix. He returned to France that same year, on the breaking up of De Monts's colony. He was the author of the following works: *Hiſtoire de la Nouvelle France*, 1609; *Les Muſes de la Nouvelle France; Tableau de la Suiſſe, auquel ſont décrites les Singularites des Alpes*, Paris, 1618; *La Chaſſe aux Anglais dans l'iſle de Rhé et au Siége de la Rochelle, et la Réduction de cette Ville en* 1628. Paris, 1629.

Plymouth Harbor. This note will modify our remarks on p. 78, Vol. II. Champlain entered this harbor on the 18th

18th of July, 1605, and, lingering but a ſingle day, ſailed out of it on the 19th. He named it *Port St. Louis*, or *Port du Cap St. Louis.* — *Vide antea*, pp. 53, 54; Vol. II., pp. 76–78. As the fruit of his brief ſtay in the harbor of Plymouth, he made an outline ſketch of the bay which preſerves moſt of its important features. He delineates what is now called on our Coaſt Survey maps *Long Beach* and *Duxbury Beach*. At the ſouthern extremity of the latter is the headland known as the *Gurnet*. Within the bay he figures two iſlands, of which he ſpeaks alſo in the text. Theſe two iſlands are mentioned in Mourt's Relation, printed in 1622. — *Vide Dexter's ed.* p. 60. They are alſo figured on an old map of the date of 1616, found by J. R. Brodhead in the Royal Archives at the Hague; likewiſe on a map by Lucini, without date, but, as it has Boſton on it, it muſt have been executed after 1630. Theſe maps may be found in *Doc. His. of the State of New York*, Vol. I.; *Documents relating to the Colonial His. of the State of New York*, Vol. I., p. 13. The reader will find theſe iſlands likewiſe indicated on the map of William Wood, entitled *The South part of New-England, as it is Planted this yeare*, 1634. — *Vide New England Proſpect*, Prince Society ed. They appear alſo on Blaſkowitz's "Plan of Plimouth," 1774. — *Vide Changes in the Harbor of Plymouth*, by Prof. Henry Mitchell, Chief of Phyſical Hydrography, U. S. Coaſt Survey, Report of 1876, Appendix No. 9. In the collections of the Maſs. Hiſtorical Society for 1793, Vol. II., in an article entitled *A Topographical Deſcription of Duxborough*, but without the author's name, the writer ſpeaks of two pleaſant iſlands within the harbor, and adds that Saquiſh was joined to the Gurnet

Gurnet by a narrow piece of land, but for ſeveral years the water had made its way acroſs and *inſulated* it.

From the early maps to which we have referred, and the foregoing citations, it appears that there were two iſlands in the harbor of Plymouth from the time of Champlain till about the beginning of the preſent century. A careful collation of Champlain's map of the harbor with the recent Coaſt Survey Charts will render it evident that one of theſe iſlands thus figured by Champlain, and by others later, is Saquiſh Head; that ſince his time a ſand-bank has been thrown up and now become permanent, connecting it with the Gurnet by what is now called Saquiſh Neck. Prof. Mitchell, in the work already cited, reports that there are now four fathoms leſs of water in the deeper portion of the roadſtead than when Champlain explored the harbor in 1605. There muſt, therefore, have been an enormous depoſit of ſand to produce this reſult, and this accounts for the neck of ſand which has been thrown up and become fixed or permanent, now connecting Saquiſh Head with the Gurnet.

Mount Desert. This iſland was diſcovered on the fifth day of September, 1604. Champlain having been comiſſioned by Sieur De Monts, the Patentee of La Cadie, to make diſcoveries on the coaſt ſouthweſt of the Saint Croix, left the mouth of that river in a ſmall barque of ſeventeen or eighteen tons, with twelve ſailors and two ſavages as guides, and anchored the ſame evening, apparently near Bar Harbor. While here, they explored Frenchman's Bay as far on the north as the Narrows, where Champlain ſays the diſtance acroſs to the mainland is not more than a hundred paces.

The

The next day, on the ſixth of the month, they ſailed two leagues, and came to Otter Creek Cove, which extends up into the iſland a mile or more, neſtling between the ſpurs of Newport Mountain on the eaſt and Green Mountain on the weſt. Champlain ſays this cove is "at the foot of the mountains," which clearly identifies it, as it is the only one in the neighborhood anſwering to this deſcription. In this cove they diſcovered ſeveral ſavages, who had come there to hunt beavers and to fiſh. On a viſit to Otter Cove Cliffs in June, 1880, we were told by an old fiſherman ninety years of age, living on the borders of this cove, and the ſtatement was confirmed by ſeveral others, that on the creek at the head of the cove, there was, within his memory, a well-known beaver dam.

The Indians whoſe acquaintance Champlain made at this place conducted him among the iſlands, to the mouth of the Penobſcot, and finally up the river, to the ſite of the preſent city of Bangor. It was on this viſit, on the fifth of September, 1604, that Champlain gave the iſland the name of *Monts-déſerts*. The French generally gave to places names that were ſignificant. In this inſtance they did not depart from their uſual cuſtom. The ſummits of most of the mountains on this iſland, then as now, were only rocks, being deſtitute of trees, and this led Champlain to give its ſignificant name, which, in plain Engliſh, means the iſland of the deſert, waſte, or uncultivatable mountains. If we follow the analogy of the language, either French or Engliſh, it ſhould be pronounced with the accent on the penult, Mount Déſert, and not on the laſt ſyllable, as we ſometimes hear it. This principle cannot be violated without giving to the word a

 meaning

meaning which, in this connection, would be obviouſly inappropriate and abſurd.

Carte de la Novvelle France, 1632. As the map of 1632 has often been referred to in this work, we have introduced into this volume a heliotype copy. The original was publiſhed in the year of its date, but it had been completed before Champlain left Quebec in 1629. The reader will bear in mind that it was made from Champlain's perſonal explorations, and from ſuch other information as could be obtained from the meagre ſources which exiſted at that early period, and not from any accurate or ſcientific ſurveys. The information which he obtained from others was derived from more or leſs doubtful ſources, coming as it did from fiſhermen, fur-traders, and the native inhabitants. The two former undoubtedly conſtructed, from time to time, rude maps of the coaſt for their own uſe. From theſe Champlain probably obtained valuable hints, and he was thus able to ſupplement his own knowledge of the regions with which he was leaſt familiar on the Atlantic coaſt and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Beyond the limits of his perſonal explorations on the weſt, his information was wholly derived from the ſavages. No European had penetrated into thoſe regions, if we except his ſervant, Étienne Brûlé, whoſe deſcriptions could have been of very little ſervice. The deficiencies of Champlain's map are here accordingly moſt apparent. Rivers and lakes farther weſt than the Georgian Bay, and ſouth of it, are ſometimes laid down where none exiſt, and, again, where they do exiſt, none are portrayed. The outline of Lake Huron, for illuſtration, was entirely miſconceived. A river-like

river-like line only of water repreſents Lake Erie, while Lake Michigan does not appear at all.

The delineation of Hudſon's Bay was evidently taken from the TABULA NAUTICA of Henry Hudſon, as we have ſhown in Note 297, Vol. II., to which the reader is referred.

It will be obſerved that there is no recognition on the map of any Engliſh ſettlement within the limits of New England. In 1629, when the *Carte de la Novvelle France* was completed, an Engliſh colony had been planted at Plymouth, Maſs., nine years, and another at Piſcataqua, or Portſmouth, N. H., ſix years. The Rev. William Blaxton had been for ſeveral years in occupation of the peninſula of Shawmut, or Boſton. Salem had alſo been ſettled one or two years. These laſt two may not, it is true, have come to Champlain's knowledge. But none of theſe ſettlements are laid down on the map. The reaſon of theſe omiſſions is obvious. The whole territory from at leaſt the 40th degree of north latitude, ſtretching indefinitely to the north, was claimed by the French. As poſſeſſion was, at that day, the moſt potent argument for the juſtice of a territorial claim, the recognition, on a French map, of theſe Engliſh ſettlements, would have been an indiſcretion which the wiſe and prudent Champlain would not be likely to commit.

There is, however, a diſtinct recognition of an Engliſh ſettlement farther ſouth. Cape Charles and Cape Henry appear at the entrance of Cheſapeake Bay. Virginia is inſcribed in its proper place, while Jameſtown and Point Comfort are referred to by numbers.

On the borders of the map numerous fiſh belonging to theſe waters are figured, together with ſeveral veſſels of different

ferent ſizes and in different attitudes, thus preſerving their form and ſtructure at that period. The degrees of latitude and longitude are numerically indicated, which are convenient for the references found in Champlain's journals, but are neceſſarily too inaccurate to be otherwiſe uſeful. But notwithſtanding its defects, when we take into account the limited means at his command, the difficulties which he had to encounter, the vaſt region which it covers, this map muſt be regarded as an extraordinary achievement. It is by far the moſt accurate in outline, and the moſt finiſhed in detail, of any that had been attempted of this region anterior to this date.

The Portraits of Champlain. — Three engraved portraits of Champlain have come to our knowledge. All of them appear to have been after an original engraved portrait by Balthazar Moncornet. This artiſt was born in Rouen about 1615, and died not earlier than 1670. He practiſed his art in Paris, where he kept a ſhop for the ſale of prints. Though not eminently diſtinguiſhed as a ſkilful artiſt, he nevertheleſs left many works, particularly a great number of portraits. As he had not arrived at the age of manhood when Champlain died, his engraving of him was probably executed about fifteen or twenty years after that event. At that time Madame Champlain, his widow, was ſtill living, as likewiſe many of Champlain's intimate friends. From ſome of them it is probable Moncornet obtained a ſketch or portrait, from which his engraving was made.

Of the portraits of Champlain which we have ſeen, we may mention firſt that in Laverdière's edition of his works. This

SAMUEL de CHAMPLAIN.

From the Painting by Th. Hamel after the Monogramed Portrait

Copyright by John G. Shea. 1878.

This is a half-length, with long, curling hair, mouſtache and imperial. The ſleeves of the cloſe-fitting coat are ſlaſhed, and around the neck is the broad linen collar of the period, faſtened in front with cord and taſſels. On the left, in the background, is the promontory of Quebec, with the repreſentation of ſeveral turreted buildings both in the upper and lower town. On the border of the oval, which incloſes the ſubject, is the legend, *Moncornet Ex c. p.* The engraving is coarſely executed, apparently on copper. It is alleged to have been taken from an original Moncornet in France. Our inquiries as to where the original then was, or in whoſe poſſeſſion it then was or is now, have been unſucceſsful. No original, when inquiries were made by Dr. Otis, a ſhort time ſince, was found to exiſt in the department of prints in the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris.

Another portrait of Champlain is found in Shea's tranſlation of Charlevoix's Hiſtory of New France. This was taken from the portrait of Champlain, which, with that of Cartier, Montcalm, Wolfe, and others, adorns the walls of the reception room of the Speaker of the Houſe of Commons, in the Parliament Houſe at Ottawa, in Canada, which was painted by Thomas Hamel, from a copy of Moncornet's engraving obtained in France by the late M. Faribault. From the coſtume and general features, it appears to be after the ſame as that contained in Laverdière's edition of Champlain's works, to which we have already referred. The artiſt has given it a youthful appearance, which ſuggeſts that the original ſketch was made many years before Champlain's death. We are indebted to the politeneſs of Dr. Shea for the copies which accompany this work.

A third portrait of Champlain may be found in L'Hiſtoire de France, par M. Guizot, Paris, 1876, Vol. v. p. 149. The inſcription reads: "CHAMPLAIN [SAMUEL DE], d'après un portrait gravé par Moncornet." It is engraved on wood by E. Ronjat, and repreſents the ſubject in the advanced years of his life. In poſition, coſtume, and acceſſories it is widely different from the others, and Moncornet muſt have left more than one engraving of Champlain, or we muſt conclude that the modern artiſts have taken extraordinary liberties with their ſubject. The features are ſtrong, ſpirited, and characteriſtic. A heliotype copy accompanies this volume.

PREFACE TO THE TRANSLATION.

THE journals of Champlain, commonly called his Voyages, were written and publiſhed by him at intervals from 1603 to 1632. The firſt volume was printed in 1603, and entitled, —

1. *Des Savvages, ov, Voyage de Samvel Champlain, de Brovage, faict en la France Nouuelle, l'an mil ſix cens trois. A Paris, chez Clavde de Monſtr'oeil, tenant ſa boutique en la Cour du Palais, au nom de Jeſus.* 1604. *Auec priuilege du Roy.* 12mo. 4 preliminary leaves. Text 36 leaves. The title-page contains alſo a ſub-title, enumerating in detail the ſubjects treated of in the work. Another copy with ſlight verbal changes has no date on the title-page, but in both the "privilège" is dated November 15, 1603. The copies which we have uſed are in the Library of Harvard College, and in that of Mrs. John Carter Brown, of Providence, R. I.

An Engliſh tranſlation of this iſſue is contained in *Pvrchas his Pilgrimes.* London, 1625, vol. iv., pp. 1605–1619.

The next publication appeared in 1613, with the following title: —

2. *Les Voyages dv Sievr de Champlain Xaintongeois, Capitaine ordinaire pour le Roy, en la marine. Diviſez en devx livres. ou, jovrnal treſ-fidele des obſervations faites és deſcouuertures*

deſcouuertures de la Nouuelle France: tant en la deſcriptiõ des terres, coſtes, riuieres, ports, haures, leurs hauteurs, & pluſieurs delinaiſons de la guide-aymant; qu'en la creãce des peuples, leur ſuperſtition, façon de viure & de guerroyer: enrichi de quantité de figures. A Paris, chez Jean Berjon, rue S. Jean de Beauuais, au Cheual volant, & en ſa boutique au Palais, à la gallerie des priſonniers. M.DC. XIII. Avec privilege dv Roy. 4to. 10 preliminary leaves. Text, 325 pages; table 5 pp. One large folding map. One ſmall map. 22 plates. The title-page contains, in addition, a ſub-title in regard to the two maps.

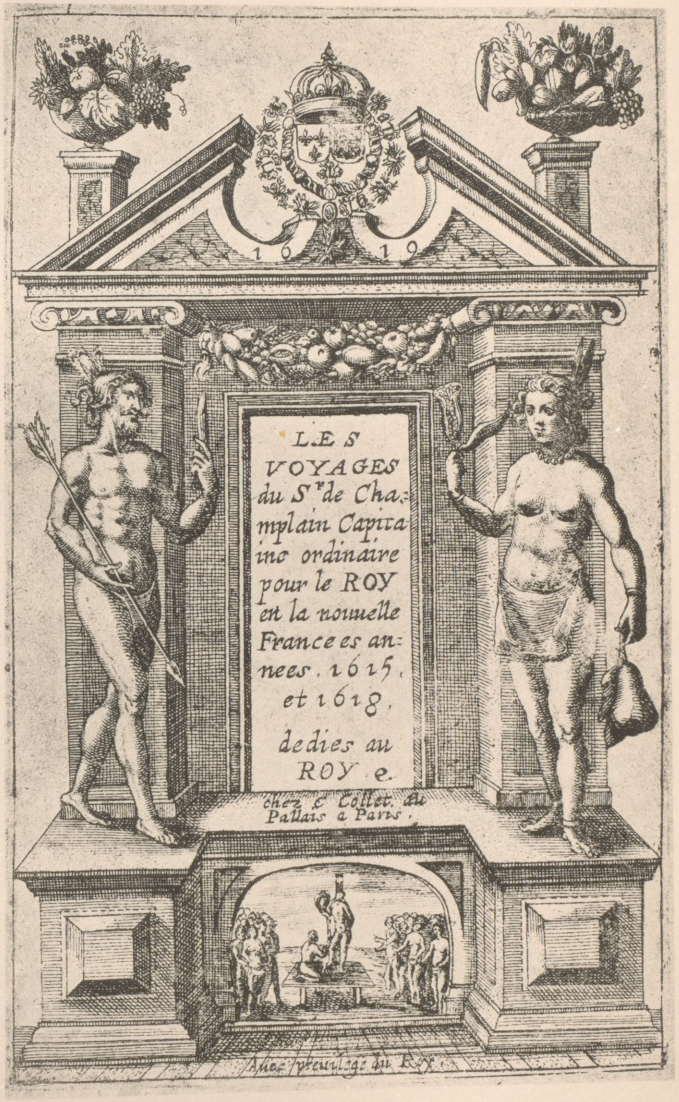
The above-mentioned volume contains, alſo, the Fourth Voyage, bound in at the end, with the following title: —

Qvatrieſme Voyage dv Sr de Champlain Capitaine ordinaire povr le Roy en la marine, & Lieutenant de Monſeigneur le Prince de Condé en la Nouuelle France, fait en l'annee 1613. 52 pages. Whether this was alſo iſſued as a ſeparate work, we are not informed.

The copy of this publication of 1613 which we have uſed is in the Library of Harvard College.

The next publication of Champlain was in 1619. There was a re-iſſue of the ſame in 1620 and likewiſe in 1627. The title of the laſt-mentioned iſſue is as follows: —

3. *Voyages et Deſcovvertvres faites en la Novvelle France, depuis l'année* 1615. *iuſques à la fin de l'année* 1618. *Par le Sieur de Champlain, Cappitaine ordinaire pour le Roy en la Mer du Ponant. Seconde Edition. A Paris, chez Clavde Collet, au Palais, en la gallerie des Priſonniers. M.D.C.XXVII. Avec privilege dv Roy.* 12mo. 8 preliminary leaves. Text 158 leaves, 6 plates. The title-page contains, in addition,


1619
LES
VOYAGES
du Sr de Champlain Capitaine ordinaire pour le ROY en la nouuelle France es annees 1615. et 1618.
dedies au ROY.
chez C. Collet, au Pallais a Paris.
Auec Priuilege du Roy.

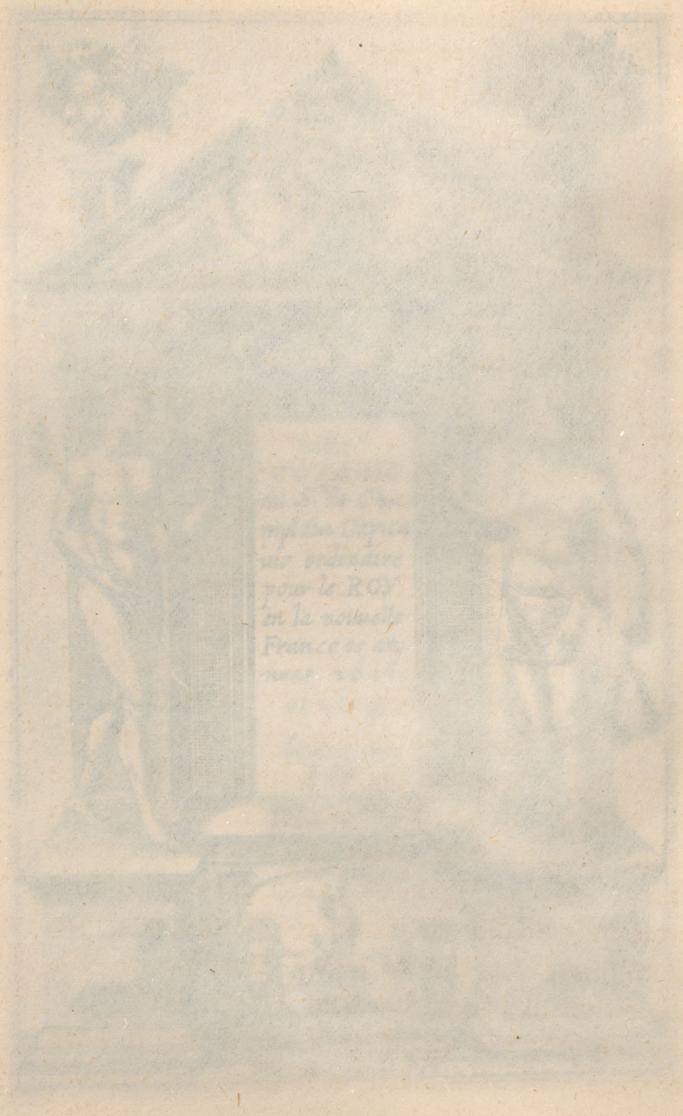
a sub-title, giving an outline of the contents. The edition of 1627, belonging to the Library of Harvard College, contains likewise an illuminated title-page, which we here give in heliotype. As this illuminated title-page bears the date of 1619, it was probably that of the original edition of that date.

The next and last publication of Champlain was issued in 1632, with the following title:—

Les Voyages de la Novvelle France occidentale, dicte Canada, faits par le Sr de Champlain Xainctongeois, Capitaine pour le Roy en la Marine du Ponant, & toutes les descouvertes qu'il a faites en ce païs depuis l'an 1603. iusques en l'an 1629. Où se void comme ce pays a eſté premierement habitué par les François, sous l'authorité de nos Roys treſ-Chreſtiens, iusques au règne de ſa Majeſté à preſent regnante Louis XIII. Roy de France & de Navarre. A Paris. Chez Clovde Collet au Palais, en la Gallerie des Priſonniers, à l'Eſtoille d'Or. M.DC.XXXII. Auec Priuilege du Roy.

There is also a long sub-title, with a statement that the volume contains what occurred in New France in 1631. The volume is dedicated to Cardinal Richelieu. 4to. 16 preliminary pages. Text 308 pages. 6 plates, which are the same as those in the edition of 1619. "Seconde Partie," 310 pages. One large general map; table explanatory of map, 8 pages. "Traitté de la Marine," 54 pages. 2 plates. "Doctrine Chreſtienne" and "L'Oraiſon Dominicale," 20 pages. Another copy gives the name of Seveſtre as publisher, and another that of Pierre Le-Mvr.

The publication of 1632 is stated by Laverdière to have been reissued in 1640, with a new title and date, but without



a ſub-title, giving an outline of the contents. The edition of 1627, belonging to the Library of Harvard College, contains likewiſe an illuminated title-page, which we here give in heliotype. As this illuminated title-page bears the date of 1619, it was probably that of the original edition of that date.

The next and laſt publication of Champlain was iſſued in 1632, with the following title: —

4. *Les Voyages de la Novvelle France occidentale, dicte Canada, faits par le Sr de Champlain Xainctongeois, Capitaine pour le Roy en la Marine du Ponant, & toutes les Deſcouuertes qu'il a faites en ce païs depuis l'an* 1603. *iuſques en l'an* 1629. *Où ſe voit comme ce pays a eſté premierement deſcouuert par les François, ſous l'authorité de nos Roys treſ-Chreſtiens, iuſques au regne de ſa Majeſté à preſent regnante Lovis XIII. Roy de France & de Navarre. A Paris. Chez Clavde Collet au Palais, en la Gallerie des Priſonniers, à l'Eſtoille d'Or. M. DC. XXXII. Auec Priuilege du Roy.* There is alſo a long ſub-title, with a ſtatement that the volume contains what occurred in New France in 1631. The volume is dedicated to Cardinal Richelieu. 4to. 16 preliminary pages. Text 308 pages. 6 plates, which are the ſame as thoſe in the edition of 1619. "Seconde Partie," 310 pages. One large general map; table explanatory of map, 8 pages. "Traitté de la Marine," 54 pages. 2 plates. "Doctrine Chreſtienne" and "L'Oraiſon Dominicale," 20 pages. Another copy gives the name of Seveſtre as publiſher, and another that of Pierre Le-Mvr.

The publication of 1632 is ſtated by Laverdière to have been reiſſued in 1640, with a new title and date, but without further

further changes. This, however, is not found in the National Library at Paris, which contains all the other editions and iſſues. The copies of the edition of 1632 which we have conſulted are in the Harvard College Library and in the Boſton Athenæum.

It is of importance to refer, as we have done, to the particular copy uſed, for it appears to have been the cuſtom in the caſe of books printed as early as the above, to keep the type ſtanding, and print iſſues at intervals, ſometimes without any change in the title-page or date, and yet with alterations to ſome extent in the text. For inſtance, the copy of the publication of 1613 in the Harvard College Library differs from that in Mrs. Brown's Library, at Providence, in minor points, and particularly in reference to ſome changes in the ſmall map. The ſame is true of the publication of 1603. The variations are probably in part owing to the lack of uniformity in ſpelling at that period.

None of Champlain's works had been reprinted until 1830, when there appeared, in two volumes, a reprint of the publication of 1632, "at the expenſe of the government, in order to give work to printers." Since then there has been publiſhed the elaborate work, with extenſive annotations, of the Abbé Laverdière, as follows: —

Œuvres de Champlain, publiées sous le patronage de l'université Laval. Par l'Abbé C. H. Laverdière, M. A. Seconde Édition. 6 tomes. 4to. Québec: imprimé au Séminaire par Geo. E. Desbarats. 1870.

This contains all the works of Champlain above mentioned, and the text is a faithful reprint from the early Paris editions. It includes, in addition to this, Champlain's narrative of

of his voyage to the Weſt Indies, in 1598, of which the following is the title: —

Brief Diſcovrs des choſes plvs remarqvables qve Sammvel Champlain de Brovage a reconneues aux Indes Occidentalles au voiage qu'il en a faict en icelles en l'année mil v^c iiij.^xx. xix. & en l'année mil vj^c. j. comme enſuit.

This had never before been publiſhed in French, although a tranſlation of it had been iſſued by the Hakluyt Society in 1859. The *MS.* is the only one of Champlain's known to exiſt, excepting a letter to Richelieu, publiſhed by Laverdière among the "Pièces Juſtificatives." When uſed by Laverdière it was in the poſſeſſion of M. Féret, of Dieppe, but has ſince been advertiſed for ſale by the Paris bookſellers, Maiſonneuve & Co., at the price of 15,000 francs, and is now in the poſſeſſion of M. Pinart.

The volume printed in 1632 has been frequently compared with that of 1613, as if the former were merely a ſecond edition of the latter. But this conveys an erroneous idea of the relation between the two. In the firſt place, the volume of 1632 contains what is not given in any of the previous publications of Champlain. That is, it extends his narrative over the period from 1620 to 1632. It likewiſe goes over the ſame ground that is covered not only by the volume of 1613, but alſo by the other ſtill later publications of Champlain, up to 1620. It includes, moreover, a treatiſe on navigation. In the ſecond place, it is an abridgment, and not a ſecond edition in any proper ſenſe. It omits for the most part perſonal details and deſcriptions of the manners and cuſtoms of the Indians, ſo that very much that is eſſential to the full comprehenſion of Champlain's work

as

as an obſerver and explorer is gone. Moreover, there ſeems to be ſome internal evidence indicating that this abridgment was not made by Champlain himſelf, and Laverdière ſuggeſts that the work has been tampered with by another hand. Thus, all favorable alluſions to the Récollets, to whom Champlain was friendly, are modified or expunged, while the Jeſuits are made to appear in a prominent and favorable light. This queſtion has been ſpecially conſidered by Laverdière in his introduction to the iſſue of 1632, to which the reader is referred.

The language uſed by Champlain is eſſentially the claſſic French of the time of Henry IV. The dialect or patois of Saintonge, his native province, was probably underſtood and ſpoken by him; but we have not diſcovered any influence of it in his writings, either in reſpect to idiom or vocabulary. An occaſional appearance at court, and his conſtant official intercourſe with public men of prominence at Paris and elſewhere, rendered neceſſary ſtrict attention to the language he uſed.

But though uſing in general the language of court and literature, he offends not unfrequently againſt the rules of grammar and logical arrangement. Probably his buſy career did not allow him to read, much leſs ſtudy, at leaſt in reference to their ſtyle, ſuch maſterpieces of literature as the "Eſſais" of Montaigne, the tranſlations of Amyot, or the "Hiſtoire Univerſelle" of D'Aubigné. The voyages of Cartier he undoubtedly read; but, although ſuperior in point of literary merit to Champlain's writings, they were by no means without their blemiſhes, nor were they worthy of being compared with the claſſical authors to which we have alluded. But Champlain's

Champlain's diſcourſe is ſo ſtraightforward, and the thought ſo ſimple and clear, that the meaning is ſeldom obſcure, and his occaſional violations of grammar and looſeneſs of ſtyle are quite pardonable in one whoſe occupations left him little time for correction and reviſion. Indeed, one rather wonders that the unpretending explorer writes ſo well. It is the thought, not the words, which occupies his attention. Sometimes, after beginning a period which runs on longer than uſual, his intereſt in what he has to narrate ſeems ſo completely to occupy him that he forgets the way in which he commenced, and concludes in a manner not in logical accordance with the beginning. We ſubjoin a paſſage or two illuſtrative of his inadvertencies in reſpect to language. They are from his narrative of the voyage of 1603, and the text of the Paris edition is followed:

1. "Au dit bout du lac, il y a des peuples qui ſont cabannez, puis on entre dans trois autres riuieres, quelques trois ou quatre iournees dãs chacune, où au bout deſdites riuieres, il y a deux ou trois manieres de lacs, d'où prend la ſource du Saguenay." Chap. iv.

2. "Cedit iour rengeant touſiours ladite coſte du Nort, iuſques à vn lieu où nous relachaſmes pour les vents qui nous eſtoiẽt contraires, où il y auoit force rochers & lieux fort dangereux, nous feuſmes trois iours en attendant le beau temps." Chap. v.

3. "Ce ſeroit vn grand bien qui pourroit trouuer à la coſte de la Floride quelque paſſage qui allaſt donner proche du ſuſdit grand lac." Chap. x.

4. "leſquelles [riuieres] vont dans les terres, où le pays y eſt treſ-bon & fertille, & de fort bons ports." Chap. x.

5.

5. "Il y a auſſi vne autre petite riuiere qui va tomber comme à moitié chemin de celle par où reuint ledict ſieur Preuert, où ſont comme deux manieres de lacs en ceſte-dicte riuiere." Chap. xii.

The following paſſages are taken at random from the voyages of 1604–10, as illuſtrative of Champlain's ſtyle in general:

1. Explorations in the Bay of Fundy, Voyage of 1604–8.

"De la riuiere ſainct Iean nous fuſmes à quatre iſles, en l'vne deſquelles nous miſmes pied à terre, & y trouuaſmes grande quantité d'oiſeaux appellez Margos, dont nous priſmes force petits, qui ſont auſſi bons que pigeonneaux. Le ſieur de Poitrincourt ſ'y penſa eſgarer: Mais en fin il reuint à noſtre barque comme nous l'allions cerchant autour de iſle, qui eſt eſloignee de la terre ferme trois lieues." Chap. iii.

2. Explorations in the Vineyard Sound. Voyage of 1604–8.

"Comme nous euſmes fait quelques ſix ou ſept lieues nous euſmes cognoiſſance d'vne iſle que nous nommaſmes la ſoupçonneuſe, pour auoir eu pluſieurs fois croyance de loing que ce fut autre choſe qu'vne iſle, puis le vent nous vint contraire, qui nous fit relaſcher au lieu d'où nous eſtions partis, auquel nous fuſmes deux on trois jours ſans que durant ce temps il vint aucũ ſauuage ſe preſenter à nous." Chap. xv.

3. Fight with the Indians on the Richelieu. Voyage of 1610.

"Les Yroquois ſ'eſtonnoient du bruit de nos arquebuſes, & principalemẽt de ce que les balles perſoient mieux que leurs fleſches; & eurent tellement l'eſpouuãte de l'effet qu'elles faiſoient, voyãt pluſieurs de leurs cõpaignons tombez morts, & bleſſez, que de crainte qu'ils auoient, croy-

ans

ans ces coups eſtre ſans remede ils ſe iettoient par terre, quand ils entendoient le bruit: auſſi ne tirions gueres à faute, & deux ou trois balles à chacun coup, & auios la pluſpart du temps nos arquebuſes appuyees ſur le bord de leur barricade." Chap. ii.

The following words, found in the writings of Champlain, are to be noted as uſed by him in a ſenſe different from the ordinary one, or as not found in the dictionaries. They occur in the voyages of 1603 and 1604–11. The numbers refer to the continuous pagination in the Quebec edition:

appoil, 159. A ſpecies of duck. (?)

catalougue, 266. A cloth uſed for wrapping up a dead body. Cf. Spaniſh *catalogo*.

déſerter, 211, *et paſſim*. In the ſenſe of to clear up a new country by removing the trees, &c.

eſplan, 166. A ſmall fiſh, like the *équille* of Normandy.

eſtaire, 250. A kind of mat. Cf. Spaniſh *eſtera*.

fleurir, 247. To break or foam, ſpoken of the waves of the ſea.

legueux, 190. Watery. (?) Or for *ligneux*, fibrous. (?)

marmette, 159. A kind of ſea-bird.

Matachias, 75, *et paſſim*. Indian word for ſtrings of beads, uſed to ornament the perſon.

papeſi, 381. Name of one of the ſails of a veſſel.

petunoir, 79. Pipe for ſmoking.

Pilotua, 82, *et paſſim*. Word uſed by the Indians for ſoothſayer or medicine-man.

ſouler, 252. In ſenſe of, to be wont, accuſtomed.

truitière, 264. Trout-brook.

The firſt and main aim of the tranſlator has been to give the

the exact ſenſe of the original, and he has endeavored alſo to reproduce as far as poſſible the ſpirit and tone of Champlain's narrative. The important requiſite in a tranſlation, that it ſhould be pure and idiomatic Engliſh, without any transfer of the mode of expreſſion peculiar to the foreign language, has not, it is hoped, been violated, at leaſt to any great extent. If, perchance, a French term or uſage has been tranſferred to the tranſlation, it is becauſe it has ſeemed that the ſenſe or ſpirit would be better conveyed in this way. At beſt, a tranſlation comes ſhort of the original, and it is perhaps pardonable at times to admit a foreign term, if by this means the ſenſe or ſtyle ſeems to be better preſerved. It is hoped that the preſent work has been done ſo as to ſatisfy the demands of the hiſtorian, who may find it convenient to uſe it in his inveſtigations.

C. P. O.

BOSTON, June 17, 1880.

THE SAVAGES

OR VOYAGE OF

SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN

OF BROUAGE,

Made in New France in the year 1603.

DESCRIBING,

The customs, mode of life, marriages, wars, and dwellings of the Savages of Canada. Discoveries for more than four hundred and fifty leagues in the country. The tribes, animals, rivers, lakes, islands, lands, trees, and fruits found there. Discoveries on the coast of La Cadie, and numerous mines existing there according to the report of the Savages.

PARIS.

Claude de Monstr'œil, having his store in the Court of the Palace, under the name of Jesus.

WITH AUTHORITY OF THE KING.

DEDICATION.

To the very noble, high and powerful Lord Charles De Montmorency, Chevalier of the Orders of the King, Lord of Ampuille and of Meru, Count of Secondigny, Viscount of Melun, Baron of Chateauneuf and of Gonnort, Admiral of France and of Brittany.

My Lord,

Although many have written about the country of Canada, I have nevertheless been unwilling to rest satisfied with their report, and have visited these regions expressly in order to be able to render a faithful testimony to the truth, which you will see, if it be your pleasure, in the brief narrative which I address to you, and which I beg you may find agreeable, and I pray God for your ever increasing greatness and prosperity, my Lord, and shall remain all my life,

Your most humble
and obedient servant,
S. CHAMPLAIN.

EXTRACT FROM THE LICENSE.

BY licenſe of the King, given at Paris on the 15th of November, 1603, ſigned Brigard.

Permiſſion is given to Sieur de Champlain to have printed by ſuch printer as may ſeem good to him, a book which he has compoſed, entitled, "The Savages, or Voyage of Sieur de Champlain, made in the Year 1603;" and all book-ſellers and printers of this kingdom are forbidden to print, ſell, or diſtribute ſaid book, except with the conſent of him whom he ſhall name and chooſe, on penalty of a fine of fifty crowns, of confiſcation, and all expenſes, as is more fully ſtated in the licenſe.

Said Sieur de Champlain, in accordance with his licenſe, has choſen and given permiſſion to Claude de Monſtr'œil, book-ſeller to the Univerſity of Paris, to print ſaid book, and he has ceded and transferred to him his licenſe, ſo that no other perſon can print or have printed, ſell, or diſtribute it, during the time of five years, except with the conſent of ſaid Monſtr'œil, on the penalties contained in the ſaid licenſe.

THE SAVAGES,

OR

VOYAGE OF SIEUR DE CHAMPLAIN

MADE IN THE YEAR 1603.

CHAPTER I.

BRIEF NARRATIVE OF THE VOYAGE FROM HONFLEUR IN NORMANDY TO THE PORT OF TADOUSSAC IN CANADA.

WE ſet out from Honfleur on the 15th of March, 1603. On the ſame day we put back to the roadſtead of Havre de Grâce, the wind not being favorable. On Sunday following, the 16th, we ſet ſail on our route. On the 17th, we ſighted d'Orgny and Greneſey,[121] iſlands between the coaſt of Normandy and England. On the 18th of the ſame month, we ſaw the coaſt of Brittany. On the 19th, at 7 o'clock in the evening we reckoned that we were off Oueſſant.[122] On the 21ſt, at 7 o'clock in the morning, we met ſeven Flemiſh veſſels, coming,

[121] Alderney and Guernſey. French maps at the preſent day for Alderney have d'Aurigny.

[122] The iſlands lying off Finiſtère, on the weſtern extremity of Brittany in France.

ing, as we thought, from the Indies. On Eaſter day, the 30th of the ſame month, we encountered a great tempeſt, which ſeemed to be more lightning than wind, and which laſted for ſeventeen days, though not continuing ſo ſevere as it was on the firſt two days. During this time, we loſt more than we gained. On the 16th of April, to the delight of all, the weather began to be more favorable, and the ſea calmer than it had been, ſo that we continued our courſe until the 28th, when we fell in with a very lofty iceberg. The next day we ſighted a bank of ice more than eight leagues long, accompanied by an infinite number of ſmaller banks, which prevented us from going on. In the opinion of the pilot, theſe maſſes of ice were about a hundred or a hundred and twenty leagues from Canada. We were in latitude 45° 40′, and continued our courſe in 44°.

On the 2nd of May we reached the Bank at 11 o'clock in the forenoon, in 44° 40′. On the 6th of the ſame month we had approached ſo near to land that we heard the ſea beating on the ſhore, which, however, we could not ſee on account of the denſe fog, to which theſe coaſts are ſubject.[123] For this reaſon we put out to ſea again a few leagues, until the next morning, when the weather being clear, we ſighted land, which was Cape St. Mary.[124]

On the 12th we were overtaken by a ſevere gale, laſting two days. On the 15th we ſighted the iſlands of St. Peter.[125] On the 17th we fell in with an ice-bank near Cape Ray, ſix leagues in length, which led us to lower ſail for the entire night that

[123] The ſhore which they approached was probably Cape Pine, eaſt of Placentia Bay, Newfoundland.

[124] In Placentia Bay, on the ſouthern coaſt of Newfoundland.

[125] Weſt of Placentia Bay.

that we might avoid the danger to which we were expoſed. On the next day we ſet ſail and ſighted Cape Ray,[126] the iſlands of St. Paul, and Cape St. Lawrence.[127] The latter is on the mainland lying to the ſouth, and the diſtance from it to Cape Ray is eighteen leagues, that being the breadth of the entrance to the great bay of Canada.[128] On the ſame day, about ten o'clock in the morning, we fell in with another bank of ice, more than eight leagues in length. On the 20th, we ſighted an iſland ſome twenty-five or thirty leagues long, called *Anticoſty*,[129] which marks the entrance to the river of Canada. The next day, we ſighted Gaſpé,[130] a very high land, and began

[126] Cape Ray is northweſt of the iſlands of St. Peter.

[127] Cape St. Lawrence, now called Cape North, is the northern extremity of the iſland of Cape Breton, and the iſland of St. Paul is a few miles north of it.

[128] The Gulf or Bay of St. Lawrence. It was ſo named by Jacques Cartier on his ſecond voyage, in 1535. Nous nommaſmes la dicte baye la Sainct Laurens. *Brief Récit*, 1545, D'Avezac ed. p. 8. The northeaſtern part of it is called on De Laet's map, "Grand Baye."

[129] "This iſland is about one hundred and forty miles long, thirty-five miles broad in its wideſt part, with an average breadth of twenty-ſeven and one-half miles."—*Le Moine's Chronicles of the St. Lawrence*, p. 100. It was named by Cartier in 1535, the Iſland of the Aſſumption, having been diſcovered on the 15th of Auguſt, the feſtival of the Aſſumption. Nous auons nommes l'yſle de l'Aſſumption. — *Brief Récit*, 1545, D'Avezac's ed. p. 9. Alfonſe, in his report of his voyage of 1542, calls it the *Iſle de l'Aſcenſion*, probably by miſtake. "The Iſle of Aſcenſion is a goodly iſle and a goodly champion land, without any hills, ſtanding all vpon white rocks and Alabaſter, all couered with wild beaſts, as bears, Luſerns, Porkeſpicks." *Hakluyt*, Vol. III. p. 292. Of this iſland De Laet ſays, "Elle eſt nommee en langage des Sauuages *Natiſcotec*."—*Hiſt. du Nouveau Monde*, a Leyde, 1640, p. 42. *Vide alſo Wyet's Voyage* in Hakluyt, Vol. III. p. 241. Laverdière ſays the Montagnais now call it *Nataſcoueh*, which ſignifies, *where the bear is caught*. He cites Thevet, who ſays it is called by the ſavages *Naticouſti*, by others *de Laiſple*. The uſe of the name Anticoſty by Champlain, now ſpelled Anticoſti, would imply that its corruption from the original, *Natiſcotec*, took place at a very early date. Or it is poſſible that Champlain wrote it as he heard it pronounced by the natives, and his orthography may beſt repreſent the original.

[130] *Gachepé*, ſo written in the text, ſubſequently written by the author *Gaſpey*, but now generally Gaſpé. It is ſuppoſed to have been derived from the Abnaquis word *Katſepi ∞i*, which means what is ſeparated from the reſt, and to have reference to a remarkable rock, three miles above Cape Gaſpé, ſeparated from the ſhore by the violence of the waves,

gan to enter the river of Canada, coaſting along the ſouth side as far as Montanne,[131] diſtant ſixty-five leagues from Gaſpé. Proceeding on our courſe, we came in ſight of the Bic,[132] twenty leagues from Mantanne and on the ſouthern ſhore; continuing farther, we croſſed the river to Tadouſſac, fifteen leagues from the Bic. All this region is very high, barren, and unproductive.

On the 24th of the month, we came to anchor before Tadouſſac,[133] and on the 26th entered this port, which has the form of a cove. It is at the mouth of the river Saguenay, where there is a current and tide of remarkable ſwiftneſs and a great depth of water, and where there are ſometimes troubleſome winds,[134] in conſequence of the cold they bring. It is ſtated that it is ſome forty-five or fifty leagues up to the firſt fall in this river, and that it flows from the northweſt. The harbor of Tadouſſac is ſmall, in which only ten or twelve veſſels

waves, the incident from which it takes its name. — *Vide Voyages de Champlain*, ed. 1632, p. 91; *Chronicles of the St. Lawrence*, by J. M. Le Moine, p. 9.

131 A river flowing into the St. Lawrence from the ſouth in latitude 48°52′ and in longitude weſt from Greenwich 67°32′, now known as the Matane.

132 For Bic, Champlain has *Pic*, which is probably a typographical error. It ſeems probable that Bic is derived from the French word *bicoque*, which means a place of ſmall conſideration, a little paltry town. Near the ſite of the ancient Bic, we now have, on modern maps, *Bicoque* Rocks, *Bicquette* Light, *Bic* Iſland, *Bic* Channel, and *Bic* Anchorage. As ſuggeſted by Laverdière, this appears to be the identical harbor entered by Jacques Cartier, in 1535, who named it the Iſles of Saint John, becauſe he entered it on the day of the beheading of St. John, which was the 29th of Auguſt. Nous les nommaſmes les Yſleaux ſainct Jehan, parce que nous y entraſmes le iour de la decollation dudict saïct. *Brief Récit*, 1545, D'Avezac's ed. p. 11. Le Jeune ſpeaks of the *Iſle du Bic* in 1635. *Vide Relation des Jéſuites*, p. 19.

133 *Tadouſſac*, or *Tadouchac*, is derived from the word *totouchac*, which in Montagnais means *breaſts*, and Saguenay ſignifies *water which ſprings forth*, from the Montagnais word *ſaki-nip*. — *Vide Laverdière in loco.* Tadouſſac, or the breaſts from which water ſprings forth, is naturally ſuggeſted by the rocky elevations at the baſe of which the Saguenay flows.

134 *Impetueux*, plainly intended to mean *troubleſome*, as may be ſeen from the context.

veſſels could lie; but there is water enough on the eaſt, ſheltered from the river Saguenay, and along a little mountain, which is almoſt cut off by the river. On the ſhore there are very high mountains, on which there is little earth, but only rocks and ſand, which are covered with pine, cypreſs and fir,[135] and a ſmalliſh ſpecies of trees. There is a ſmall pond near the harbor, encloſed by wood-covered mountains. At the entrance to the harbor, there are two points: the one on the weſt ſide extending a league out into the river, and called St. Matthew's Point;[136] the other on the ſoutheaſt ſide extending out a quarter of a league, and called All-Devils' Point. This harbor is expoſed to the winds from the ſouth, ſoutheaſt, and ſouth-ſouthweſt. The diſtance from St. Matthew's Point to All-Devils' Point is nearly a league; both points are dry at low tide.

CHAPTER II.

[135] Pine, *pins*. The white pine, *Pinus ſtrobus*, or *Strobus Americanus*, grows as far north as Newfoundland, and as far ſouth as Georgia. It was obſerved by Captain George Weymouth on the Kennebec, and hence deals afterward imported into England were called *Weymouth pine*. — *Vide Chronological Hiſtory of Plants*, by Charles Pickering, M.D., Boſton, 1879, p. 809. This is probably the ſpecies here referred to by Champlain. Cypreſs, *Cyprez*. This was probably the American arbor vitæ, *Thuja occidentalis*, a ſpecies which, according to the Abbé Laverdière, is found in the neighborhood of the Saguenay. Champlain employed the ſame word to deſignate the American ſavin, or red cedar, *Juniperus Virginiana*, which he found on Cape Cod. — *Vide* Vol. II. p. 82. Note 168.

Fir, *ſapins*. The fir may have been the white ſpruce, *Abies alba*, or the black ſpruce, *Abies nigra*, or the balſam fir or Canada balſam, *Abies balſamea*, or yet the hemlock ſpruce, *Abies Canadenſis*.

[136] *St. Matthew's Point*, now known as Point aux Allouettes, or Lark Point. — *Vide* Vol. II. p 165, note 292. *All-Devils' Point*, now called *Pointe aux Vaches*. Both of theſe points had changed their names before the publication of Champlain's ed., 1632. — *Vide* p. 119 of that edition. The laſt mentioned was called by Champlain, in 1632, *pointe aux roches*. Laverdière thinks *ro*ches was a typographical error, as Sagard, about the ſame time, writes *vaches*. — *Vide Sagard, Hiſtoire du Canada*, 1636, Stroſs. ed., Vol. I. p. 150.

We naturally aſk why it was called *pointe aux vaches*, or point of cows. An old French apothegm reads *Le diable eſt aux vaches*, the devil is in the cows, for which in Engliſh we ſay, "the devil is to pay." May not this proverb have ſuggeſted *vaches* as a ſynonyme of *diables?*

CHAPTER II.

FAVORABLE RECEPTION GIVEN TO THE FRENCH BY THE GRAND SAGAMORE OF THE SAVAGES OF CANADA. — THE BANQUETS AND DANCES OF THE LATTER. — THEIR WAR WITH THE IROQUOIS. — THE MATERIAL OF WHICH THEIR CANOES AND CABINS ARE MADE, AND THEIR MODE OF CONSTRUCTION. — INCLUDING ALSO A DESCRIPTION OF ST. MATTHEW'S POINT.

ON the 27th, we went to viſit the ſavages at St. Matthew's point, diſtant a league from Tadouſſac, accompanied by the two ſavages whom Sieur du Pont Gravé took to make a report of what they had ſeen in France, and of the friendly reception the king had given them. Having landed, we proceeded to the cabin of their grand Sagamore[137] named *Anadabijou*, whom we found with ſome eighty or a hundred of his companions celebrating a *tabagie*, that is a banquet. He received us very cordially, and according to the cuſtom of his country, ſeating us near himſelf, with all the ſavages arranged in rows on both ſides of the cabin. One of the ſavages whom we had taken with us began to make an addreſs, ſpeaking of the cordial reception the king had given them, and the good treatment they had received in France, and ſaying they were aſſured that his Majeſty was favorably diſpoſed towards them, and was deſirous of peopling their country, and of making peace with their enemies, the Iroquois, or of ſending forces to conquer them. He alſo told them of the handſome manors, palaces, and houſes they had

[137] *Sagamo*, thus written in the French. According to Laflèche, as cited by Laverdière, this word, in the Montagnais language, is derived from *tchi*, great, and *okimau*, chief, and conſequently ſignifies the Great Chief.

had ſeen, and of the inhabitants and our mode of living. He was liſtened to with the greateſt poſſible ſilence. Now, after he had finiſhed his addreſs, the grand Sagamore, Anadabijou, who had liſtened to it attentively, proceeded to take ſome tobacco, and give it to Sieur du Pont Gravé of St. Malo, myſelf, and ſome other Sagamores, who were near him. After a long ſmoke, he began to make his addreſs to all, ſpeaking with gravity, ſtopping at times a little, and then reſuming and ſaying, that they truly ought to be very glad in having his Majeſty for a great friend. They all anſwered with one voice, *Ho, ho, ho*, that is to ſay *yes, yes.* He continuing his addreſs ſaid that he ſhould be very glad to have his Majeſty people their land, and make war upon their enemies; that there was no nation upon earth to which they were more kindly diſpoſed than to the French: finally he gave them all to underſtand the advantage and profit they could receive from his Majeſty. After he had finiſhed his addreſs, we went out of his cabin, and they began to celebrate their *tabagie* or banquet, at which they have elk's meat, which is ſimilar to beef, alſo that of the bear, ſeal and beaver, theſe being their ordinary meats, including alſo quantities of fowl. They had eight or ten boilers full of meats, in the middle of this cabin, ſeparated ſome ſix feet from each other, each one having its own fire. They were ſeated on both ſides, as I ſtated before, each one having his porringer made of bark. When the meat is cooked, ſome one diſtributes to each his portion in his porringer, when they eat in a very filthy manner. For when their hands are covered with fat, they rub them on their heads or on the hair of their dogs, of which they have large numbers for hunting. Before their meat

meat was cooked, one of them aroſe, took a dog and hopped around theſe boilers from one end of the cabin to the other. Arriving in front of the great Sagamore, he threw his dog violently to the ground, when all with one voice exclaimed, *Ho*, *ho*, *ho*, after which he went back to his place. Inſtantly another aroſe and did the ſame, which performance was continued until the meat was cooked. Now after they had finiſhed their *tabagie*, they began to dance, taking the heads of their enemies, which were ſlung on their backs, as a ſign of joy. One or two of them ſing, keeping time with their hands, which they ſtrike on their knees: ſometimes they ſtop, exclaiming, *Ho*, *ho*, *ho*, when they begin dancing again, puffing like a man out of breath. They were having this celebration in honor of the victory they had obtained over the Iroquois, ſeveral hundred of whom they had killed, whoſe heads they had cut off and had with them to contribute to the pomp of their feſtivity. Three nations had engaged in the war, the Etechemins, Algonquins, and Montagnais.[138] Theſe, to the number of a thouſand, proceeded to make war upon the Iroquois, whom they encountered at the mouth of the river of the Iroquois, and of whom they killed a hundred. They carry on war only by ſurpriſing their enemies; for they would not dare to do ſo otherwiſe, and fear too much the Iroquois, who are more numerous than the Montagnais, Etechemins, and Algonquins.

On

[138] The Etechemins may be ſaid in general terms to have occupied the territory from St. John, N. B., to Mount Deſert Iſland, in Maine, and perhaps ſtill further weſt, but not ſouth of Saco. The Algonquins here referred to were thoſe who dwelt on the Ottawa River. The Montagnais occupied the region on both ſides of the Saguenay, having their trading centre at Tadouſſac War had been carried on for a period we know not how long, perhaps for ſeveral centuries, between theſe allied tribes and the Iroquois.

On the 28th of this month they came and erected cabins at the harbor of Tadouſſac, where our veſſel was. At daybreak their grand Sagamore came out from his cabin and went about all the others, crying out to them in a loud voice to break camp to go to Tadouſſac, where their good friends were. Each one immediately took down his cabin in an incredibly ſhort time, and the great captain was the firſt to take his canoe and carry it to the water, where he embarked his wife and children, and a quantity of furs. Thus were launched nearly two hundred canoes, which go wonderfully faſt; for, although our ſhallop was well manned, yet they went faſter than ourſelves. Two only do the work of propelling the boat, a man and a woman. Their canoes are ſome eight or nine feet long, and a foot or a foot and a half broad in the middle, growing narrower towards the two ends. They are very liable to turn over, if one does not underſtand how to manage them, for they are made of the bark of trees called *bouille*,[139] ſtrengthened on the inſide by little ribs of wood ſtrongly and neatly made. They are ſo light that a man can eaſily carry one, and each canoe can carry the weight of a pipe. When they wiſh to go overland to ſome river where they have buſineſs, they carry their canoes with them.

Their cabins are low and made like tents, being covered with the ſame kind of bark as that before mentioned. The whole

[139] *Bouille* for *bouleau*, the birch-tree. *Betula papyracea*, popularly known as the paper or canoe birch. It is a large tree, the bark white, and ſplitting into thin layers. It is common in New England, and far to the north. The white birch, *Betula alba*, of Europe and Northern Aſia, is uſed for boat-building at the preſent day.—*Vide Chronological Hiſtory of Plants*, by Charles Pickering, M.D., Boſton, 1879, p. 134.

whole top for the ſpace of about a foot they leave uncovered, whence the light enters; and they make a number of fires directly in the middle of the cabin, in which there are ſometimes ten families at once. They ſleep on ſkins, all together, and their dogs with them.[140]

They were in number a thouſand perſons, men, women and children. The place at St. Matthew's Point, where they were firſt encamped, is very pleaſant. They were at the foot of a ſmall ſlope covered with trees, firs and cypreſſes. At St. Matthew's Point there is a ſmall level place, which is ſeen at a great diſtance. On the top of this hill there is a level tract of land, a league long, half a league broad, covered with trees. The ſoil is very ſandy, and contains good paſturage. Elſewhere there are only rocky mountains, which are very barren. The tide riſes about this ſlope, but at low water leaves it dry for a full half league out.

CHAPTER III.

140 The dog was the only domeſtic animal found among the aborigines of this country. "The Auſtralians," ſays Dr. Pickering, "appear to be the only conſiderable portion of mankind deſtitute of the companionſhip of the dog. The American tribes, from the Arctic Sea to Cape Horn, had the companionſhip of the dog, and certain remarkable breeds had been developed before the viſit of Columbus (F. Columbus 25); further, according to Coues, the croſs between the coyote and female dog is regularly procured by our northweſtern tribes, and, according to Gabb, "dogs one-fourth coyote are pointed out; the fact therefore ſeems eſtabliſhed that the coyote or American barking wolfe, *Canis latrans*, is the dog in its original wild ſtate."—*Vide Chronological Hiſtory of Plants*, etc., by Charles Pickering, M.D., Boſton, 1879, p. 20.

"It was believed by ſome for a length of time that the wild dog was of recent introduction to Auſtralia; this is not ſo."—*Vide Aborigines of Victoria*, by R. Brough Smyth, London, 1878, Vol. I. p. 149. The bones of the wild dog have recently been diſcovered in Auſtralia, at a depth of excavation, and in circumſtances, which prove that his exiſtence there antedates the introduction of any ſpecies of the dog by Europeans. The Auſtralians appear, therefore, to be no exception to the univerſal companionſhip of the dog with man.

CHAPTER III.

THE REJOICINGS OF THE INDIANS AFTER OBTAINING A VICTORY OVER THEIR ENEMIES. — THEIR DISPOSITION, ENDURANCE OF HUNGER, AND MALICIOUSNESS. — THEIR BELIEFS AND FALSE OPINIONS, COMMUNICATION WITH EVIL SPIRITS. — THEIR GARMENTS, AND HOW THEY WALK ON THE SNOW. — THEIR MANNER OF MARRIAGE, AND THE INTERMENT OF THEIR DEAD.

ON the 9th of June the ſavages proceeded to have a rejoicing all together, and to celebrate their *tabagie*, which I have before deſcribed, and to dance, in honor of their victory over their enemies. Now, after they had feaſted well, the Algonquins, one of the three nations, left their cabins and went by themſelves to a public place. Here they arranged all their wives and daughters by the ſide of each other, and took poſition themſelves behind them, all ſinging in the manner I have deſcribed before. Suddenly all the wives and daughters proceeded to throw off their robes of ſkins, preſenting themſelves ſtark naked, and expoſing their ſexual parts. But they were adorned with *matachiats*, that is beads and braided ſtrings, made of porcupine quills, which they dye in various colors. After finiſhing their ſongs, they all ſaid together, *Ho, ho, ho:* at the ſame inſtant all the wives and daughters covered themſelves with their robes, which were at their feet. Then, after ſtopping a ſhort time, all ſuddenly beginning to ſing throw off their robes as before. They do not ſtir from their poſition while dancing, and make various geſtures and movements of the body, lifting one foot and then the other, at the ſame time ſtriking upon the ground. Now, during the performance of this dance, the Sagamore

of the Algonquins, named *Beſouat*, was ſeated before theſe wives and daughters, between two ſticks, on which were hung the heads of their enemies. Sometimes he aroſe and went haranguing, and ſaying to the Montagnais and Etechemins: "Look! how we rejoice in the victory that we have obtained over our enemies; you muſt do the ſame, ſo that we may be ſatisfied." Then all ſaid together, *Ho*, *ho*, *ho*. After returning to his poſition, the grand Sagamore together with all his companions removed their robes, making themſelves ſtark naked except their ſexual parts, which are covered with a ſmall piece of ſkin. Each one took what ſeemed good to him, as *matachiats*, hatchets, ſwords, kettles, fat, elk fleſh, ſeal, in a word each one had a preſent, which they proceeded to give to the Algonquins. After all theſe ceremonies, the dance ceaſed, and the Algonquins, men and women, carried their preſents into their cabins. Then two of the moſt agile men of each nation were taken, whom they cauſed to run, and he who was the faſteſt in the race, received a preſent.

All theſe people have a very cheerful diſpoſition, laughing often; yet at the ſame time they are ſomewhat phlegmatic. They talk very deliberately, as if deſiring to make themſelves well underſtood, and ſtopping ſuddenly, they reflect for a long time, when they reſume their diſcourſe. This is their uſual manner at their harangues in council, where only the leading men, the elders, are preſent, the women and children not attending at all.

All theſe people ſuffer ſo much ſometimes from hunger, on account of the ſevere cold and ſnow, when the animals and fowl on which they live go away to warmer countries, that they are almoſt conſtrained to eat one another. I am of opinion

opinion that if one were to teach them how to live, and inſtruct them in the cultivation of the ſoil and in other reſpects, they would learn very eaſily, for I can teſtify that many of them have good judgment and reſpond very appropriately to whatever queſtion may be put to them.[141] They have the vices of taking revenge and of lying badly, and are people in whom it is not well to put much confidence, except with caution and with force at hand. They promiſe well, but keep their word badly.

Moſt of them have no law, ſo far as I have been able to obſerve or learn from the great Sagamore, who told me that they really believed there was a God, who created all things. Whereupon I ſaid to him: that, "Since they believed in one ſole God, how had he placed them in the world, and whence was their origin." He replied: that, "After God had made all things, he took a large number of arrows, and put them in the ground; whence ſprang men and women, who had been multiplying in the world up to the preſent time, and that this was their origin." I anſwered that what he ſaid was falſe, but that there really was one only God, who had created all things upon earth and in the heavens. Seeing all theſe things ſo perfect, but that there was no one to govern here on earth, he took clay from the ground, out of which he created Adam our firſt father. While Adam was ſleeping, God took a rib from his ſide, from which he formed Eve, whom he gave to him as a companion, and, I told him, that it was true that they and ourſelves had our origin in this manner, and not from arrows, as they ſuppoſe. He ſaid nothing, except that he acknowledged what I ſaid, rather than what

[141] *Vide* Vol. II. of this work, p. 190.

what he had aſſerted. I aſked him alſo if he did not believe that there was more than one only God. He told me their belief was that there was a God, a Son, a Mother, and the Sun, making four; that God, however, was above all, that the Son and the Sun were good, ſince they received good things from them; but the Mother, he ſaid, was worthleſs, and ate them up; and the Father not very good. I remonſtrated with him on his error, and contraſted it with our faith, in which he put ſome little confidence. I aſked him if they had never ſeen God, nor heard from their anceſtors that God had come into the world. He ſaid that they had never ſeen him; but that formerly there were five men who went towards the ſetting ſun, who met God, who aſked them: "Where are you going?" they anſwered: "We are going in ſearch of our living." God replied to them: "You will find it here." They went on, without paying attention to what God had ſaid to them, when he took a ſtone and touched two of them with it, whereupon they were changed to ſtones; and he ſaid again to the three others: "Where are you going?" They anſwered as before, and God ſaid to them again: "Go no farther, you will find it here." And ſeeing that nothing came to them, they went on; when God took two ſticks, with which he touched the two firſt, whereupon they were transformed into ſticks, when the fifth one ſtopped, not wiſhing to go farther. And God aſked him again: "Where are you going?" "I am going in ſearch of my living." "Stay and thou ſhalt find it." He ſtaid without advancing farther, and God gave him ſome meat, which he ate. After making good cheer, he returned to the other ſavages, and related to them all the above.

He

He told me alſo that another time there was a man who had a large quantity of tobacco (a plant from which they obtain what they ſmoke), and that God came to this man, and aſked him where his pipe was. The man took his pipe, and gave it to God, who ſmoked much. After ſmoking to his ſatisfaction, God broke the pipe into many pieces, and the man aſked: "Why haſt thou broken my pipe? thou ſeeſt in truth that I have not another." Then God took one that he had, and gave it to him, ſaying: "Here is one that I will give you, take it to your great Sagamore; let him keep it, and if he keep it well, he will not want for any thing whatever, neither he nor all his companions." The man took the pipe, and gave it to his great Sagamore; and while he kept it, the ſavages were in want of nothing whatever: but he ſaid that afterwards the grand Sagamore loſt this pipe, which was the cauſe of the ſevere famines they ſometimes have. I aſked him if he believed all that; he ſaid yes, and that it was the truth. Now I think that this is the reaſon why they ſay that God is not very good. But I replied, "that God was in all reſpects good, and that it was doubtleſs the Devil who had manifeſted himſelf to thoſe men, and that if they would believe as we did in God they would not want for what they had need of; that the ſun which they ſaw, the moon and the ſtars, had been created by this great God, who made heaven and earth, but that they have no power except that which God has given them; that we believe in this great God, who by His goodneſs had ſent us His dear Son who, being conceived of the Holy Spirit, was clothed with human fleſh in the womb of the Virgin Mary, lived thirty years on earth, doing an infinitude of miracles, raiſing

raiſing the dead, healing the ſick, driving out devils, giving ſight to the blind, teaching men the will of God his Father, that they might ſerve, honor and worſhip Him, ſhed his blood, ſuffered and died for us, and our ſins, and ranſomed the human race; that, being buried, he roſe again, deſcended into hell, and aſcended into heaven, where he is ſeated on the right hand of God his Father."[142] I told him that this was the faith of all Chriſtians who believe in the Father, Son, and Holy Spirit; that theſe, nevertheleſs, are not three Gods, but one the ſame and only God, and a trinity in which there is no before nor after, no greater nor ſmaller; that the Virgin Mary, mother of the Son of God, and all the men and women who have lived in this world doing the commandments of God, and enduring martyrdom for his name, and who by the permiſſion of God have done miracles, and are ſaints in heaven in his paradiſe, are all of them praying this Great Divine Majeſty to pardon us our errors and ſins which we commit againſt His law and commandments. And thus, by the prayers of the ſaints in heaven and by our own prayers to his Divine Majeſty, He gives what we have need of, and the devil has no power over us and can do us no harm. I told them that if they had this belief, they would be like us, and that the devil could no longer do them any harm, and that they would not lack what they had need of.

Then this Sagamore replied to me that he acknowledged what I ſaid. I aſked him what ceremonies they were accuſtomed to in praying to their God. He told me that they were not accuſtomed to any ceremonies, but that each prayed in his heart

[142] This ſummary of the Chriſtian faith is nearly in the words of the Apoſtles Creed.

heart as he deſired. This is why I believe that they have no law, not knowing what it is to worſhip and pray to God, and living, the moſt of them, like brute beaſts. But I think that they would ſpeedily become good Chriſtians, if people were to colonize their country, of which moſt of them were deſirous.

There are ſome ſavages among them whom they call *Pilotoua*,[143] who have perſonal communications with the devil. Such an one tells them what they are to do, not only in regard to war, but other things; and if he ſhould command them to execute any undertaking, as to kill a Frenchman or one of their own nation, they would obey his command at once.

They believe, alſo, that all dreams which they have are real; and many of them, indeed, ſay that they have ſeen in dreams things which come to paſs or will come to paſs. But, to tell the truth in the matter, theſe are viſions of the devil, who deceives and miſleads them. This is all that I have been able to learn from them in regard to their matters of belief, which is of a low, animal nature.

All theſe people are well proportioned in body, without any deformity, and are alſo agile. The women are well-ſhaped, full and plump, and of a ſwarthy complexion, on account of the large amount of a certain pigment with which they rub themſelves, and which gives them an olive color. They are clothed in ſkins, one part of their body being covered and the other left uncovered. In winter they provide for their whole body, for they are dreſſed in good furs, as thoſe of the elk, otter, beaver, ſeal, ſtag, and hind, which

[143] On *Pilotoua* or *Pilotois*, *vide* Vol. II. note 341.

which they have in large quantities. In winter, when the ſnows are heavy, they make a ſort of *raquette*,[144] two or three times as large as thoſe in France. Theſe they attach to their feet, and thus walk upon the ſnow without ſinking in; for without them, they could not hunt or make their way in many places.

Their manner of marriage is as follows: When a girl attains the age of fourteen or fifteen years, ſhe may have ſeveral ſuitors and friends, and keep company with ſuch as ſhe pleaſes. At the end of ſome five or ſix years ſhe may chooſe that one to whom her fancy inclines as her huſband, and they will live together until the end of their life, unleſs, after living together a certain period, they fail to have children, when the huſband is at liberty to divorce himſelf and take another wife, on the ground that his own is of no worth. Accordingly, the girls are more free than the wives; yet as ſoon as they are married they are chaſte, and their huſbands are for the moſt part jealous, and give preſents to the father or relatives of the girl whom they marry. This is the manner of marriage, and conduct in the ſame.

In regard to their interments, when a man or woman dies, they make a trench, in which they put all their property, as kettles, furs, axes, bows and arrows, robes, and other things. Then they put the body in the trench, and cover it with earth, laying on top many large pieces of wood, and erecting over all a piece of wood painted red on the upper part. They believe in the immortality of the ſoul, and ſay that when they die themſelves, they ſhall go to rejoice with their relatives and friends in other lands.

CHAPTER IV.

[144] *Vne maniere de raquette.* The ſnow-ſhoe, which much reſembles the racket or battledore, an inſtrument uſed for ſtriking the ball in the game of tennis. This name was given for the want of one more ſpecific.

CHAPTER IV.

The River Saguenay and its Source.

ON the 11th of June, I went ſome twelve or fifteen leagues up the Saguenay, which is a fine river, of remarkable depth. For I think, judging from what I have heard in regard to its ſource, that it comes from a very high place, whence a torrent of water deſcends with great impetuoſity. But the water which proceeds thence is not capable of producing ſuch a river as this, which, however, only extends from this torrent, where the firſt fall is, to the harbor of Tadouſſac, at the mouth of the Saguenay, a diſtance of ſome forty-five or fifty leagues, it being a good league and a half broad at the wideſt place, and a quarter of a league at the narroweſt; for which reaſon there is a ſtrong current. All the country, ſo far as I ſaw it, conſiſted only of rocky mountains, moſtly covered with fir, cypreſs, and birch; a very unattractive region in which I did not find a level tract of land either on the one ſide or the other. There are ſome iſlands in the river, which are high and ſandy. In a word, theſe are real deſerts, uninhabitable for animals or birds. For I can teſtify that when I went hunting in places which ſeemed to me the moſt attractive, I found nothing whatever but little birds, like nightingales and ſwallows, which come only in ſummer, as I think, on account of the exceſſive cold there, this river coming from the northweſt.

They told me that, after paſſing the firſt fall, whence this torrent comes, they paſs eight other falls, when they go a day's

journey without finding any; then they paſs ten other falls and enter a lake [145] which it requires two days to croſs, they being able to make eaſily from twelve to fifteen leagues a day. At the other extremity of the lake is found a people who live in cabins. Then you enter three other rivers, up each of which the diſtance is a journey of ſome three or four days. At the extremity of theſe rivers are two or three bodies of water, like lakes, in which the Saguenay has its ſource, from which to Tadouſſac is a journey of ten days in their canoes. There is a large number of cabins on the border of theſe rivers, occupied by other tribes which come from the north to exchange with the Montagnais their beaver and marten ſkins for articles of merchandiſe, which the French veſſels furniſh to the Montagnais. Theſe ſavages from the north ſay that they live within ſight of a ſea which is ſalt. If this is the caſe, I think that it is a gulf of that ſea which flows from the north into the interior, and in fact it cannot be otherwiſe.[146] This is what I have learned in regard to the River Saguenay.

CHAPTER V.

[145] This was Lake St. John. This deſcription is given nearly *verbatim* in Vol. II. p. 169. — *Vide* notes in the ſame volume, 294, 295.

[146] Champlain appears to have obtained from the Indians a very correct idea not only of the exiſtence but of the character of Hudſon's Bay, although that bay was not diſcovered by Hudſon till about ſeven years later than this.

CHAPTER V.

DEPARTURE FROM TADOUSSAC FOR THE FALL. — DESCRIPTION OF HARE ISLAND, ISLE DU COUDRE, ISLE D'ORLÉANS, AND SEVERAL OTHERS. — OUR ARRIVAL AT QUEBEC.

ON Wedneſday, the eighteenth day of June, we ſet out from Tadouſſac for the Fall.[147] We paſſed near an iſland called Hare Iſland,[148] about two leagues from the northern ſhore and ſome ſeven leagues from Tadouſſac and five leagues from the ſouthern ſhore. From Hare Iſland we proceeded along the northern coaſt about half a league, to a point extending out into the water, where one muſt keep out farther. This point is one league[149] from an iſland called *Iſle au Coudre*, about two leagues wide, the diſtance from which to the northern ſhore is a league. This iſland has a pretty even ſurface, growing narrower towards the two ends. At the weſtern end there are meadows and rocky points, which extend out ſome diſtance into the river. This iſland is very pleaſant on account of the woods ſurrounding it. It has a great deal of ſlate-rock, and the ſoil is very gravelly; at its extremity there is a rock extending half a league out into the

[147] *Saut de St. Louis*, about three leagues above Montreal.

[148] *Iſle au Lieure*. Hare Iſland, ſo named by Cartier from the great number of hares which he found there. Le ſoir feuſmes à ladicte yſle, ou trouuaſmes grand nõbre de lieures, deſquelz euſmes quãtité: & par ce la nõmaſmes l'yſle es lieures. — *Brief Récit*, par Jacques Cartier, 1545, D'Avezac ed. p. 45.

The diſtances are here overeſtimated. From Hare Iſland to the northern ſhore the diſtance is four nautical miles, and to the ſouthern ſix.

[149] The point neareſt to Hare Iſland is Cape Salmon, which is about ſix geographical miles from the Iſle au Coudres, and we ſhould here correct the error by reading not one but two leagues. The author did not probably intend to be exact.

the water. We went to the north of this iſland,[150] which is twelve leagues diſtant from Hare Iſland.

On the Thurſday following, we ſet out from here and came to anchor in a dangerous cove on the northern ſhore, where there are ſome meadows and a little river,[151] and where the ſavages ſometimes erect their cabins. The ſame day, continuing to coaſt along on the northern ſhore, we were obliged by contrary winds to put in at a place where there were many very dangerous rocks and localities. Here we ſtayed three days, waiting for fair weather. Both the northern and ſouthern ſhores here are very mountainous, reſembling in general thoſe of the Saguenay.

On Sunday, the twenty-ſecond, we ſet out for the Iſland of Orleans,[152] in the neighborhood of which are many iſlands on the ſouthern ſhore. Theſe are low and covered with trees, ſeem to be very pleaſant, and, ſo far as I could judge, ſome of them are one or two leagues and others half a league in length. About theſe iſlands there are only rocks and ſhallows, ſo that the paſſage is very dangerous.

They are diſtant ſome two leagues from the mainland on the ſouth. Thence we coaſted along the Iſland of Orleans on the ſouth. This is diſtant a league from the mainland on the north, is very pleaſant and level, and eight leagues long. The coaſt on the ſouth is low for ſome two leagues inland; the country

[150] *Iſle au Coudre.* — *Vide Brief Récit*, par Jacques Cartier, 1545, D'Avezac ed. p. 44; alſo Vol. II. of this work, p. 172. Charlevoix ſays, whether from tradition or on good authority we know not, that "in 1663 an earthquake rooted up a mountain, and threw it upon the Iſle au Coudres, which made it one-half larger than before." — *Letters to the Ducheſs of Leſdiguieres*, London, 1763, p. 15.

[151] This was probably about two leagues from the Iſle aux Coudres, where is a ſmall ſtream which ſtill bears the name La Petite Rivière.

[152] *Iſle d'Orléans.* — *Vide* Vol. II. p. 173.

country begins to be low at this iſland, which is perhaps two leagues diſtant from the ſouthern ſhore. It is very dangerous paſſing on the northern ſhore, on account of the ſand-banks and rocks between the iſland and mainland, and it is almoſt entirely dry here at low tide.

At the end of this iſland I ſaw a torrent of water[153] which deſcended from a high elevation on the River of Canada. Upon this elevation the land is uniform and pleaſant, although in the interior high mountains are ſeen ſome twenty or twenty-five leagues diſtant, and near the firſt fall of the Saguenay.

We came to anchor at Quebec, a narrow paſſage in the River of Canada, which is here ſome three hundred paces broad.[154] There is, on the northern ſide of this paſſage, a very high elevation, which falls off on two ſides. Elſewhere the country is uniform and fine, and there are good tracts full of trees, as oaks, cypreſſes, birches, firs, and aſpens, alſo wild fruit-trees and vines which, if they were cultivated, would, in my opinion, be as good as our own. Along the ſhore of Quebec, there are diamonds in ſome ſlate-rocks, which are better than thoſe of Alençon. From Quebec to Hare Iſland is a diſtance of twenty-nine leagues.

CHAPTER VI.

[153] On Champlain's map of the harbor of Quebec he calls this "torrent" *le grand ſaut de Montmorency*, the grand fall of Montmorency. It was named by Champlain himſelf, and in honor of the "noble, high, and powerful Charles de Montmorency," to whom the journal of this voyage is dedicated. The ſtream is ſhallow; "in ſome places," Charlevoix ſays, "not more than ankle deep." The grandeur or impreſſiveneſs of the fall, if either of theſe qualities can be attributed to it, ariſes from its height and not from the volume of water. — *Vide* ed. 1632, p. 123. On Bellin's Atlas Maritime, 1764, its height is put down at *ſixty-five feet*. Bayfield's Chart more correctly ſays 251 feet above high water ſpring tides. — *Vide* Vol. II. of this work, note 308.

[154] *Nous vinſmes mouiller l'ancre à Quebec, qui eſt vn deſtroict de laditt riuiere de Canadas.* Theſe words very clearly

CHAPTER VI.

OF THE POINT ST. CROIX AND THE RIVER BATISCAN. — OF THE RIVERS, ROCKS, ISLANDS, LANDS, TREES, FRUITS, VINES, AND FINE COUNTRY BETWEEN QUEBEC AND THE TROIS RIVIÉRES.

ON Monday, the 23d of this month, we ſet out from Quebec, where the river begins to widen, ſometimes to the extent of a league, then a league and a half or two leagues at moſt. The country grows finer and finer; it is everywhere low, without rocks for the moſt part. The northern ſhore is covered with rocks and ſand-banks; it is neceſſary to go along the ſouthern one about half a league from the ſhore. There are ſome ſmall rivers, not navigable, except for the canoes of the ſavages, and in which there are a great many falls. We came to anchor at St. Croix, fifteen leagues diſtant from Quebec; a low point riſing up on both ſides.[155] The country is fine and level, the ſoil being the beſt that I had ſeen, with extenſive woods, containing, however, but little fir and cypreſs. There are found there in large numbers vines, pears, hazel-nuts, cherries, red and green currants, and certain little radiſhes of the ſize of a ſmall nut, reſembling truffles in taſte, which are very good when roaſted or boiled. All this ſoil is black, without any rocks, excepting that there is

clearly define the meaning of Quebec, which is an Indian word, ſignifying a narrowing or a contraction. — *Vide* Vol. II. p. 175, note 309. The breadth of the river at this point is undereſtimated. It is not far from 1320 feet, or three-quarters of a mile.

[155] The Point of St. Croix, where they anchored, muſt have been what is now known as Point Platon. Champlain's diſtances are rough eſtimates, made under very unfavorable circumſtances, and far from accurate. Point Platon is about thirty-five miles from Quebec.

a large quantity of ſlate. The ſoil is very ſoft, and, if well cultivated, would be very productive.

On the north ſhore there is a river called Batiſcan,[156] extending a great diſtance into the interior, along which the Algonquins ſometimes come. On the ſame ſhore there is another river,[157] three leagues below St. Croix, which was as far as Jacques Cartier went up the river at the time of his explorations.[158] The above-mentioned river is pleaſant, extending a conſiderable diſtance inland. All this northern ſhore is very even and pleaſing.

On Wedneſday,[159] the 24th, we ſet out from St. Croix, where we had ſtayed over a tide and a half in order to proceed the next day by daylight, for this is a peculiar place on account of the great number of rocks in the river, which is almoſt entirely dry at low tide; but at half-flood one can begin to advance without difficulty, although it is neceſſary to keep a good watch, lead in hand. The tide riſes here nearly three fathoms and a half.

The farther we advanced, the finer the country became. After going ſome five leagues and a half, we came to anchor on the northern ſhore. On the Wedneſday following, we ſet out from this place, where the country is flatter than the preceding

[156] Champlain does not mention the rivers preciſely in their order. On his map of 1612, he has *Contree de Baſtiſquan* on the weſt of Trois Rivières. The river Batiſcan empties into the St. Lawrence about four miles weſt of the St. Anne. — *Vide Atlas Maritime*, by Bellin, 1764; *Atlas of the Dominion of Canada*, 1875.

[157] River Jacques Cartier, which is in fact about five miles eaſt of Point Platon.

[158] Jacques Cartier did, in fact, aſcend the St. Lawrence as far as Hochelaga, or Montreal. The Abbé Laverdière ſuggeſts that Champlain had not at this time ſeen the reports of Cartier. Had he ſeen them he would hardly have made this ſtatement. Pont Gravé had been here ſeveral times, and may have been Champlain's incorrect informant. *Vide Laverdière in loco.*

[159] Read Tueſday.

preceding and heavily wooded, as at St. Croix. We paſſed near a ſmall iſland covered with vines, and came to anchor on the ſouthern ſhore, near a little elevation, upon aſcending which we found a level country. There is another ſmall iſland three leagues from St. Croix, near the ſouthern ſhore.[160] We ſet out on the following Thurſday from this elevation, and paſſed by a little iſland near the northern ſhore. Here I landed at ſix or more ſmall rivers, up two of which boats can go for a conſiderable diſtance. Another is ſome three hundred feet broad, with ſome iſlands at its mouth. It extends far into the interior, and is the deepeſt of all.[161] Theſe rivers are very pleaſant, their ſhores being covered with trees which reſemble nut-trees, and have the ſame odor; but, as I ſaw no fruit, I am inclined to doubt. The ſavages told me that they bear fruit like our own.

Advancing ſtill farther, we came to an iſland called St. Éloi;[162] alſo another little iſland very near the northern ſhore. We paſſed between this iſland and the northern ſhore, the diſtance from one to the other being ſome hundred and fifty feet; that from the ſame iſland to the ſouthern ſhore, a league and a half. We paſſed alſo near a river large enough for canoes. All the northern ſhore is very good, and one can ſail along there without obſtruction; but he ſhould keep the lead in hand in order to avoid certain points. All this ſhore along

[160] Richelieu Iſland, ſo called by the French, as early as 1635, nearly oppoſite Dechambeau Point. — *Vide Laurie's Chart.* It was called St. Croix up to 1633. *Laverdière in loco.* The Indians called it *Ka ouapaſſiniſkakhi.* — *Jéſuit Relations*, 1635, p. 13.

[161] This river is now known as the Sainte Anne. Champlain ſays they named it *Rivière Saincte Marie.* — *Vide* Quebec ed. Tome III. p. 175; Vol. II. p. 201 of this work.

[162] An inconſiderable iſland near Batiſcan, not laid down on the charts.

along which we coaſted conſiſts of ſhifting ſands, but a ſhort diſtance in the interior the land is good.

The Friday following, we ſet out from this iſland, and continued to coaſt along the northern ſhore very near the land, which is low and abundant in trees of good quality as far as the Trois Rivières. Here the temperature begins to be ſomewhat different from that of St. Croix, ſince the trees are more forward here than in any other place that I had yet ſeen. From the Trois Rivières to St. Croix the diſtance is fifteen leagues. In this river [163] there are ſix iſlands, three of which are very ſmall, the others being from five to ſix hundred feet long, very pleaſant, and fertile ſo far as their ſmall extent goes. There is one of theſe in the centre of the above-mentioned river, confronting the River of Canada, and commanding a view of the others, which are diſtant from the land from four to five hundred feet on both ſides. It is high on the ſouthern ſide, but lower ſomewhat on the northern. This would be, in my judgment, a favorable place in which to make a ſettlement, and it could be eaſily fortified, for its ſituation is ſtrong of itſelf, and it is near a large lake which is only ſome four leagues diſtant. This river extends cloſe to the River Saguenay, according to the report of the ſavages, who go nearly a hundred leagues northward, paſs numerous falls, go overland ſome five or ſix leagues, enter a lake from which principally the

[168] The St. Maurice, anciently known as *Trois Riviers*, becauſe two iſlands in its mouth divide it into three channels. Its Indian name, according to Père Le Jeune, was *Metaberoutin*. It appears to be the ſame river mentioned by Cartier in his ſecond voyage, which he explored and reported as ſhallow and of no importance. He found in it four ſmall iſlands, which may afterward have been ſubdivided into ſix. He named it *La Riuiere du Fouez. — Brief Récit*, par Jacques Cartier, D'Avezac ed. p. 28. *Vide Relations des Jéſuites*, 1635, p. 13.

the Saguenay has its ſource, and thence go to Tadouſſac.[164] I think, likewiſe, that the ſettlement of the Trois Rivières would be a boon for the freedom of ſome tribes, who dare not come this way in conſequence of their enemies, the Iroquois, who occupy the entire borders of the River of Canada; but, if it were ſettled, theſe Iroquois and other ſavages could be made friendly, or, at leaſt, under the protection of this ſettlement, theſe ſavages would come freely without fear or danger, the Trois Rivières being a place of paſſage. All the land that I ſaw on the northern ſhore is ſandy. We aſcended this river for about a league, not being able to proceed farther on account of the ſtrong current. We continued on in a ſkiff, for the ſake of obſervation, but had not gone more than a league when we encountered a very narrow fall, about twelve feet wide, on account of which we could not go farther. All the country that I ſaw on the borders of this river becomes conſtantly more mountainous, and contains a great many firs and cypreſſes, but few trees of other kinds.

CHAPTER VII.

[164] An eaſtern branch of the St. Maurice River riſes in a ſmall lake, from which Lake St. John, which is an affluent of the Saguenay, may be reached by a land portage of not more than five or ſix leagues.

CHAPTER VII.

LENGTH, BREADTH, AND DEPTH OF A LAKE. — OF THE RIVERS THAT FLOW INTO IT, AND THE ISLANDS IT CONTAINS. — CHARACTER OF THE SURROUNDING COUNTRY. — OF THE RIVER OF THE IROQUOIS AND THE FORTRESS OF THE SAVAGES WHO MAKE WAR UPON THEM.

ON the Saturday following, we ſet out from the Trois Rivières, and came to anchor at a lake four leagues diſtant. All this region from the Trois Rivières to the entrance to the lake is low and on a level with the water, though ſomewhat higher on the ſouth ſide. The land is very good and the pleaſanteſt yet ſeen by us. The woods are very open, ſo that one could eaſily make his way through them.

The next day, the 29th of June,[165] we entered the lake, which is ſome fifteen leagues long and ſeven or eight wide.[166] About a league from its entrance, and on the ſouth ſide, is a river[167] of conſiderable ſize and extending into the interior ſome ſixty or eighty leagues. Farther on, on the ſame ſide, there is another ſmall river, extending about two leagues inland, and, far in, another little lake, which has a length of perhaps

[165] They entered the lake on St. Peter's day, the 29th of June, and, for this reaſon doubtleſs, it was ſubſequently named Lake St. Peter, which name it ſtill retains. It was at firſt called Lake Angoulême. — *Vide* marginal note in Hakluyt, Vol. III. p. 271. Laverdière cites Thévet to the ſame effect.

[166] From the point at which the river flows into the lake to its exit, the diſtance is about twenty-ſeven miles and its width about ſeven miles. Champlain's diſtances, founded upon rough eſtimates made on a firſt voyage of difficult navigation, are exceedingly inaccurate, and, independent of other data, cannot be relied upon for the identification of localities.

[167] The author appears to have confuſed the relative ſituations of the two rivers here mentioned. The ſmaller one ſhould, we think, have been mentioned firſt. The larger one was plainly the St. Francis, and the ſmaller one the Nicolette.

perhaps three or four leagues.[168] On the northern ſhore, where the land appears very high, you can ſee for ſome twenty leagues; but the mountains grow gradually ſmaller towards the weſt, which has the appearance of being a flat region. The ſavages ſay that on theſe mountains the land is for the moſt part poor. The lake above mentioned is ſome three fathoms deep where we paſſed, which was nearly in the middle. Its longitudinal direction is from eaſt to weſt, and its lateral one from north to ſouth. I think that it muſt contain good fiſh, and ſuch varieties as we have at home. We paſſed through it this day, and came to anchor about two leagues up the river, which extends its courſe farther on, at the entrance to which there are thirty little iſlands.[169] From what I could obſerve, ſome are two leagues in extent, others a league and a half, and ſome leſs. They contain numerous nut-trees, which are but little different from our own, and, as I am inclined to think, the nuts are good in their ſeaſon. I ſaw a great many of them under the trees, which were of two kinds, ſome ſmall, and others an inch long; but they were decayed. There are alſo a great many vines on the ſhores of theſe iſlands, moſt of which, however, when the waters are high, are ſubmerged. The country here is ſuperior to any I have yet ſeen.

The laſt day of June, we ſet out from here and went to the

[168] This would ſeem to be the *Baie la Vallière*, at the ſouthweſtern extremity of Lake St. Peter.

[169] The author here refers to the iſlands at the weſtern extremity of Lake St. Peter, which are very numerous. On Charlevoix's Carte de la Rivière de Richelieu they are called *Iſles de Richelieu*. The more prominent are Monk Iſland, Iſle de Grace, Bear Iſland, Iſle St. Ignace, and Iſle du Pas. Champlain refers to theſe iſlands again in 1609, with perhaps a fuller deſcription. —*Vide* Vol. II. p. 206.

the entrance of the River of the Iroquois,[170] where the ſavages were encamped and fortified who were on their way to make war with the former.[171] Their fortreſs is made of a large number of ſtakes cloſely preſſed againſt each other. It borders on one ſide on the ſhore of the great river, on the other on that of the River of the Iroquois. Their canoes are drawn up by the ſide of each other on the ſhore, ſo that they may be able to flee quickly in caſe of a ſurpriſe from the Iroquois; for their fortreſs is covered with oak bark, and ſerves only to give them time to take to their boats.

We went up the River of the Iroquois ſome five or ſix leagues, but, becauſe of the ſtrong current, could not proceed farther in our barque, which we were alſo unable to drag overland, on account of the large number of trees on the ſhore. Finding that we could not proceed farther, we took our ſkiff to ſee if the current were leſs ſtrong above; but, on advancing ſome two leagues, we found it ſtill ſtronger, and were unable to go any farther.[172] As we could do nothing elſe, we returned in our barque. This entire river is ſome three to four hundred paces broad, and very unobſtructed. We ſaw there five iſlands, diſtant from each other a quarter or half a league, or at moſt a league, one of which, the neareſt, is a league long, the others being very ſmall. All

[170] The Richelieu, flowing from Lake Champlain to the St. Lawrence. For deſcription of this river, ſee Vol. II. p. 210, note 337. In 1535 the Indians at Montreal pointed out this river as leading to Florida. — *Vide Brief Récit*, par Jacques Cartier, 1545, D'Avezac ed.

[171] The Hurons, Algonquins, and Montagnais were at war with the Iroquois, and the ſavages aſſembled here were compoſed of ſome or all of theſe tribes.

[172] The rapids in the river here were too ſtrong for the French barque, or even the ſkiff, but were not difficult to paſs with the Indian canoe, as was fully proved in 1609. — *Vide* Vol. II. p. 207 of this work.

All this country is heavily wooded and low, like that which I had before ſeen; but there are more firs and cypreſſes than in other places. The ſoil is good, although a little ſandy. The direction of this river is about ſouthweſt.[173]

The ſavages ſay that ſome fifteen leagues from where we had been there is a fall [174] of great length, around which they carry their canoes about a quarter of a league, when they enter a lake, at the entrance to which there are three iſlands, with others farther in. It may be ſome forty or fifty leagues long and ſome twenty-five wide, into which as many as ten rivers flow, up which canoes can go for a conſiderable diſtance.[175] Then, at the other end of this lake, there is another fall, when another lake is entered, of the ſame ſize as the former,[176] at the extremity of which the Iroquois are encamped. They ſay alſo that there is a river [177] extending to the coaſt of Florida, a diſtance of perhaps ſome hundred or hundred and forty leagues from the latter lake. All the country of the Iroquois is ſomewhat mountainous, but has a very good ſoil, the climate being moderate, without much winter.

CHAPTER VIII.

[173] The courſe of the Richelieu is nearly from the ſouth to the north.

[174] The rapids of Chambly.

[175] Lake Champlain, diſcovered by him in 1609. — *Vide* Vol. II. ch. ix.

[176] Lake George. Champlain either did not comprehend his Indian informants, or they greatly exaggerated the comparative ſize of this lake.

[177] The Hudſon River. — *Vide* Vol. II. p. 218, note 347.

CHAPTER VIII.

ARRIVAL AT THE FALL. — DESCRIPTION OF THE SAME AND ITS REMARKABLE CHARACTER. — REPORTS OF THE SAVAGES IN REGARD TO THE END OF THE GREAT RIVER.

SETTING out from the River of the Iroquois, we came to anchor three leagues from there, on the northern ſhore. All this country is low, and filled with the various kinds of trees which I have before mentioned.

On the firſt day of July we coaſted along the northern ſhore, where the woods are very open; more ſo than in any place we had before ſeen. The ſoil is alſo everywhere favorable for cultivation.

I went in a canoe to the ſouthern ſhore, where I ſaw a large number of iſlands,[178] which abound in fruits, ſuch as grapes, walnuts, hazel-nuts, a kind of fruit reſembling cheſtnuts, and cherries; alſo in oaks, aſpens, poplar, hops, aſh, maple, beech, cypreſs, with but few pines and firs. There were, moreover, other fine-looking trees, with which I am not acquainted. There are alſo a great many ſtrawberries, raſpberries, and currants, red, green, and blue, together with numerous ſmall fruits which grow in thick graſs. There are alſo many wild beaſts, ſuch as orignacs, ſtags, hinds, does, bucks, bears, porcupines, hares, foxes, beavers, otters, muſkrats, and ſome other kinds of animals with which I am not acquainted, which are good to eat, and on which the ſavages ſubſiſt.[179]

We

[178] Iſle Plat, and at leaſt ten other iſlets along the ſhore before reaching the Verchères. — *Vide* Laurie's Chart.

[179] The reader will obſerve that the catalogue of fruits, trees, and animals mentioned above, includes only ſuch as are

We paſſed an iſland having a very pleaſant appearance, ſome

are important in commerce. They are, we think, without an exception, of American ſpecies, and, conſequently, the names given by Champlain are not accurately deſcriptive. We notice them in order, and in italics give the name aſſigned by Champlain in the text.

Grapes. *Vignes*, probably the froſt grape, *Vitis cordifolia*. — Pickering's *Chronological Hiſtory of Plants*, p. 875.

Walnuts. *Noix*, this name is given in France to what is known in commerce as the Engliſh or European walnut, *Juglans regia*, a Perſian fruit now cultivated in moſt countries in Europe. For want of a better, Champlain uſed this name to ſignify probably the butternut, *Juglans cinerea*, and five varieties of the hickory; the ſhag-bark, *Carya alba*, the mocker-nut, *Carya tomentoſa*, the ſmall-fruited *Carya microcarpa*, the pig-nut, *Carya glabra*, bitter-nut, *Carya amara*, all of which are excluſively American fruits, and are ſtill found in the valley of the St. Lawrence. — *MS. Letter of J. M. Le Moine*, of Quebec; Jeffrie's *Natural Hiſtory of French Dominions in America*, London, 1760, p. 41.

Hazel-nuts, *noyſettes*. The American filbert or hazel-nut, *Corylus Americana*. The flavor is fine, but the fruit is ſmaller and the ſhell thicker than that of the European filbert.

"Kind of fruit reſembling cheſtnuts." This was probably the cheſtnut, *Caſtanea Americana*. The fruit much reſembles the European, but is ſmaller and ſweeter.

Cherries, *ceriſes*. Three kinds may here be included, the wild red cherry, *Prunus Pennſylvanica*, the choke cherry, *Prunus Virginiana*, and the wild black cherry, *Prunus ſerotina*.

Oaks, *cheſnes*. Probably the more noticeable varieties, as the white oak, *Quercus alba*, and red oak, *Quercus rubra*.

Aſpens, *trembles*. The American aſpen, *Populus tremuloides*.

Poplar, *pible*. For *piboule*, as ſuggeſted by Laverdière, a variety of poplar.

Hops, *houblon*. *Humulus lupulus*, found in northern climates, differing from the hop of commerce, which was imported from Europe.

Aſh, *freſne*. The white aſh, *Fraxinus Americana*, and black aſh, *Fraxinus ſambucifolia*.

Maple, *érable*. The tree here obſerved was probably the rock or ſugar maple, *Acer ſaccharinum*. Several other ſpecies belong to this region.

Beech, *heſtre*. The American beech, *Fagus ferruginea*, of which there is but one ſpecies. — *Vide*, Vol. II. p. 113, note 205.

Cypreſs, *cyprez*. — *Vide antea*, note 135.

Strawberry, *fraiſes*. The wild ſtrawberry, *Fragaria veſca*, and *Fragaria Virginiana*, both ſpecies, are found in this region. — *Vide* Pickering's *Chronological Hiſtory of Plants*, p. 873.

Raſpberries, *framboiſes*. The American raſpberry, *Rubus ſtrigoſus*.

Currants, red, green, and blue, *groizelles rouges*, *vertes*, and *bleues*. The firſt mentioned is undoubtedly the red currant of our gardens, *Ribes rubrum*. The ſecond may have been the unripe fruit of the former. The third doubtleſs the black currant, *Ribes nigrum*, which grows throughout Canada. — *Vide Chronological Hiſtory of Plants*, Pickering, p. 871; also Vol. II. note 138.

Orignas, ſo written in the original text. This is, I think, the earlieſt mention of this animal under this Algonquin name. It was written, by the French, ſometimes *orignac*, *orignat*, and *original*. — *Vide Jeſuit Relations*, 1635, p. 16; 1636, p. 11, *et paſſim;* Sagard, *Hiſt. du Canada*, 1636, p. 749; *Deſcription de*

ſome four leagues long and about half a league wide.[180] I ſaw

de l'Amerique, par Denys, 1672, p. 27. *Orignac* was uſed interchangeably with *élan*, the name of the elk of northern Europe, regarded by ſome as the ſame ſpecies. — *Vide Mammals*, by Spenſer F. Baird. But the *orignac* of Champlain was the mooſe, *Alce Americanus*, peculiar to the northern latitudes of America. Mooſe is derived from the Indian word *mooſŏă*. This animal is the largeſt of the *Cervus* family. The males are ſaid to attain the weight of eleven or twelve hundred pounds. Its horns ſometimes weigh fifty or ſixty pounds. It is exceedingly ſhy and difficult to capture.

Stags, *cerfs*. This is undoubtedly a reference to the caribou, *Cervus tarandus*. Sagard (1636) calls it *Caribou ou aſne Sauuages*, caribou or wilde aſs. — *Hiſt. du Canada*, p. 750. La Hontan, 1686, ſays harts and caribous are killed both in ſummer and winter after the ſame manner with the elks (mooſes), excepting that the caribous, which are a kind of wild aſſes, make an eaſy eſcape when the ſnow is hard by virtue of their broad feet (Voyages, p. 59). There are two varieties, the *Cervus tarandus arcticus* and the *Cervus tarandus ſylveſtris*. The latter is that here referred to and the larger and finer animal, and is ſtill found in the foreſts of Canada.

Hinds, *biches*, the female of *cerfs*, and does, *dains*, the female of *daim*, the fallow deer. Theſe may refer to the females of the two preceding ſpecies, or to additional ſpecies as the common red deer, *Cervus Virginianus*, and ſome other ſpecies or variety. La Hontan in the paſſage cited above ſpeaks of three, the *elk* which we have ſhown to be the mooſe, the well-known *caribou*, and the *hart*, which was undoubtedly the common red deer of this region, *Cervus Virginianus*. I learn from Mr. J. M. LeMoine of Quebec, that the Wapiti, *Elaphus Canadenſis* was found in the valley of the St. Lawrence a hundred and forty years ago, ſeveral horns and bones having been dug up in the foreſt, eſpecially in the Ottawa diſtrict. It is now extinct here, but is ſtill found in the neighborhood of Lake Winipeg and further weſt. Cartier, in 1535, ſpeaks of *dains* and *cerfs*, doubtleſs referring to different ſpecies. — *Vide Brief Récit*, D'Avezac ed. p. 31 *verſo*.

Bears, *ours*. The American black bear, *Urſus Americanus*. The griſly bear, *Urſus ferox*, was found on the Iſland of Anticoſti. — *Vide Hiſt. du Canada*, par Sagard, 1636, pp. 148, 750. *La Hontan's Voyages*, 1687, p. 66.

Porcupines, *porc-eſpics*. The Canada porcupine, *Hyſtrix piloſus*. A nocturnal rodent quadruped, armed with barbed quills, his chief defence when attacked by other animals.

Hares, *lapins*. The American hare, *Lepus Americanus*.

Foxes, *reynards*. Of the fox, *Canis vulpes*, there are ſeveral ſpecies in Canada. The moſt common is of a carroty red color, *Vulpes fulvus*. The American croſs fox, *Canis decuſſatus*, and the black or ſilver fox, *Canis argentatus*, are varieties that may have been found there at that period, but are now rarely if ever seen.

Beavers, *caſtors*. The American beaver, *Caſtor Americanus*. The fur of the beaver was of all others the moſt important in the commerce of New France.

Otters, *loutres*. This has reference only to the river otter, *Lutra Canadenſis*. The ſea otter, *Lutra marina*, is only

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[180] The Verchères.

found

ſaw on the ſouthern ſhore two high mountains, which appeared to be ſome twenty leagues in the interior.[181] The ſavages told me that this was the firſt fall of the River of the Iroquois.

On Wedneſday following, we ſet out from this place, and made ſome five or ſix leagues. We ſaw numerous iſlands; the land on them was low, and they were covered with trees like thoſe of the River of the Iroquois. On the following day we advanced ſome few leagues, and paſſed by a great number of iſlands,[182] beautiful on account of the many meadows, which are likewiſe to be ſeen on the mainland as well as on the iſlands. The trees here are all very ſmall in compariſon with thoſe we had already paſſed.

We arrived finally, on the ſame day, having a fair wind, at the entrance to the fall. We came to an iſland almoſt in the middle of this entrance, which is a quarter of a league long.[183] We paſſed to the ſouth of it, where there were from three to five feet of water only, with a fathom or two in ſome places, after which we found ſuddenly only three or four feet. There are many rocks and little iſlands without any wood at all, and on a level with the water. From the lower extremity of the above-mentioned iſland in the middle of the entrance, the water begins to come with great force. Although we

found in America on the north-weſt Pacific coaſt.

Muſkrat, *rats muſquets*. The muſkrat, *Fiber zibethecus*, ſometimes called muſquaſh from the Algonquin word, *m∞ſk∞éſſ∞*, is found in three varieties, the black, and rarely the pied and white. For a deſcription of this animal *vide Le Jeune, Jésuit Relations*, 1635, pp. 18, 19.

[181] Summits of the Green Mountains.

[182] From the Verchères to Montreal, the St. Lawrence is full of iſlands, among them St. Thereſe and nameleſs others.

[183] This was the Iſland of St. Hélène, a favorite name given to ſeveral other places. He ſubſequently called it St. Hélène, probably from Hélène Boullé, his wife. Between it and the mainland on the north flows the *Rapide de Ste. Marie. — Vide Laurie's Chart.*

we had a very favorable wind, yet we could not, in ſpite of all our efforts, advance much. Still, we paſſed this iſland at the entrance of the fall. Finding that we could not proceed, we came to anchor on the northern ſhore, oppoſite a little iſland, which abounds in moſt of the fruits before mentioned.[184] We at once got our ſkiff ready, which had been expreſſly made for paſſing this fall, and Sieur Du Pont Gravé and myſelf embarked in it, together with ſome ſavages whom we had brought to ſhow us the way. After leaving our barque, we had not gone three hundred feet before we had to get out, when ſome ſailors got into the water and dragged our ſkiff over. The canoe of the ſavages went over eaſily. We encountered a great number of little rocks on a level with the water, which we frequently ſtruck.

There are here two large iſlands; one on the northern ſide, ſome fifteen leagues long and almoſt as broad,[185] begins in the River of Canada, ſome twelve leagues towards the River of the Iroquois, and terminates beyond the fall. The iſland on the ſouth ſhore is ſome four leagues long and half a league wide.[186] There is, beſides, another iſland[187] near that on the north, which is perhaps half a league long and a quarter wide. There is ſtill another ſmall iſland between that on the north and the other farther ſouth, where we paſſed the entrance to the fall.[188] This being paſſed, there is a kind of

[184] This landing was on the preſent ſite of the city of Montreal, and the little iſland, according to Laverdière, is now joined to the mainland by quays.

[185] The iſland of Montreal, here referred to, not including the Iſle Jéſus, is about thirty miles long and nine miles in its greateſt width.

[186] The Iſle Perrot is about ſeven or eight miles long and about three miles wide.

[187] Iſland of St. Paul, ſometimes called Nuns' Iſland.

[188] Round Iſland, ſituated juſt below St. Hélène's, on the eaſt, ſay about fifty yards diſtant.

of lake, in which are all theſe iſlands, and which is ſome five leagues long and almoſt as wide, and which contains a large number of little iſlands or rocks. Near the fall there is a mountain,[189] viſible at a conſiderable diſtance, alſo a ſmall river coming from this mountain and falling into the lake.[190] On the ſouth, ſome three or four mountains are ſeen, which ſeem to be fifteen or ſixteen leagues off in the interior. There are alſo two rivers; the one[191] reaching to the firſt lake of the River of the Iroquois, along which the Algonquins ſometimes go to make war upon them, the other near the fall and extending ſome feet inland.[192]

On approaching this fall[193] with our little ſkiff and the canoe, I ſaw, to my aſtoniſhment, a torrent of water deſcending with an impetuoſity ſuch as I have never before witneſſed, although it is not very high, there being in ſome places only a fathom or two, and at moſt but three. It deſcends

[189] The mountain in the rear of the city of Montreal, 700 feet in height, diſcovered in October, 1535, by Jacques Cartier, to which he gave the name after which the city is called. "Nous nomaſmes la dicte montaigne le mont Royal." — *Brief Récit*, 1545, D'Avezac's ed. p. 23. When Cartier made his viſit to this place in 1535, he found on or near the ſite of the preſent city of Montreal the famous Indian town called *Hochelaga*. Champlain does not ſpeak of it in the text, and it had of courſe entirely diſappeared. — *Vide* Cartier's deſcription in *Brief Récit*, above cited.

[190] Riviére St. Pierre. This little river is formed by two ſmall ſtreams flowing one from the north and the other from the ſouth ſide of the mountain. Bellin and Charlevoix denominate it *La Petite Rivière*. Theſe ſmall ſtreams do not appear on modern maps, and have probably now entirely diſappeared. — *Vide Charlevoix's Carte de l'Iſle de Montreal; Atlas Maritime*, par Sieur Bellin; likewiſe *Atlas of the Dominion of Canada*, 1875.

[191] The River St. Lambert, according to Laverdière, a ſmall ſtream from which by a ſhort portage the Indian with his canoe could eaſily reach Little River, which flows into the baſin of Chambly, the lake referred to by Champlain. This was the route of the Algonquins, at leaſt on their return from their raids upon the Iroquois. — *Vide* Vol. II. p. 225.

[192] Laverdière ſuppoſes this inſignificant ſtream to be La rivière de la Tortue.

[193] The Falls of St. Louis, or the Lachine rapids.

ſcends as if by ſteps, and at each deſcent there is a remarkable boiling, owing to the force and ſwiftneſs with which the water traverſes the fall, which is about a league in length. There are many rocks on all ſides, while near the middle there are ſome very narrow and long iſlands. There are rapids not only by the ſide of thoſe iſlands on the ſouth ſhore, but alſo by thoſe on the north, and they are ſo dangerous that it is beyond the power of man to paſs through with a boat, however ſmall. We went by land through the woods a diſtance of a league, for the purpoſe of ſeeing the end of the falls, where there are no more rocks or rapids; but the water here is ſo ſwift that it could not be more ſo, and this current continues three or four leagues; ſo that it is impoſſible to imagine one's being able to go by boats through theſe falls. But any one deſiring to paſs them, ſhould provide himſelf with the canoe of the ſavages, which a man can eaſily carry. For to make a portage by boat could not be done in a ſufficiently brief time to enable one to return to France, if he deſired to winter there. Beſides this firſt fall, there are ten others, for the moſt part hard to paſs; ſo that it would be a matter of great difficulty and labor to ſee and do by boat what one might propoſe to himſelf, except at great coſt, and the riſk of working in vain. But in the canoes of the ſavages one can go without reſtraint, and quickly, everywhere, in the ſmall as well as large rivers. So that, by uſing canoes as the ſavages do, it would be poſſible to ſee all there is, good and bad, in a year or two.

The territory on the ſide of the fall where we went overland conſiſts, ſo far as we ſaw it, of very open woods, where one can go with his armor without much difficulty. The air

is

is milder and the ſoil better than in any place I have before ſeen. There are extenſive woods and numerous fruits, as in all the places before mentioned. It is in latitude 45° and ſome minutes.

Finding that we could not advance farther, we returned to our barque, where we aſked our ſavages in regard to the continuation of the river, which I directed them to indicate with their hands; ſo, alſo, in what direction its ſource was. They told us that, after paſſing the firſt fall,[194] which we had ſeen, they go up the river ſome ten or fifteen leagues with their canoes,[195] extending to the region of the Algonquins, ſome ſixty leagues diſtant from the great river, and that they then paſs five falls, extending, perhaps, eight leagues from the firſt to the laſt, there being two where they are obliged to carry their canoes.[196] The extent of each fall may be an eighth of a league, or a quarter at moſt. After this, they enter a lake,[197] perhaps ſome fifteen or ſixteen leagues long. Beyond this they enter a river a league broad, and in which they go ſeveral leagues.[198] Then they enter another lake ſome four or five leagues long.[199] After reaching the end of this, they paſs five other falls,[200] the diſtance from the firſt to the laſt being about twenty-five or thirty leagues. Three

194 Lachine Rapids.

195 Paſſing through Lake St. Louis, they come to the River Ottawa, ſometimes called the River of the Algonquins.

196 The Caſcades, Cedres and Rapids du Côteau du Lac with ſubdiviſions. *Laverdière.* La Hontan mentions four rapids between Lake St. Louis and St. Francis, as *Caſcades*, *Le Cataracte du Trou*, *Sauts des Cedres*, and *du Buiſſon.*

197 Lake St. Francis, about twenty-five miles long.

198 Long Saut.

199 Hardly a lake but rather the river uninterrupted by falls or rapids.

200 The ſmaller rapids, the Galops, Point Cardinal, and others.—*Vide* La Hontan's deſcription of his paſſage up this river, *New Voyages to N. America*, London, 1735. Vol. I. p. 30.

Three of theſe they paſs by carrying their canoes, and the other two by dragging them in the water, the current not being ſo ſtrong nor bad as in the caſe of the others. Of all theſe falls, none is ſo difficult to paſs as the one we ſaw. Then they come to a lake ſome eighty leagues long,[201] with a great many iſlands; the water at its extremity being freſh and the winter mild. At the end of this lake they paſs a fall,[202] ſomewhat high and with but little water flowing over. Here they carry their canoes overland about a quarter of a league, in order to paſs the fall, afterwards entering another lake[203] ſome ſixty leagues long, and containing very good water. Having reached the end, they come to a ſtrait[204] two leagues broad and extending a conſiderable diſtance into the interior. They ſaid they had never gone any farther, nor ſeen the end of a lake[205] ſome fifteen or ſixteen leagues diſtant from where they had been, and that thoſe relating this to them had not ſeen any one who had ſeen it; that ſince it was ſo large, they would not venture out upon it, for fear

[201] Lake Ontario. It is one hundred and eighty miles long. — *Garneau.*

[202] Niagara Falls. Champlain does not appear to have obtained from the Indians any adequate idea of the grandeur and magnificence of this fall. The expreſſion, *qui eſt quelque peu éleué, où il y a peu d'eau, laquelle deſcend*, would imply that it was of moderate if not of an inferior character. This may have ariſen from the want of a ſuitable medium of communication, but it is more likely that the intenſely practical nature of the Indian did not enable him to appreciate or even obſerve the beauties by which he was ſurrounded. The immenſe volume of water and the perpendicular fall of 160 feet render it unſurpaſſed in grandeur by any other cataract in the world. Although Champlain appears never to have ſeen this fall, he had evidently obtained a more accurate deſcription of it before 1629. — *Vide* note No. 90 to map in ed. 1632.

[203] Lake Erie, 250 miles long. — *Garneau.*

[204] Detroit river, or the ſtrait which connects Lake Erie and Lake St. Clair. — *Atlas of the Dominion of Canada.*

[205] Lake Huron, denominated on early maps *Mer Douce*, the ſweet ſea of which the knowledge of the Indian guides was very imperfect.

fear of being ſurpriſed by a tempeſt or gale. They ſay that in ſummer the ſun ſets north of this lake, and in winter about the middle; that the water there is very bad, like that of this ſea.[206]

I aſked them whether from this laſt lake, which they had ſeen, the water deſcended continuouſly in the river extending to Gaſpé. They ſaid no; that it was from the third lake only that the water came to Gaſpé, but that beyond the laſt fall, which is of conſiderable extent, as I have ſaid, the water was almoſt ſtill, and that this lake might take its courſe by other rivers extending inland either to the north or ſouth, of which there are a large number there, and of which they do not ſee the end. Now, in my judgment, if ſo many rivers flow into this lake, it muſt of neceſſity be that, having ſo ſmall a diſcharge at this fall, it ſhould flow off into ſome very large river. But what leads me to believe that there is no river through which this lake flows, as would be expected, in view of the large number of rivers that flow into it, is the fact that the ſavages have not ſeen any river taking its courſe into the interior, except at the place where they have been. This leads me to believe that it is the ſouth ſea which is ſalt, as they ſay. But one is not to attach credit to this opinion without more complete evidence than the little adduced.

This is all that I have actually ſeen reſpecting this matter, or heard from the ſavages in reſponſe to our interrogatories.

CHAPTER IX.

[206] The Indians with whom Champlain came in contact on this haſty viſit in 1603 appear to have had ſome notion of a ſalt ſea, or as they ſay water that is very bad like the ſea, lying in an indefinite region, which neither they nor their friends had ever viſited. The ſalt ſea to which they occaſionally referred was probably Hudſon's Bay, of which ſome knowledge may have been tranſmitted from the tribes dwelling near it to others more remote, and thus paſſing from tribe to tribe till it reached, in rather an indefinite ſhape, thoſe dwelling on the St. Lawrence.

CHAPTER IX.

RETURN FROM THE FALL TO TADOUSSAC. — TESTIMONY OF SEVERAL SAVAGES IN REGARD TO THE LENGTH AND COMMENCEMENT OF THE GREAT RIVER OF CANADA, NUMBER OF THE FALLS, AND THE LAKES WHICH IT TRAVERSES.

WE ſet out from the fall on Friday, the fourth of June,[207] and returned the ſame day to the river of the Iroquois. On Sunday, the ſixth of June, we ſet out from here, and came to anchor at the lake. On Monday following, we came to anchor at the Trois Rivières. The ſame day, we made ſome four leagues beyond the Trois Rivières. The following Tueſday we reached Quebec, and the next day the end of the iſland of Orleans, where the Indians, who were encamped on the mainland to the north, came to us. We queſtioned two or three Algonquins, in order to aſcertain whether they would agree with thoſe whom we had interrogated in regard to the extent and commencement of the River of Canada.

They ſaid, indicating it by ſigns, that two or three leagues after paſſing the fall which we had ſeen, there is, on the northern ſhore, a river in their territory; that, continuing in the ſaid great river, they paſs a fall, where they carry their canoes; that they then paſs five other falls compriſing, from the firſt to the laſt, ſome nine or ten leagues, and that theſe falls are not hard to paſs, as they drag their canoes in the moſt

[207] As they were at Lake St. Peter on the 29th of June, it is plain that this ſhould read *July*.

moſt of them, except at two, where they carry them. After that, they enter a river which is a ſort of lake, compriſing ſome ſix or ſeven leagues; and then they paſs five other falls, where they drag their canoes as before, except at two, where they carry them as at the firſt; and that, from the firſt to the laſt, there are ſome twenty or twenty-five leagues. Then they enter a lake ſome hundred and fifty leagues in length, and ſome four or five leagues from the entrance of this lake there is a river [208] extending northward to the Algonquins, and another towards the Iroquois,[209] where the ſaid Algonquins and the Iroquois make war upon each other. And a little farther along, on the ſouth ſhore of this lake, there is another river,[210] extending towards the Iroquois; then, arriving at the end of this lake, they come to another fall, where they carry their canoes; beyond this, they enter another very large lake, as long, perhaps, as the firſt. The latter they have viſited but very little, they ſaid, and have heard that, at the end of it, there is a ſea of which they have not ſeen the end, nor heard that any one has, but that the water at the point to which they have gone is not ſalt, but that they are not able to judge of the water beyond, ſince they have not advanced any farther; that the courſe of the water is from the weſt towards the eaſt, and that they do not know whether, beyond the lakes they have ſeen, there is another watercourſe towards the weſt; that the ſun ſets on the right of this lake; that is, in my judgment, northweſt more or leſs; and that, at the firſt lake, the water never freezes, which leads

[208] This river extending north from Lake Ontario is the river-like Bay of Quinté.

[209] The Oſwego River.

[210] The Geneſee River, after which they come to Niagara Falls.

leads me to conclude that the weather there is moderate.[211] They ſaid, moreover, that all the territory of the Algonquins is low land, containing but little wood; but that on the ſide of the Iroquois the land is mountainous, although very good and productive, and better than in any place they had ſeen. The Iroquois dwell ſome fifty or ſixty leagues from this great lake. This is what they told me they had ſeen, which differs but very little from the ſtatement of the former ſavages.

On the ſame day we went about three leagues, nearly to the Iſle aux Coudres. On Thurſday, the tenth of the month, we came within about a league and a half of Hare Iſland, on the north ſhore, where other Indians came to our barque, among whom was a young Algonquin who had travelled a great deal in the aforeſaid great lake. We queſtioned him very particularly, as we had the other ſavages. He told us that, ſome two or three leagues beyond the fall we had ſeen, there is a river extending to the place where the Algonquins dwell, and that, proceeding up the great river, there are five falls, ſome eight or nine leagues from the firſt to the laſt, paſt three of which they carry their canoes, and in the other two drag them; that each one of theſe falls is, perhaps, a quarter of a league long. Then they enter a lake ſome fifteen leagues in extent, after which they paſs five other falls, extending from the firſt to the laſt ſome twenty to twenty-five leagues, only two of which they paſs in their canoes, while at the three others they drag them. After this, they enter a very large lake, ſome three hundred leagues in length.

Proceeding

[211] We can eaſily recognize Lake Ontario, Lake Erie and Niagara Falls, although this account is exceedingly confuſed and inaccurate.

Proceeding ſome hundred leagues in this lake, they come to a very large iſland, beyond which the water is good; but that, upon going ſome hundred leagues farther, the water has become ſomewhat bad, and, upon reaching the end of the lake, it is perfectly ſalt. That there is a fall about a league wide, where a very large maſs of water falls into ſaid lake; that, when this fall is paſſed, one ſees no more land on either ſide, but only a ſea ſo large that they have never ſeen the end of it, nor heard that any one has; that the ſun ſets on the right of this lake, at the entrance to which there is a river extending towards the Algonquins, and another towards the Iroquois, by way of which they go to war; that the country of the Iroquois is ſomewhat mountainous, though very fertile, there being there a great amount of Indian corn and other products which they do not have in their own country. That the territory of the Algonquins is low and fertile.

I aſked them whether they had knowledge of any mines. They told us that there was a nation called the good Iroquois,[212] who come to barter for the articles of merchandiſe which the French veſſels furniſh the Algonquins, who ſay that, towards the north, there is a mine of pure copper, ſome bracelets made from which they ſhowed us, which they had obtained from the good Iroquois;[213] that, if we wiſhed to

[212] Reference is here made to the Hurons who were nearly related to the Iroquois. They were called by the French the good Iroquois in diſtinction from the Iroquois in the State of New York, with whom they were at war.

[213] A ſpecimen of pure copper was ſubſequently preſented to Champlain. — Vol. II. p. 236: *Vide* a brochure on *Pre-hiſtoric Copper Implements*, by the editor, reprinted from the New England Hiſtorical and Genealogical Regiſter for Jan. 1879; alſo reprinted in the Collections of Wis. Hiſt. Soc., Vol. VIII. 1880.

to go there, they would guide thoſe who might be deputed for this object.

This is all that I have been able to aſcertain from all parties, their ſtatements differing but little from each other, except that the ſecond ones who were interrogated ſaid that they had never drunk ſalt water; whence it appears that they had not proceeded ſo far in ſaid lake as the others. They differ, alſo, but little in reſpect to the diſtance, ſome making it ſhorter and others longer; ſo that, according to their ſtatement, the diſtance from the fall where we had been to the ſalt ſea, which is poſſibly the South Sea, is ſome four hundred leagues. It is not to be doubted, then, according to their ſtatement, that this is none other than the South Sea, the ſun ſetting where they ſay.

On Friday, the tenth of this month,[214] we returned to Tadouſſac, where our veſſel lay.

CHAPTER X.

VOYAGE FROM TADOUSSAC TO ISLE PERCÉE.— DESCRIPTION OF MOLUËS BAY, THE ISLAND OF BONAVENTURE, BAY OF CHALEUR: ALSO SEVERAL RIVERS, LAKES, AND COUNTRIES WHERE THERE ARE VARIOUS KINDS OF MINES.

AT once, after arriving at Tadouſſac, we embarked for Gaſpé, about a hundred leagues diſtant. On the thirteenth day of the month, we met a troop of ſavages encamped on the ſouth ſhore, nearly half way between Tadouſſac and Gaſpé. The name of the Sagamore who led them is Armouchides, who is

[214] Friday, July 11th.

is regarded as one of the moſt intelligent and daring of the ſavages. He was going to Tadouſſac to barter their arrows and orignac meat[215] for beavers and martens[216] with the Montagnais, Etechemins, and Algonquins.

On the 15th day of the month we arrived at Gaſpé, ſituated on the northern ſhore of a bay, and about a league and a half from the entrance. This bay is ſome ſeven or eight leagues long, and four leagues broad at its entrance. There is a river there extending ſome thirty leagues inland.[217] Then we ſaw another bay, called *Moluës Bay*,[218] ſome three leagues long and as many wide at its entrance. Thence we come to Iſle Percée,[219] a ſort of rock, which is very high and ſteep on two ſides, with a hole through which ſhallops and boats can paſs at high tide. At low tide, you can go from the mainland to this iſland, which is only ſome four or five hundred feet diſtant. There is alſo another iſland, about a league ſoutheaſt of Iſle Percée, called the Iſland of Bonaventure, which is, perhaps, half a league long. Gaſpé, Moluës Bay, and Iſle Percée are all places where dry and green fiſhing is carried on.

Beyond Iſle Percée there is a bay, called *Baye de Chaleurs*,[220] extending

[215] *Orignac.* Mooſe. — *Vide antea*, note 179.

[216] Martens, *martres.* This may include the pine-marten, *Muſtela martes*, and the pecan or fiſher, *Muſtela Canadenſis*, both of which were found in large numbers in New France.

[217] York River.

[218] Molues Bay, *Baye des Moluës.* Now known as Mal-Bay, from *morue*, codfiſh, a corruption from the old orthography *molue* and *baie*, codfiſh bay, the name having been originally applied on account of the excellent fiſh of the neighborhood. The harbor of Mal-Bay is encloſed between two points, Point Peter on the north, and a high rocky promontory on the ſouth, whoſe cliffs riſe to the height of 666 feet. — *Vide Charts of the St. Lawrence by Captain H. W. Bayfield.*

[219] *Iſle Percée.* — *Vide* Vol. II. note 290.

[220] *Baye de Chaleurs.* This bay was ſo named by Jacques Cartier on account of the exceſſive heat, *chaleur*, experienced

extending ſome eighty leagues weſt-ſouthweſt inland, and ſome fifteen leagues broad at its entrance. The Canadian ſavages ſay that ſome ſixty leagues along the ſouthern ſhore of the great River of Canada, there is a little river called Mantanne, extending ſome eighteen leagues inland, at the end of which they carry their canoes about a league by land, and come to the Baye de Chaleurs,[221] whence they go ſometimes to Iſle Percée. They alſo go from this bay to Tregate [222] and Miſamichy.[223]

Proceeding along this coaſt, you paſs a large number of rivers, and reach a place where there is one called *Souricoua*, by way of which Sieur Prevert went to explore a copper mine. They go with their canoes up this river for two or three days, when they go overland ſome two or three leagues to the ſaid mine, which is ſituated on the ſeaſhore ſouthward. At the entrance to the above-mentioned river there is an iſland [224] about a league out, from which iſland to Iſle Percée is a diſtance of ſome ſixty or ſeventy leagues. Then, continuing along this coaſt, which runs towards the eaſt, you come to a ſtrait about two leagues broad and twenty-five long.

rienced there on his firſt voyage in 1634. — *Vide Voyage de Jacques Cartier*, Mechelant, ed. Paris, 1865, p. 50. The depth of the bay is about ninety miles and its width at the entrance is about eighteen. It receives the Riſtigouche and other rivers.

[221] By a portage of about three leagues from the river Matane to the Matapedia, the Bay of Chaleur may be reached by water.

[222] *Tregaté*, Tracadie. By a very ſhort portage between Baſs River and the Big Tracadie River, this place may be reached.

[223] *Miſamichy*, Miramichi. This is reached by a ſhort portage from the Nepiſiguit to the head waters of the Miramichi.

[224] It is obvious from this deſcription that the iſland above mentioned is Shediac Iſland, and the river was one of the ſeveral emptying into Shediac Bay, and named *Souricoua*, as by it the Indians went to the Souriquois or Micmacs in Nova Scotia.

long.[225] On the eaſt ſide of it is an iſland named *St. Lawrence*,[226] on which is Cape Breton, and where a tribe of ſavages called the *Souriquois* winter. Paſſing the ſtrait of the Iſland of St. Lawrence, and coaſting along the ſhore of La Cadie, you come to a bay[227] on which this copper mine is ſituated. Advancing ſtill farther, you find a river[228] extending ſome ſixty or eighty leagues inland, and nearly to the Lake of the Iroquois, along which the ſavages of the coaſt of La Cadie go to make war upon the latter.

One would accompliſh a great good by diſcovering, on the coaſt of Florida, ſome paſſage running near to the great lake before referred to, where the water is ſalt; not only on account of the navigation of veſſels, which would not then be expoſed to so great riſks as in going by way of Canada, but alſo on account of the ſhortening of the diſtance by more than three hundred leagues. And it is certain that there are rivers on the coaſt of Florida, not yet diſcovered, extending into the interior, where the land is very good and fertile, and containing very good harbors. The country and coaſt of Florida may have a different temperature and be more productive in fruits and other things than that which I have ſeen; but there cannot be there any lands more level nor of a better quality than thoſe we have ſeen.

The ſavages ſay that, in this great Baye de Chaleurs, there is a river extending ſome twenty leagues into the interior, at

[225] The Strait of Canſeau.

[226] *St. Lawrence.* This iſland had then borne the name of the *Iſland of Cape Breton* for a hundred years.

[227] The Bay of Fundy.

[228] The River St. John by which they reached the St. Lawrence, and through the River Richelieu the lake of the Iroquois. It was named Lake Champlain in 1609. *Vide* Vol. II. p. 223.

at the extremity of which is a lake [229] ſome twenty leagues in extent, but with very little water; that it dries up in ſummer, when they find in it, a foot or foot and a half under ground, a kind of metal reſembling the ſilver which I ſhowed them, and that in another place, near this lake, there is a copper mine.

This is what I learned from theſe ſavages.

CHAPTER XI.

RETURN FROM ISLE PERCÉE TO TADOUSSAC. — DESCRIPTION OF THE COVES, HARBORS, RIVERS, ISLANDS, ROCKS, FALLS, BAYS, AND SHALLOWS ALONG THE NORTHERN SHORE.

WE ſet out from Iſle Percée on the nineteenth of the month, on our return to Tadouſſac. When we were ſome three leagues from Cape Évêque [230] we encountered a tempeſt, which laſted two days, and obliged us to put into a large cove and wait for fair weather. The next day we ſet out from there and again encountered another tempeſt. Not wiſhing to put back, and thinking that we could make our way, we proceeded to the north ſhore on the 28th of July, and came to anchor in a cove which is very dangerous on account of its rocky banks. This cove is in latitude 51° and ſome minutes.[231]

The

[229] By traverſing the Riſtigouche River, the Matapediac may be reached, the lake here deſignated.

[230] *Éveſque.* This cape cannot be identified.

[231] On paſſing to the northern ſhore of the St. Lawrence, they entered, according to the conjecture of Laverdière, Moiſie Bay. It ſeems to us, however, more likely that they entered a cove ſomewhere

The next day we anchored near a river called St. Margaret, where the depth is ſome three fathoms at full tide, and a fathom and a half at low tide. It extends a conſiderable diſtance inland. So far as I obſerved the eaſtern ſhore inland, there is a waterfall ſome fifty or ſixty fathoms in extent, flowing into this river; from this comes the greater part of the water compoſing it. At its mouth there is a ſand-bank, where there is, perhaps, at low tide, half a fathom of water. All along the eaſtern ſhore there is moving ſand; and here there is a point ſome half a league from the above mentioned river,[232] extending out half a league, and on the weſtern ſhore there is a little iſland. This place is in latitude 50°. All theſe lands are very poor, and covered with firs. The country is ſomewhat high, but not ſo much ſo as that on the ſouth ſide.

After going ſome three leagues, we paſſed another river,[233] apparently very large, but the entrance is, for the moſt part, filled with rocks. Some eight leagues diſtant from there, is a point [234] extending out a league and a half, where there is only a fathom and a half of water. Some four leagues beyond

where among the Seven Iſlands, perhaps near the weſt channel to the Seven Iſlands Bay, between Point Croix and Point Chaſſé, where they might have found good anchorage and a rocky ſhore. The true latitude is ſay, about 50° 9′. The latitude 51°, as given by Champlain, would cut the coaſt of Labrador, and is obviouſly an error.

[232] This was probably the river ſtill bearing the name of St. Margaret. There is a ſandy point extending out on the eaſt and a peninſula on the weſtern ſhore, which may then have been an iſland formed by the moving ſands. — *Vide Bayfield's charts.*

[233] Rock River, in latitude 50° 2′.

[234] Point De Monts. The Abbé Laverdière, whoſe opportunities for knowing this coaſt were excellent, ſtates that there is no other point between Rock River and Point De Monts of ſuch extent, and where there is ſo little water. As to the diſtance, Champlain may have been deceived by the currents, or there may have been, as ſuggeſted by Laverdière, a typographical error. The diſtance to Point De Monts is, in fact, eighteen leagues.

beyond this point, there is another, where there is water enough.[235] All this coaſt is low and ſandy.

Some four leagues beyond there is a cove into which a river enters.[236] This place is capable of containing a large number of veſſels on its weſtern ſide. There is a low point extending out about a league. One muſt ſail along the eaſtern ſide for ſome three hundred paces in order to enter. This is the beſt harbor along all the northern coaſt; yet it is very dangerous ſailing there on account of the ſhallows and ſand-banks along the greater part of the coaſt for nearly two leagues from the ſhore.

Some ſix leagues farther on is a bay,[237] where there is a ſandy iſland. This entire bay is very ſhoal, except on the eaſtern ſide, where there are ſome four fathoms of water. In the channel which enters this bay, ſome four leagues from there, is a fine cove, into which a river flows. There is a large fall on it. All this coaſt is low and ſandy. Some five leagues beyond, is a point extending out about half a league,[238] in which there is a cove; and from one point to the other is a diſtance of three leagues; which, however, is only ſhoals with little water.

Some two leagues farther on, is a ſtrand with a good harbor

[235] Point St. Nicholas. — *Laverdière.* This is probably the point referred to, although the diſtance is again three times too great.

[236] The Manicouagan River.—*Laverdière.* The diſtance is ſtill exceſſive, but in other reſpects the deſcription in the text identifies this river. On Bellin's map this river is called Rivière Noire.

[237] Outard Bay. The iſland does not now appear. It was probably an iſland of ſand, which has ſince been ſwept away, unleſs it was the ſandy peninſula lying between Outard and Manicouagan Rivers. The fall is laid down on Bayfield's chart.

[238] Berſimis Point. Walker and Miles have *Betſiamites*, Bellin, *Berſiamites*, Laverdière, *Betſiamis*, and Bayfield, *Berſimis*. The text deſcribes the locality with ſufficient accuracy.

bor and a little river, in which there are three iſlands,[239] and in which veſſels could take ſhelter.

Some three leagues from there, is a ſandy point,[240] extending out about a league, at the end of which is a little iſland. Then, going on to the Eſquemin,[241] you come to two ſmall, low iſlands and a little rock near the ſhore. Theſe iſlands are about half a league from the Eſquemin, which is a very bad harbor, ſurrounded by rocks and dry at low tide, and, in order to enter, one muſt tack and go in behind a little rocky point, where there is room enough for only one veſſel. A little farther on, is a river extending ſome little diſtance into the interior; this is the place where the Baſques carry on the whale-fiſhery.[242] To tell the truth, the harbor is of no account at all.

We went thence to the harbor of Tadouſſac, on the third of Auguſt. All theſe lands above-mentioned along the ſhore are low, while the interior is high. They are not so attractive or fertile as thoſe on the ſouth ſhore, although lower.

This is preciſely what I have ſeen of this northern ſhore.

CHAPTER XII.

[239] Jeremy Iſland. Bellin, 1764, lays down three iſlands, but Bayfield, 1834, has but one. Two of them appear to have been ſwept away or united in one.

[240] Three leagues would indicate Point Colombier. But Laverdière ſuggeſts Mille Vaches as better conforming to the deſcription in the text, although the diſtance is three times too great.

[241] *Eſquemin*. Walker and Miles have *Eſcoumain*, Bellin, *Leſquemin*, Bayfield, *Eſquamine*, and Laverdière, *Eſcoumins*. The river half a league diſtant is now called River Romaine.

[242] The River Leſſumen, a ſhort diſtance from which is *Anſe aux Baſques*, or Baſque Cove. This is probably the locality referred to in the text.

CHAPTER XII.

CEREMONIES OF THE SAVAGES BEFORE ENGAGING IN WAR. — OF THE ALMOUCHICOIS SAVAGES AND THEIR STRANGE FORM. — NARRATIVE OF SIEUR DE PREVERT OF ST. MALO ON THE EXPLORATION OF THE LA CADIAN COAST; WHAT MINES THERE ARE THERE; THE EXCELLENCE AND FERTILITY OF THE COUNTRY.

UPON arriving at Tadouſſac, we found the ſavages, whom we had met at the River of the Iroquois, and who had had an encounter at the firſt lake with three Iroquois canoes, there being ten of the Montagnais. The latter brought back the heads of the Iroquois to Tadouſſac, there being only one Montagnais wounded, which was in the arm by an arrow; and in caſe he ſhould have a dream, it would be neceſſary for all the ten others to execute it in order to ſatisfy him, they thinking, moreover, that his wound would thereby do better. If this ſavage ſhould die, his relatives would avenge his death either on his own tribe or others, or it would be neceſſary for the captains to make preſents to the relatives of the deceaſed, in order to content them, otherwiſe, as I have ſaid, they would practiſe vengeance, which is a great evil among them.

Before theſe Montagnais ſet out for the war, they all gathered together in their richeſt fur garments of beaver and other ſkins, adorned with beads and belts of various colors. They aſſembled in a large public place, in the preſence of a ſagamore named Begourat, who led them to the war. They were arranged one behind the other, with their bows and arrows, clubs, and round ſhields with which they provide themſelves

themſelves for fighting. They went leaping one after the other, making various geſtures with their bodies, and many ſnail-like turns. Afterwards they proceeded to dance in the cuſtomary manner, as I have before deſcribed; then they had their *tabagie*, after which the women ſtripped themſelves ſtark naked, adorned with their handſomeſt *matachiats*. Thus naked and dancing, they entered their canoes, when they put out upon the water, ſtriking each other with their oars, and throwing quantities of water at one another. But they did themſelves no harm, ſince they parried the blows hurled at each other. After all theſe ceremonies, the women withdrew to their cabins, and the men went to the war againſt the Iroquois.

On the ſixteenth of Auguſt we ſet out from Tadouſſac, and arrived on the eighteenth at Iſle Percée, where we found Sieur Prevert of St. Malo, who came from the mine where he had gone with much difficulty, from the fear which the ſavages had of meeting their enemies, the Almouchicois,[243] who are ſavages of an exceedingly ſtrange form, for their head is ſmall and body ſhort, their arms ſlender as thoſe of a ſkeleton, ſo alſo the thighs, their legs big and long and of uniform ſize, and when they are ſeated on the ground, their knees extend more than half a foot above the head, ſomething ſtrange and ſeemingly abnormal. They are, however, very agile and reſolute, and are ſettled upon the beſt lands of

[243] *Almouchiquois*. Champlain here writes *Armouchicois*. The account here given to Prevert, by the Souriquois or Micmacs, as they have been more recently called, of the Almouchicois or Indians found ſouth of Saco, on the coaſt of Maſſachuſetts, if accurately reported, is far from correct. *Vide* Champlain's deſcription of them, Vol. II. p. 63, *et paſſim*.

of all the coaſt of La Cadie;[244] ſo that the Souriquois fear them greatly. But with the aſſurance which Sieur de Prevert gave them, he took them to the mine, to which the ſavages guided him.[245] It is a very high mountain, extending ſomewhat ſeaward, glittering brightly in the ſunlight, and containing a large amount of verdigris, which proceeds from the before mentioned copper mine. At the foot of this mountain, he ſaid, there was at low water a large quantity of bits of copper, ſuch as he ſhowed us, which fall from the top of the mountain. Going on three or four leagues in the direction of the coaſt of La Cadie, one finds another mine; alſo a ſmall river extending ſome diſtance in a ſoutherly direction, where there is a mountain containing a black pigment with which the ſavages paint themſelves. Then, ſome ſix leagues from the ſecond mine, going ſeaward about a league, and near the coaſt of La Cadie, you find an iſland containing a kind of metal of a dark brown color, but white when it is cut. This they formerly uſed for their arrows and knives, which they beat into ſhape with ſtones, which leads me to believe that it is neither tin nor lead, it being ſo hard; and, upon our ſhowing them ſome ſilver, they ſaid that the metal of this iſland was like it, which they find ſome one or two feet under ground. Sieur Prevert gave to the

[244] *Coaſt of La Cadie.* This extent given to La Cadie correſponds with the charter of De Monts, which covered the territory from 40° north latitude to 46°. The charter was obtained in the autumn of this ſame year, 1603, and before the account of this voyage by Champlain was printed. —*Vide* Vol. II. note 155.

[245] Prevert did not make this exploration, perſonally, although he pretended that he did. He ſent ſome of his men with Secondon, the chief of St. John, and others. His report is therefore ſecond-hand, confuſed, and inaccurate. Champlain expoſes Prevert's attempt to deceive in a ſubſequent reference to him. Compare Vol. II. pp. 26, 97, 98.

the ſavages wedges and chiſels and other things neceſſary to extract the ore of this mine, which they promiſed to do, and on the following year to bring and give the ſame to Sieur Prevert.

They ſay, alſo, that, ſome hundred or hundred and twenty leagues diſtant, there are other mines, but that they do not dare to go to them, unleſs accompanied by Frenchmen to make war upon their enemies, in whoſe poſſeſſion the mines are.

This place where the mine is, which is in latitude 44° and ſome minutes,[246] and ſome five or ſix leagues from the coaſt of La Cadie, is a kind of bay ſome leagues broad at its entrance, and ſomewhat more in length, where there are three rivers which flow into the great bay near the iſland of St. John,[247] which is ſome thirty or thirty-five leagues long and ſome ſix leagues from the mainland on the ſouth. There is alſo another ſmall river emptying about half way from that by which Sieur Prevert returned, in which there are two lake-like bodies of water. There is alſo ſtill another ſmall river, extending in the direction of the pigment mountain. All theſe rivers fall into ſaid bay nearly ſoutheaſt of the iſland where theſe ſavages ſay this white mine is. On the north ſide of this bay are the copper mines, where there is a good harbor for veſſels, at the entrance to which is a ſmall iſland. The bottom is mud and ſand, on which veſſels can be run.

From

[246] 44° *and ſome minutes.* The Baſin of Mines, the place where the copper was ſaid to be, is about 45° 30′.

[247] *Iſland of St. John.* Prince Edward Iſland. It was named the Iſland of St. John by Cartier, having been diſcovered by him on St. John's Day, the 24th of June, 1534. — *Vide Voyage de Jacques Cartier*, 1534, Michelant, ed. Paris, 1865, p. 33. It continued to be ſo called for the period of *two hundred and ſixty-five* years, when it was changed to *Prince Edward Iſland* by an act of its legiſlature, in November, 1798, which was confirmed by the king in council, Feb. 1, 1799.

From this mine to the mouth of the above rivers is a diſtance of ſome ſixty or eighty leagues overland. But the diſtance to this mine, along the ſeacoaſt, from the outlet between the Iſland of St. Lawrence and the mainland is, I ſhould think, more than fifty or ſixty leagues.[248]

All this country is very fair and flat, containing all the kinds of trees we ſaw on our way to the firſt fall of the great river of Canada, with but very little fir and cypreſs.

This is an exact ſtatement of what I aſcertained from Sieur Prevert.

CHAPTER XIII.

A Terrible Monster, which the Savages call Gougou. — Our short and favorable Voyage back to France.

THERE is, moreover, a ſtrange matter, worthy of being related, which ſeveral ſavages have aſſured me was true; namely, near the Bay of Chaleurs, towards the ſouth, there is an iſland where a terrible monſter reſides, which the ſavages call *Gougou*, and which they told me had the form of a woman, though very frightful, and of ſuch a ſize that they told me the tops of the maſts of our veſſel would not reach to his middle, ſo great do they picture him; and they ſay that he has often devoured and ſtill continues to devour many ſavages; theſe he puts, when he can catch them, into a great pocket, and afterwards eats them; and thoſe who had eſcaped the jaws

[248] That is, from the Strait of Canſeau round the coaſt of Nova Scotia to the Bay of Mines.

jaws of this wretched creature ſaid that its pocket was ſo great that it could have put our veſſel into it. This monſter makes horrible noiſes in this iſland, which the ſavages call the *Gougou;* and when they ſpeak of him, it is with the greateſt poſſible fear, and ſeveral have aſſured me that they have ſeen him. Even the above-mentioned Prevert from St. Malo told me that, while going in ſearch of mines, as mentioned in the previous chapter, he paſſed ſo near the dwelling-place of this frightful creature, that he and all thoſe on board his veſſel heard ſtrange hiſſings from the noiſe it made, and that the ſavages with him told him it was the ſame creature, and that they were ſo afraid that they hid themſelves wherever they could, for fear that it would come and carry them off. What makes me believe what they ſay is the fact that all the ſavages in general fear it, and tell ſuch ſtrange things about it that, if I were to record all they ſay, it would be regarded as a myth; but I hold that this is the dwelling-place of ſome devil that torments them in the above-mentioned manner.[249] This is what I have learned about this Gougou.

Before

[249] The deſcription of this enchanted iſland is too indefinite to invite a conjecture of its identity or location. The reſounding noiſe of the breaking waves, mingled with the whiſtling of the wind, might well lay a foundation for the fears of the Indians, and their excited imaginations would eaſily fill out and complete the picture. In Champlain's time, the belief in the active agency of good and evil ſpirits, particularly the latter, in the affairs of men, was univerſal. It culminated in this country in the tragedies of the Salem witchcraft in 1692. It has ſince been gradually ſubſiding, but nevertheleſs ſtill exiſts under the mitigated form of ſpiritual communications. Champlain, ſharing the credulity of his times, very naturally refers theſe ſtrange phenomena reported by the ſavages, whoſe ſtatements were fully accredited and corroborated by the teſtimony of his countryman, M. Prevert, to the agency of ſome evil demon, who had taken up his abode in that region in order to vex and terrify theſe unhappy Indians. As a faithful hiſtorian, he could not omit this ſtory, but it probably made no more impreſſion

Before leaving Tadouſſac on our return to France, one of the ſagamores of the Montagnais, named *Bechourat*, gave his ſon to Sieur Du Pont Gravé to take to France, to whom he was highly commended by the grand ſagamore, Anadabijou, who begged him to treat him well and have him ſee what the other two ſavages, whom we had taken home with us, had ſeen. We aſked them for an Iroquois woman they were going to eat, whom they gave us, and whom, alſo, we took with this ſavage. Sieur de Prevert alſo took four ſavages: a man from the coaſt of La Cadie, a woman and two boys from the Canadians.

On the 24th of Auguſt, we ſet out from Gaſpé, the veſſel of Sieur Prevert and our own. On the 2d of September we calculated that we were as far as Cape Race; on the 5th, we came upon the bank where the fiſhery is carried on; on the 16th, we were on ſoundings, ſome fifty leagues from Oueſſant; on the 20th we arrived, by God's grace, to the joy of all, and with a continued favorable wind, at the port of Havre de Grâce.

impreſſion upon his mind than did the thouſand others of a ſimilar character with which he muſt have been familiar. He makes no alluſion to it in the edition of 1613, when ſpeaking of the copper mines in that neighborhood, nor yet in that of 1632, and it had probably paſſed from his memory.

CHAMPLAIN'S EXPLANATION

OF THE

CARTE DE LA NOVVELLE FRANCE.

1632.

TABLE FOR FINDING THE PROMINENT PLACES ON THE MAP.

A. *Baye des Iſles.*[1]
B. *Caleſme.*[2]
C. *Baye des Treſpaſſez.*
D. *Cap de Leuy.*[3]
E. *Port du Cap de Raye,* where the cod-fiſhery is carried on.
F. The north-weſt coaſt of Newfoundland, but little known.
G. Paſſage to the north at the 52d degree.[4]
H. *Iſle St. Paul,* near Cape St. Lawrence.

[1] It is to be obſerved that ſome of the letters and figures are not found on the map. Among the reſt, the letter A is wanting. It is impoſſible of courſe to tell with certainty to what it refers, particularly as the places referred to do not occur in conſecutive order. The Abbé Laverdière thinks this letter points to the bay of Boſton or what we commonly call Maſſachuſetts Bay, or to the Bay of all Iſles as laid down by Champlain on the eaſtern coaſt of Nova Scotia.

[2] On the ſouthern coaſt of Newfoundland, now known as *Placentia Bay.*

[3] Point Levi, oppoſite Quebec.

[4] The letter G is wanting, but the reference is plainly to the Straits of Belle Iſle, as may be ſeen by reference to the map.

I. *Iſle de Saſinou*, between Monts Déſerts and Iſles aux Corneilles.[5]

K. *Iſle de Mont-réal*, at the Falls of St. Louis, ſome eight or nine leagues in circuit.[6]

L. *Riuière Jeannin.*[7]

M. *Riuière St. Antoine.*[8]

N. Kind of ſalt water diſcharging into the ſea, with ebb and flood, abundance of fiſh and ſhell-fiſh, and in ſome places oyſters of not very good flavor.[9]

P. *Port aux Coquilles*, an iſland at the mouth of the River St. Croix, with good fiſhing.[10]

Q. Iſlands where there is fiſhing.[11]

R. *Lac de Soiſſons.*[12]

S. *Baye du Gouffre.*[13]

T. *Iſle de Monts Déſerts*, very high.

V. *Iſle S. Barnabé*, in the great river near the Bic.

X. *Leſquemain*, where there is a ſmall river, abounding in ſalmon and trout, near which is a little rocky iſlet, where there was formerly a ſtation for the whale fiſhery.[14]

Y. *La Pointe aux Alloüettes*, where, in the month of September, there are numberleſs larks, alſo other kinds of game and ſhell-fiſh.

Z.

[5] This iſland was ſomewhere between Mount Deſert and Joneſport; not unlikely it was that now known as Petit Manan. It was named after Saſanou, chief of the River Kennebec. *Vide* Vol. II. p. 58.

[6] The undereſtimate is ſo great, that it is probable that the author intended to ſay that the length of the iſland is eight or nine leagues.

[7] The Boyer, eaſt of Quebec. It appears to have been named after the Preſident Jeannin. *Vide antea*, p. 112.

[8] A river eaſt of the Iſland of Orleans now called Rivière du Sud.

[9] N is wanting.

[10] A harbor at the north-eaſtern extremity of the iſland of Campobello. *Vide* Vol. II. p. 100.

[11] Q is wanting. The reference is perhaps to the iſlands in Penobſcot Bay.

[12] Lac de Soiſſons. So named after Charles de Bourbon, Count de Soiſſons, a Viceroy of New France in 1612. *Vide antea*, p. 112. Now known as the Lake of Two Mountains.

[13] A bay at the mouth of a river of this name now called St. Paul's Bay, near the Iſle aux Coudres. *Vide* Vol. II. note 305.

[14] *Vide antea*, note 241.

Z. *Iſle aux Liéures*, ſo named becauſe ſome hares were captured there when it was firſt diſcovered.[15]

2. *Port à Leſquille*, dry at low tide, where are two brooks coming from the mountains.[16]

3. *Port au Saulmon*, dry at low tide. There are two ſmall iſlands here, abounding, in the ſeaſon, with ſtrawberries, raſpberries, and *bluets*.[17] Near this place is a good roadſtead for veſſels, and two ſmall brooks flowing into the harbor.

4. *Riuière Platte*, coming from the mountains, only navigable for canoes. It is dry here at low tide a long diſtance out. Good anchorage in the offing.

5. *Iſles aux Couldres*, ſome league and a half long, containing in their ſeaſon great numbers of rabbits, partridges, and other kinds of game. At the ſouthweſt point are meadows, and reefs ſeaward. There is anchorage here for veſſels between this iſland and the mainland on the north.

6. *Cap de Tourmente*, a league from which Sieur de Champlain had a building erected, which was burned by the Engliſh in 1628. Near this place is Cap Bruſlé, between which and Iſle aux Coudres is a channel, with eight, ten, and twelve fathoms of water. On the ſouth the ſhore is muddy and rocky. To the north are high lands, &c.

7. *Iſle d'Orléans*, ſix leagues in length, very beautiful on account of its variety of woods, meadows, vines, and nuts. The weſtern point of this iſland is called Cap de Condé.

8. *Le Sault de Montmorency*, twenty fathoms high,[18] formed by a river coming from the mountains, and diſcharging into the St. Lawrence, a league and a half from Quebec.

9.

[15] An iſland in the River St. Lawrence weſt of Tadouſſac, ſtill called Hare Iſland. *Vide antea*, note 148.

[16] Figure 2 is not found on the map, and it is difficult to identify the place referred to.

[17] Bluets, *Vaccinium Canadenſe*, the Canada blueberry. Champlain ſays it is a ſmall fruit very good for eating. *Vide* Quebec ed. Voyage of 1615, p. 509.

[18] *Vide* Vol. II. p. 176.

9. *Riuière S. Charles*, coming from Lac S. Joſeph,[19] very beautiful with meadows at low tide. At full tide barques can go up as far as the firſt fall. On this river are built the churches and quarters of the reverend Jéſuit and Récollect Fathers. Game is abundant here in ſpring and autumn.
10. *Riuière des Etechemins*,[20] by which the ſavages go to Quinebequi, croſſing the country with difficulty, on account of the falls and little water. Sieur de Champlain had this exploration made in 1628, and found a ſavage tribe, ſeven days from Quebec, who till the ſoil, and are called the Abenaquiuoit.
11. *Riuière de Champlain*, near that of Batiſquan, north-weſt of the Grondines.
12. *Riuière de Sauuages*.[21]
13. *Iſle Verte*, five or ſix leagues from Tadouſſac.[22]
14. *Iſle de Chaſſe*.
15. *Riuière Batiſquan*, very pleaſant, and abounding in fiſh.
16. *Les Grondines*, and ſome neighboring iſlands. A good place for hunting and fiſhing.
17. *Riuière des Eſturgeons & Saulmons*, with a fall of water from fifteen to twenty feet high, two leagues from Saincte Croix, which deſcends into a ſmall pond diſcharging into the great river St. Lawrence.[23]
18. *Iſle de St. Eloy*, with a paſſage between the iſland and the mainland on the north.[24]
19. *Lac S. Pierre*, very beautiful, three to four fathoms in depth, and abounding in fiſh, ſurrounded by hills and level tracts, with

[19] For *Lac S. Joseph*, read Lac S. Charles.

[20] Champlain here calls the *Chaudière* the River of the Etechemins, notwithſtanding he had before given the name to that now known as the St. Croix. *Vide* Vol. II. pp. 30, 47, 60. There is ſtill a little eaſt of the Chaudière a river now known as the Etechemin; but the channel of the Chaudière would be the courſe which the Indians would naturally take to reach the head-waters of the Kennebec, where dwelt the Abenaquis.

[21] River Verte, entering the St. Lawrence on the ſouth of Green Iſland, oppoſite to Tadouſſac.

[22] Green Iſland.

[23] Jacques Cartier River.

[24] Near the Batiſcan.

with meadows in places. Several ſmall ſtreams and brooks flow into it.

20. *Riuière du Gaſt*, very pleaſant, yet containing but little water.[25]
21. *Riuière Sainct Antoine.*[26]
22. *Riuière Saincte Suzanne.*[27]
23. *Riuière des Yrocois*, very beautiful, with many iſlands and meadows. It comes from Lac de Champlain, five or ſix days' journey in length, abounding in fiſh and game of different kinds. Vines, nut, plum, and cheſtnut trees abound in many places. There are meadows and very pretty iſlands in it. To reach it, it is neceſſary to paſs one large and one ſmall fall.[28]
24. *Sault de Riuière du Saguenay*, fifty leagues from Tadouſſac, ten or twelve fathoms high.[29]
25. *Grand Sault*, which falls ſome fifteen feet, amid a large number of iſlands. It is half a league in length and three leagues broad.[30]
26. *Port au Mouton.*
27. *Baye de Campſeau.*
28. *Cap Baturier*, on the Iſle de Sainct Jean.
29. A river by way of which they go to the Baye Françoiſe.[31]
30. *Chaſſe des Eſlans.*[32]
31. *Cap de Richelieu*, on the eaſtern part of the Iſle d'Orleans.[33]
32. A ſmall bank near Iſle du Cap Breton.
33. *Riuière des Puans*, coming from a lake where there is a mine of pure red copper.[34]

34.

[25] Nicolet. *Vide* Laverdière's note, Quebec ed. Vol. III. p. 328.
[26] River St. Francis.
[27] Rivière du Loup.
[28] River Richelieu.
[29] This number is wanting.
[30] The Falls of St. Louis, above Montreal. The figures are wanting.
[31] One of the ſmall rivers between Cobequid Bay and Cumberland Strait.
[32] Mooſe Hunting, on the weſt of Gaſpé.
[33] Argentenay. — *Laverdière.*
[34] Champlain had not been in this region, and conſequently obtained his information from the ſavages. There is no ſuch lake as he repreſents on his map, and this iſland producing pure copper may have been Iſle Royale, in Lake Superior.

34. *Sault de Gaſton*, nearly two leagues broad, and diſcharging into the *Mer Douce*. It comes from another very large lake, which, with the *Mer Douce*, have an extent of thirty days' journey by canoe, according to the report of the ſavages.[35]

Returning to the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Coaſt of La Cadie.

35. *Riuière de Gaſpey*.[36]
36. *Riuière de Chaleu*.[37]
37. Several Iſlands near Miſcou and the harbor of Miſcou, between two iſlands.
38. *Cap de l'Iſle Sainct Jean*.[38]
39. *Port au Roſſignol*.
40. *Riuière Platte*.[39]
41. *Port du Cap Naigré*. On the bay by this cape there is a French ſettlement, where Sieur de la Tour commands, from whom it was named Port la Tour. The Reverend Récollect Fathers dwelt here in 1630.[40]
42. *Baye du Cap de Sable*.
43. *Baye Saine*.[41]
44. *Baye Courante*, with many iſlands abounding in game, good fiſhing, and places favorable for veſſels.[42]
45. *Port du Cap Fourchu*, very pleaſant, but very nearly dry at low tide. Near this place are many iſlands, with good hunting.
47. *Petit Paſſage de Iſle Longue*. Here there is good cod-fiſhing.
48. *Cap des Deux Bayes*.[43]
49. *Port des Mines*, where, at low tide, ſmall pieces of very pure copper are to be found in the rocks along the ſhore.[44]

50.

[35] The Falls of St. Mary.
[36] York River.
[37] The Riſtigouche.
[38] Now called North Point.
[39] Probably Gold River, flowing into Mahone Bay.
[40] Still called Port La Tour.
[41] Halifax Harbor. *Vide* Vol. II. note 266.
[42] *Vide* Vol. II. note 192.
[43] Now Cape Chignecto, in the Bay of Fundy.
[44] Advocates' Harbor.

50. *Iſles de Bacchus*, very pleaſant, containing many vines, nut, plum, and other trees.[45]
51. Iſlands near the mouth of the river Chouacoet.
52. *Iſles Aſſez Hautes*, three or four in number, two or three leagues diſtant from the land, at the mouth of Baye Longue.[46]
53. *Baye aux Iſles*, with ſuitable harbors for veſſels. The country is very good, and ſettled by numerous ſavages, who till the land. In theſe localities are numerous cypreſſes, vines, and nut-trees.[47]
54. *La Soupçonneuſe*, an iſland nearly a league diſtant from the land.[48]
55. *Baye Longue.*[49]
56. *Les Sept Iſles.*[50]
57. *Riuière des Etechemins.*[51]

The Virginias, where the Engliſh are ſettled, between the 36th and 37th degrees of latitude. Captains Ribaut and Laudonnière made explorations 36 or 37 years ago along the coaſts adjoining Florida, and eſtabliſhed a ſettlement.[52]

58. Several rivers of the Virginias, flowing into the Gulf.
59. Coaſt inhabited by ſavages who till the ſoil, which is very good.
60. *Poincte Confort.*[53]
61. *Immeſtan.*[54]
62. *Cheſapeacq Bay.*
63. *Bedabedec*, the coaſt weſt of the river Pemetegoet.[55]
64. *Belles Prairies.* 65.

[45] Richmond Iſland. *Vide* note 42 Vol. I. and note 123 Vol. II. of this work.

[46] The Iſles of Shoals. *Vide* Vol. II. note 142.

[47] Boſton Bay.

[48] Martha's Vineyard. *Vide* Vol. II. note 227.

[49] Merrimac Bay, as it may be appropriately called, ſtretching from Little Boar's Head to Cape Anne.

[50] Theſe iſlands appear to be in Caſco Bay.

[51] The figures are not on the map. The reference is to the Scoudic, commonly known as the River St. Croix.

[52] There is probably a typographical error in the figures. The paſſage ſhould read "66 or 67 years ago."

[53] Now Old Point Comfort.

[54] Jameſtown, Virginia.

[55] *Vide* Vol. II. note 95.

65. Place on Lac Champlain where the Yroquois were defeated by Sieur Champlain in 1606.[56]
66. *Petit Lac*, by way of which they go to the Yroquois, after paſſing over that of Champlain.[57]
67. *Baye des Treſpaſſez*, on the iſland of Newfoundland.
68. *Chappeau Rouge.*
69. *Baye du Sainct Eſprit.*
70. *Les Vierges.*
71. *Port Breton*, near Cap Sainct Laurent, on Iſle du Cap Breton.
72. *Les Bergeronnettes*, three leagues from Tadouſſac.
73. *Le Cap d'Eſpoir*, near Iſle Percée.[58]
74. *Forillon*, at Poincte de Gaſpey.
75. *Iſle de Mont-réal*, at the Falls of St. Louis, in the River St. Lawrence.[59]
76. *Riuière des Prairies*, coming from a lake at the Falls of St. Louis, where there are two iſlands, one of which is Montréal. For ſeveral years this has been a ſtation for trading with the ſavages.[60]
77. *Sault de la Chaudière*, on the river of the Algonquins, ſome eighteen feet high, and deſcending among rocks with a great roar.[61]
78. *Lac de Nibachis*, the name of a ſavage captain who dwells here and tills a little land, where he plants Indian corn.[62]
79. Eleven lakes, near each other, one, two, and three leagues in extent, and abounding in fiſh and game. Sometimes the ſavages go this way in order to avoid the Fall of the Calumets,

[56] This ſhould read 1609. *Vide* Vol. II. note 348.

[57] Lake George. *Vide antea*, note 63, p. 93.

[58] This cape ſtill bears the ſame name.

[59] This number is wanting.

[60] This river comes from the Lake of Two Mountains, is a branch of the Ottawa ſeparating the Iſland of Montreal from the Iſle Jésus, and flows into the main channel of the Ottawa two or three miles before it reaches the eaſtern end of the Iſland of Montreal.

[61] The Chaudière Falls are near the ſite of the city of Ottawa. *Vide antea*, p. 120.

[62] Muſkrat Lake.

mets, which is very dangerous. Some of theſe localities abound in pines, yielding a great amount of reſin.[63]

80. *Sault des Pierres à Calunmet,* which reſemble alabaſter.

81. *Iſle de Teſouac,* an Algonquin captain (*Teſouac*) to whom the ſavages pay a toll for allowing them paſſage to Quebec.[64]

82. *La Riuière de Teſouac,* in which there are five falls.[65]

83. A river by which many ſavages go to the North Sea, above the Saguenay, and to the Three Rivers, going ſome diſtance overland.[66]

84. The lakes by which they go to the North Sea.

85. A river extending towards the North Sea.

86. Country of the Hurons, ſo called by the French, where there are numerous communities, and ſeventeen villages fortified by three paliſades of wood, with a gallery all around in the form of a parapet, for defence againſt their enemies. This region is in latitude 44° 30′, with a fertile ſoil cultivated by the ſavages.

87. Paſſage of a league overland, where the canoes are carried.

88. A river diſcharging into the *Mer Douce.*[67]

89. Village fortified by four paliſades, where Sieur de Champlain went in the war againſt the Antouhonorons, and where ſeveral ſavages were taken priſoners.[68]

90. Falls at the extremity of the Falls of St. Louis, very high, where many fiſh come down and are ſtunned.[69]

91. A ſmall river near the Sault de la Chaudière, where there is a waterfall nearly twenty fathoms high, over which the water flows

[63] This number is wanting on the map. Muſkrat Lake is one of this ſucceſſion of lakes, which extends eaſterly towards the Ottawa.

[64] Allumette Iſland, in the River Ottawa, about eighty-five miles above the capital of the Dominion of Canada.

[65] That part of the River Ottawa which, after its bifurcation, ſweeps around and forms the northern boundary of Allumette Iſland.

[66] The Ottawa beyond its junction with the Matawan.

[67] French River.

[68] *Vide antea*, note 83, p. 130.

[69] Plainly Lake St. Louis, now the Ontario, and not the *Falls* of St. Louis. The reference is here to Niagara Falls.

flows in ſuch volume and with ſuch velocity that a long arcade is made, beneath which the ſavages go for amuſement, without getting wet. It is a fine ſight.[70]

92. This river is very beautiful, with numerous iſlands of various ſizes. It paſſes through many fine lakes, and is bordered by beautiful meadows. It abounds in deer and other animals, with fiſh of excellent quality. There are many cleared tracts of land upon it, with good ſoil, which have been abandoned by the ſavages on account of their wars. It diſcharges into Lake St. Louis, and many tribes come to theſe regions to hunt and obtain their proviſion for the winter.[71]

93. Cheſtnut foreſt, where there are great quantities of cheſtnuts, on the borders of Lac St. Louis. Alſo many meadows, vines, and nut-trees.[72]

94. Lake-like bodies of ſalt water at the head of Baye François, where the tide ebbs and flows. Iſlands containing many birds, many meadows in different localities, ſmall rivers flowing into theſe ſpecies of lakes, by which they go to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, near Iſle S. Jean.[73]

95. *Iſle Haute*, a league in circuit, and flat on top. It contains freſh water and much wood. It is a league diſtant from Port aux Mines and Cap des Deux Bayes. It is more than forty fathoms high on all ſides, except in one place, where it ſlopes, and where there is a pebbly point of a triangular shape. In the centre is a pond with ſalt water. Many birds make their neſts in this iſland.

ð *La Riuière des Algommequins*, extending from the Falls of St. Louis nearly to the Lake of the Biſſereni, containing more than eighty falls, large and ſmall, which muſt be paſſed by going

[70] The River Rideau.

[71] The River Trent diſcharges into the Bay of Quinté, an arm of Lake Ontario or Lac St. Louis.

[72] On the borders of Lake Ontario in the State of New York.

[73] The head-waters of the Bay of Fundy.

going around, by rowing, or by hauling with ropes. Some of theſe falls are very dangerous, particularly in going down.[74]

Gens de Petun. This is a tribe cultivating this herb (*tobacco*), in which they carry on an extenſive traffic with the other tribes. They have large towns, fortified with wood, and they plant Indian corn.

Cheveux Releuez. Theſe are ſavages who wear nothing about the loins, and go ſtark naked, except in winter, when they clothe themſelves in robes of ſkins, which they leave off when they quit their houſes for the fields. They are great hunters, fiſhermen, and travellers, till the ſoil, and plant Indian corn. They dry *bluets*[75] and raſpberries, in which they carry on an extenſive traffic with the other tribes, taking in exchange ſkins, beads, nets, and other articles. Some of theſe people pierce the noſe, and attach beads to it. They tattoo their bodies, applying black and other colors. They wear their hair very ſtraight, and greaſe it, painting it red, as they do alſo the face.

La Nation Neutre. This is a people that maintains itſelf againſt all the others. They engage in war only with the Aſſiſtaqueronons. They are very powerful, having forty towns well peopled.

Les Antouhonorons. They conſiſt of fifteen towns built in ſtrong ſituations. They are enemies of all the other tribes, except Neutral nation. Their country is fine, with a good climate, and near the river St. Lawrence, the paſſage of which they forbid to all the other tribes, for which reaſon it is leſs viſited by them. They till the ſoil, and plant their land.[76]

Les Yroquois.

[74] The River Ottawa, here referred to, extends nearly to Lake Nipiſſing, here ſpoken of as the lake of the *Biſſereni.*

[75] The Canada blueberry, *Vaccinium Canadense.* The aborigines of New England were accuſtomed to dry the blueberry for winter's uſe. *Vide Joſſelyn's Rarities*, Tuckerman's ed., Boſton, 1865, p. 113.

[76] This reference is to the *Antouoronons*, as given on the map.

Les Yroquois. They unite with the Antouhonorons in making war againſt all the other tribes, except the Neutral nation.

Carantouanis. This is a tribe that has moved to the ſouth of the Antouhonorons, and dwells in a very fine country, where it is ſecurely quartered. They are friends of all the other tribes, except the above named Antouhonorons, from whom they are only three days' journey diſtant. Once they took as priſoners ſome Flemiſh, but ſent them back again without doing them any harm, ſuppoſing that they were French. Between Lac St. Louis and Sault St. Louis, which is the great river St. Lawrence, there are five falls, numerous fine lakes, and pretty iſlands, with a pleaſing country abounding in game and fiſh, favorable for ſettlement, were it not for the wars which the ſavages carry on with each other.

La Mer Douce is a very large lake, containing a countleſs number of iſlands. It is very deep, and abounds in fiſh of all varieties and of extraordinary ſize, which are taken at different times and ſeaſons, as in the great ſea. The ſouthern ſhore is much pleaſanter than the northern, where there are many rocks and great quantities of caribous.

Le Lac des Biſſerenis is very beautiful, ſome twenty-five leagues in circuit, and containing numerous iſlands covered with woods and meadows. The ſavages encamp here, in order to catch in the river ſturgeon, pike, and carp, which are excellent and of very great ſize, and taken in large numbers. Game is alſo abundant, although the country is not particularly attractive, it being for the moſt part rocky.

NOTE. — The following are marked on the map as places where the French have had ſettlements: 1. Grand Cibou; 2. Cap Naigre; 3. Port du Cap Fourchu; 4. Port Royal; 5. St. Croix; 6. Iſle des Monts Déſerts; 7. Port de Miſcou; 8. Tadouſſac; 9. Quebec; 10. St. Croix, near Quebec.

MER DV NORT GLACIALLE

NOVVELLE FRANCE

C. Worrnam

C. Elizabeth

Hol de Withheop

Lomle Inlet

Quincamnes fort

landt

Groen landia

Terres de la Brador

C. Harles

Mer douce.

Grand lac.

La Nation des Boeufs

Isle ou il y a vne mine de Cuiure.

Lieu ou les sauuages font secherie de poisson, et bluent tous les ans.

Descouuertures de ce grand lac, et de toutes ses terres depuis Sault S.t Louis par le S.r de Champlain, es [illegible] 1614. et 1615. iusques en l'an 1618

Grande riuiere qui vient du nort

Les gens de Assistaqueronons

La nation neutre.

Nation ou il y a quantité de boeufs

Petite nation des Algonmequins

Lieu ou il y a force Cerfs

Les trois riuieres

Hurons

Lac S.t Louis

Sainct Iosephe

Hiroquois

Antouronons

Habitation de sauuages qui mangeoient de la chair humaine

Riuiere de Champlain

Riuiere de nostre Dame

Isle de l'Ascension

Corantouan

Virginia

C. Charles

C. Henry

Carte de la nouuelle France, augmentée depuis la derniere, seruant a la nauigation faicte en son vray Meridien, par le S.r de Champlain Capitaine pour le Roy en la Marine, leguel depuis l'an 1603 iusques en l'année 1629; a descouuert plusieurs costes, terres, lacs, riuieres, et Nations de sauuages, par cy deuant incogneues, comme il se voit en sa relation quil a faict Imprimer en 1632. ou il se void cette marque P.ce ce sont habitations quont faict les françois

Nouuelle France

Etechemins

Souriquois

Port Royal

Baye S.te Marie

Isle longue

Isle de Sambre

Isle de la haute

Port au mouton.

Isle de sable.

Le Golphe S.t Laurens

Terre neuue

Banquereaux

Croix blanche

Belle isle

Mal baye

Baye dorge

Isle aux apoüis

Isle de bacallos

Rochers

Le gr ad banc

Faicte l'an 1632 par le sieur de Champlain

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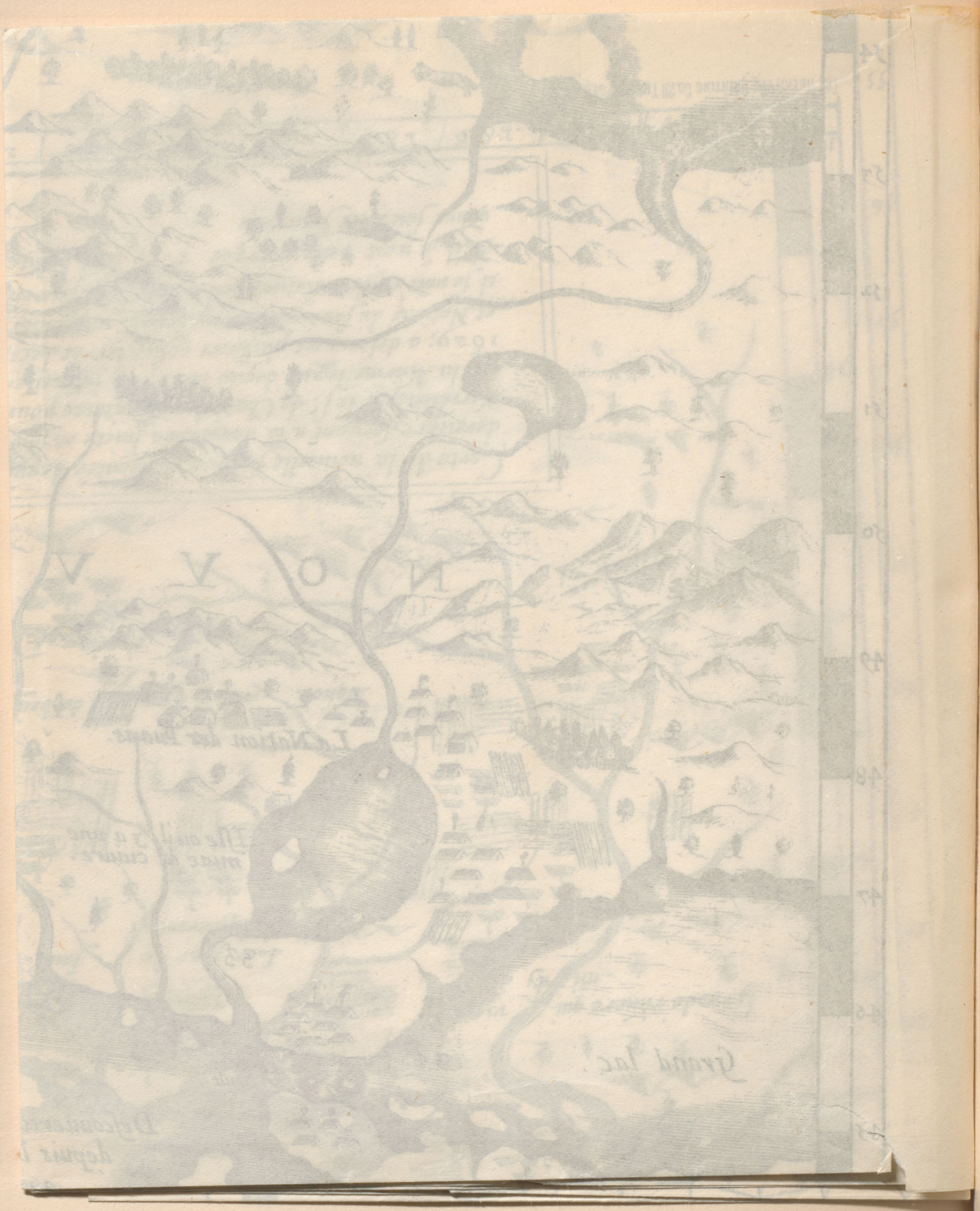
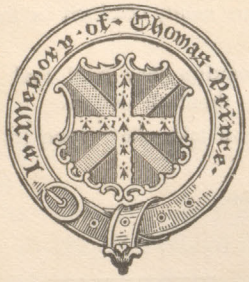


THE PRINCE SOCIETY.



Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

IN THE YEAR ONE THOUSAND EIGHT HUNDRED AND SEVENTY-FOUR.

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE PRINCE SOCIETY.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives, in General Court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

SECTION 1. John Ward Dean, J. Wingate Thornton, Edmund F. Slafter, and Charles W. Tuttle, their associates and successors, are made a corporation by the name of the PRINCE SOCIETY, for the purpose of preserving and extending the knowledge of American History, by editing and printing such manuscripts, rare tracts, and volumes as are mostly confined in their use to historical students and public libraries.

SECTION 2. Said corporation may hold real and personal estate to an amount not exceeding thirty thousand dollars.

SECTION 3. This act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved March 18, 1874.

NOTE. — The Prince Society was organized on the 25th of May, 1858. What was undertaken as an experiment has proved successful. This ACT OF INCORPORATION has been obtained to enable the Society better to fulfil its object, in its expanding growth.

THE PRINCE SOCIETY.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I. — This Society ſhall be called THE PRINCE SOCIETY; and it ſhall have for its object the publication of rare works, in print or manuſcript, relating to America.

ARTICLE II. — The officers of the Society ſhall be a Preſident, four Vice-Preſidents, a Correſponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, and a Treaſurer; who together ſhall form the Council of the Society.

ARTICLE III. — Members may be added to the Society on the recommendation of any member and a confirmatory vote of a majority of the Council.

Libraries and other Inſtitutions may hold memberſhip, and be repreſented by an authorized agent.

All members ſhall be entitled to and ſhall accept the volumes printed by the Society, as they are iſſued from time to time, at the prices fixed by the Council; and memberſhip ſhall be forfeited by a refuſal or neglect ſo to accept the ſaid volumes.

Any perſon may terminate his memberſhip by reſignation addreſſed in writing to the Preſident; provided, however, that he ſhall have previouſly paid for all volumes iſſued by the Society after the date of his election as a member.

ARTICLE IV. — The management of the Society's affairs ſhall be veſted in the Council, which ſhall keep a faithful record of its proceedings,

proceedings, and report the ſame to the Society annually, at its General Meeting in May.

ARTICLE V. — On the anniverſary of the birth of the Rev. Thomas Prince, — namely, on the twenty-fifth day of May, in every year (but if this day ſhall fall on Sunday or a legal holiday, on the following day), — a General Meeting ſhall be held at Boſton, in Maſſachuſetts, for the purpoſe of electing officers, hearing the report of the Council, auditing the Treaſurer's account, and tranſacting other buſineſs.

ARTICLE VI. — The officers ſhall be choſen by the Society annually, at the General Meeting; but vacancies occurring between the General Meetings may be filled by the Council.

ARTICLE VII. — By-Laws for the more particular government of the Society may be made or amended at any General Meeting.

ARTICLE VIII. — Amendments to the Conſtitution may be made at the General Meeting in May, by a three-fourths vote, provided that a copy of the ſame be tranſmitted to every member of the Society, at leaſt two weeks previous to the time of voting thereon.

COUNCIL.

RULES AND REGULATIONS.

1. THE Society ſhall be adminiſtered on the mutual principle, and ſolely in the intereſt of American hiſtory.

2. A volume ſhall be iſſued as often as practicable, but not more frequently than once a year.

3. An editor of each work to be iſſued ſhall be appointed, who ſhall be a member of the Society, whoſe duty it ſhall be to prepare, arrange, and conduct the ſame through the preſs; and, as he will neceſſarily be placed under obligations to ſcholars and others for

for aſſiſtance, and particularly for the loan of rare books, he ſhall be entitled to receive ten copies, to enable him to acknowledge and return any courteſies which he may have received.

4. All editorial work and official ſervice ſhall be performed gratuitouſly.

5. All contracts connected with the publication of any work ſhall be laid before the Council in diſtinct ſpecifications in writing, and be adopted by a vote of the Council, and entered in a book kept for that purpoſe ; and, when the publication of a volume is completed, its whole expenſe ſhall be entered, with the items of its coſt in full, in the ſame book. No member of the Council ſhall be a contractor for doing any part of the mechanical work of the publications.

6. The price of each volume ſhall be a hundredth part of the coſt of the edition, or as near to that as conveniently may be ; and there ſhall be no other aſſeſſments levied upon the members of the Society.

7. A ſum, not exceeding one thouſand dollars, may be ſet apart by the Council from the net receipts for publications, as a working capital ; and when the ſaid net receipts ſhall exceed that ſum, the exceſs ſhall be divided, from time to time, among the members of the Society, by remitting either a part or the whole coſt of a volume, as may be deemed expedient.

8. All moneys belonging to the Society ſhall be depoſited in the New England Truſt Company in Boſton, unleſs ſome other banking inſtitution ſhall be deſignated by a vote of the Council ; and ſaid moneys ſhall be entered in the name of the Society, ſubject to the order of the Treaſurer.

9. It shall be the duty of the Preſident to call the Council together, whenever it may be neceſſary for the tranſaction of buſineſs, and to preſide at its meetings.

10. It shall be the duty of the Vice-Preſidents to authorize all bills before their payment, to make an inventory of the property of

of the Society during the month preceding the annual meeting and to report the ſame to the Council, and to audit the accounts of the Treaſurer.

11. It ſhall be the duty of the Correſponding Secretary to iſſue all general notices to the members, and to conduct the general correſpondence of the Society.

12. It ſhall be the duty of the Recording Secretary to keep a complete record of the proceedings both of the Society and of the Council, in a book provided for that purpoſe.

13. It ſhall be the duty of the Treaſurer to forward to the members bills for the volumes, as they are iſſued; to ſuperintend the ſending of the books; to pay all bills authorized and indorſed by at leaſt two Vice-Preſidents of the Society; and to keep an accurate account of all moneys received and diſburſed.

14. No books ſhall be forwarded by the Treaſurer to any member until the amount of the price fixed for the ſame ſhall have been received; and any member neglecting to forward the ſaid amount for one month after his notification, ſhall forfeit his membership.

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THE PRINCE SOCIETY.

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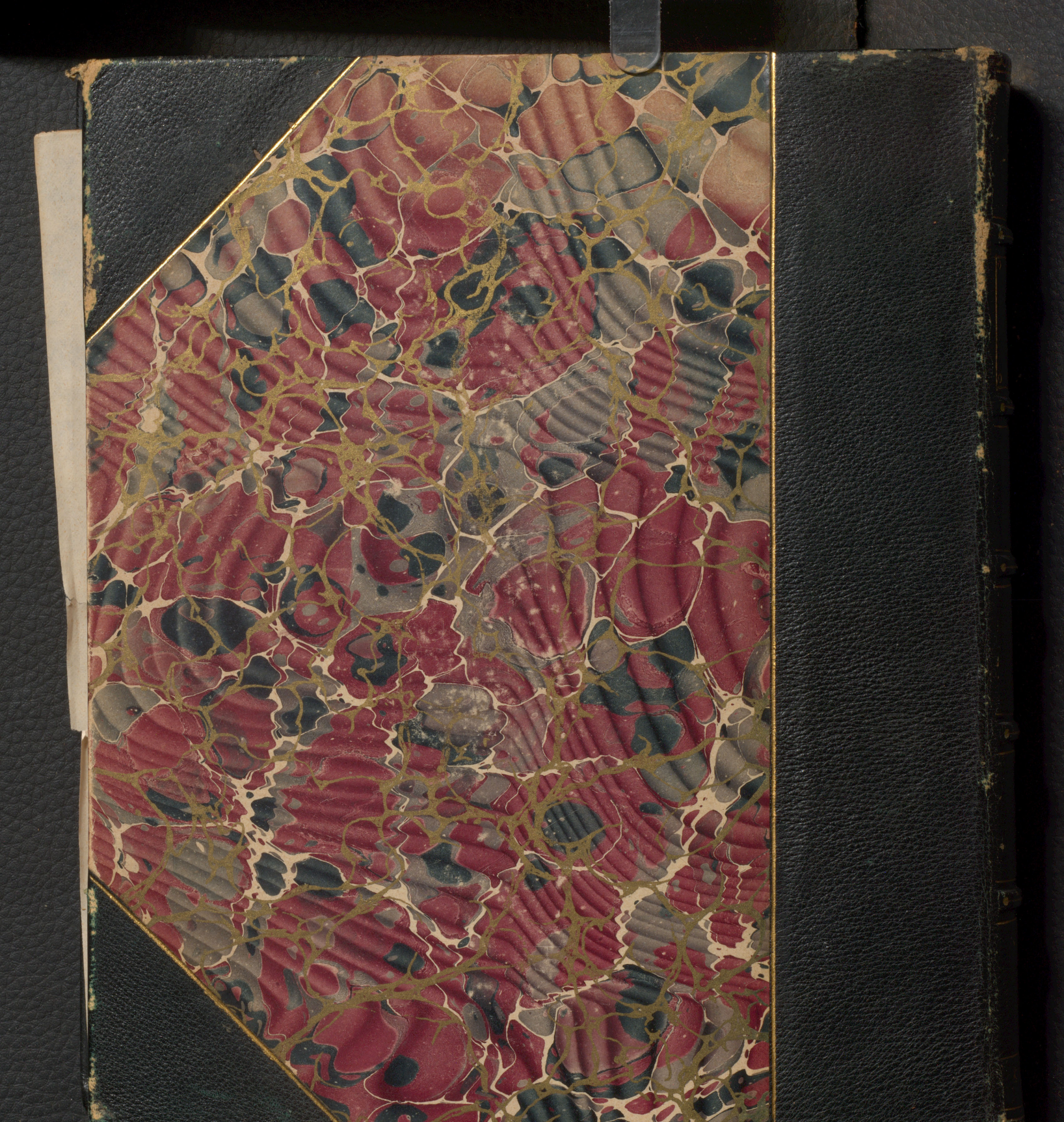
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